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МИНИСТЕРСТВО ПРОСВЕЩЕНИЯ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ

Федеральное государственное автономное образовательное учреждение высшего образования

«ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ ПРОСВЕЩЕНИЯ»
(ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ ПРОСВЕЩЕНИЯ)

Кафедра иностранных языков

УТВЕРЖДЕН
на заседании кафедры
Протокол от «18» марта 2024 г., № 9

Зав. кафедрой



Сарычева Л.В.

ФОНД ОЦЕНОЧНЫХ СРЕДСТВ

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

Направление подготовки: 40.03.01 Юриспруденция
Профили: Государственно-правовой профиль, Гражданско-правовой профиль,
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1. Перечень компетенций с указанием этапов их формирования в процессе освоения образовательной программы

Код и наименование компетенции	Этапы формирования
УК-4. Способен осуществлять деловую коммуникацию в устной и письменной формах на государственном языке Российской Федерации и иностранном (ых) языке (ах).	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	<p>Знать: базовую лексику и выражения, а также лексику, связанную со специальностью</p> <p>Уметь: общаться в большинстве типичных ситуаций, которые могут быть при поездке в</p>	Выполнение лексико-грамматических упражнений Тестирование Проект (защита презентации)	Шкала оценивания лексико-грамматического упражнения, шкала оценивания делового письма, шкала оценивания

			<p>страну изучаемого языка; понимать тексты на повседневные и профессиональные темы, в которых используются достаточно употребительные слова и конструкции</p>	<p>и) Аннотация Деловое письмо Устный ответ</p>	<p>я устного ответа, шкала оценивания проекта (защита презентации), шкала оценивания тестирования, шкала оценивания аннотации</p>
УК-4	Продвинутый	<p>1. Работа на учебных занятиях 2. Самостоятельная работа</p>	<p>Знать: основные жанры устной и письменной речи, лексические и грамматические особенности, стилистические особенности, терминологический аппарат своей специальности, широкий спектр узкоспециальных выражений и конструкций</p> <p>Уметь: понимать развернутые доклады и лекции по знакомой теме; написать подробное</p>	<p>Выполнение лексико-грамматических упражнений Тестирование Проект (защита презентации) Аннотация Деловое письмо Устный ответ</p>	<p>Шкала оценивания лексико-грамматического упражнения, шкала оценивания делового письма, шкала оценивания устного ответа, шкала оценивания проекта (презентации), шкала оценивания</p>

			<p>сообщение на разные темы; анализировать и переводить статьи по специальности и инструкции, касающиеся профессиональной деятельности</p> <p>Владеть: профессионально-ориентированной межкультурной компетенцией</p>		<p>тестирования, шкала оценивания аннотации</p>
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Шкала оценивания выполнения лексико-грамматических упражнений

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

Шкала оценивания тестирования

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

Шкала оценивания проекта (защита презентации)

Критерий оценки	Показатели	Баллы
План работы	План работы над проектом есть	2
	План работы отсутствует	0
Глубина раскрытия темы проекта	Тема раскрыта фрагментарно	2
	Тема раскрыта полностью	4
	Знания автора проекта превзошли рамки проекта	6
Разнообразие источников информации, целесообразность их использования	Большая часть информации не относится к теме	2
	Использован незначительный объём подходящей информации из ограниченного числа однотипных источников	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	
	<p>Предприняты попытки оформить работу в соответствии с установленными правилами</p> <p>Внешний вид и речь автора соответствуют правилам проведения презентации, но автор не владеет культурой общения, не уложился в регламент</p>	4
	<p>Чёткое и грамотное оформление</p> <p>Внешний вид и речь автора соответствуют правилам проведения презентации, автор владеет культурой общения, уложился в регламент, ему удалось вызвать большой интерес</p>	6
	<i>ИТОГО</i>	<i>20 баллов</i>

Шкала оценивания устного ответа

Критерий оценки	Баллы
Коммуникативная задача не решена. Высказывание сводится к отдельным словам и словосочетаниям.	1
Коммуникативная задача не решена. В высказывании отсутствуют логика и связность. Используемые языковые и речевые средства не соответствуют ситуации / теме / проблеме. Объем высказывания значительно ниже программных требований. Речь очень медленная, со значительным количеством пауз. Допущено значительное количество ошибок, препятствующих коммуникации.	2

<p>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.</p>	3
<p>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.</p>	4
<p>Коммуникативная задача решена не полностью. В высказывании значительно нарушены логика и последовательность изложения. Отсутствует вывод, не выражено свое отношение к обсуждаемой теме / проблеме. Используемые языковые и речевые средства не всегда соответствуют ситуации / теме / проблеме, они недостаточно разнообразны. Объем высказывания ниже программных требований. Речь недостаточно беглая. Компенсаторные умения не используются. Допущен ряд произносительных, лексических и грамматических ошибок, частично влияющих на процесс коммуникации.</p>	5
<p>Коммуникативная задача в основном решена. Высказывание носит завершенный характер, но имеются нарушения логики и последовательности изложения. Отсутствует вывод, не выражено</p>	6

<p>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.</p>	
<p>Коммуникативная задача решена относительно полно. Высказывание носит заверченный 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.</p>	7
<p>Коммуникативная задача решена относительно полно. Высказывание носит заверченный характер, построено логично и связно. Есть затруднения в выражении своего отношения к обсуждаемой теме / проблеме. Используемые языковые и речевые средства соответствуют ситуации / теме / проблеме и варьируются в пределах изученного материала. Используемые связующие элементы в основном адекватны. Объем высказывания соответствует программным требованиям. Речь беглая. В случае затруднений используются компенсаторные умения. Допущены отдельные произносительные, лексические и грамматические ошибки, не препятствующие коммуникации.</p>	8

<p>Коммуникативная задача решена полностью. Высказывание построено логично и 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. В случае необходимости используются компенсаторные умения. Допущены единичные произносительные и грамматические ошибки, не препятствующие коммуникации.</p>	9
<p>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</p>	10

Шкала оценивания аннотации

Критерий оценки	Баллы
<p>Аннотация отражает полностью содержание текста. Структура четкая, отражает логическое деление текста. Использованы речевые клише. Грамматические и пунктуационные ошибки отсутствуют.</p>	10 баллов
<p>Аннотация не совсем точно передает содержание текста. Структура аннотации не достаточно верно передает</p>	6 баллов

логическое членение текста. Присутствуют незначительные грамматические и пунктуационные ошибки (2-4).	
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

Лексико – грамматические упражнения

Выберите правильный вариант ответа.

1. Can you hear what he is ?

- (a) saying
- (b) speaking
- (c) telling
- (d) talking

2. She hasn't come home

- (a) still
- (b) already
- (c) yet
- (d) till

3. ITV yesterday evening.

- (a) saw
- (b) looked
- (c) viewed
- (d) watched

4. We live the city centre.

- (a) near
- (b) next
- (c) by
- (d) nearby

5. She looks a famous film star.

- (a) as
- (b) like
- (c) similar
- (d) same

6. This television gives you the news.

- (a) last
- (b) latest
- (c) least
- (d) later

7. I only.....one mistake in last night's test.

- (a) made
- (b) done
- (c) did
- (d) make

8. I want you to tell me the..... truth.

- (a) all

(b) exact

(c) real

(d) whole

9. He is looking a present to buy his girlfriend.

(a) for

(b) at

(c) in

(d) on

10. That's what I would like Christmas.

(a) for

(b) at

(c) in

(d) on

Тестирование

1. me what did you do at the weekend?

(a) Say

(b) Speak

(c) Announce

(d) Tell

2. Oh, it was a complete !

(a) accident

(b) happening

(c) disaster

(d) event

3. Why, what..... ?

(a) happened

(b) occurred

(c) arrived

(d) evolved

4. That.....interesting.

(a) rings

(b) looks

(c) hears

(d) sounds

5. InI agree.

(a) idea

(b) philosophy

(c) theory

(d) belief

6. But not in..... , eh?
(a) practices
(b) practice
(c) practical
(d) practicing
7. Exactly, in fact I almost
- (a) downed
(b) dropped
(c) dripped
(d) drowned
8. That.....have been horrible. So what are you doing this weekend?
(a) must
(b) may
(c) can
(d) should
9. I'm starting a..... of swimming lessons.
(a) line
(b) course
(c) run
(d) row

2

семестр

Лексико – грамматическое упражнение

1. Anna is
- (a) teacher
(b) teachers
(c) a teacher
(d) one teacher
2. boss said that you work hard.
- (a) Your
(b) Yours
(c) You're
(d) You
3. Every week I work five days and I get two days
- (a) after
(b) off
(c) not
(d) no
4. Ia job at the bank.
(a) got

- (b) get
 - (c) take
 - (d) like
5. Do you like Microsoft Macintosh computers more?
- (a) from
 - (b) or
 - (c) but
 - (d) of
6. Do you have.....children?
- (a) much
 - (b) very
 - (c) any
 - (d) all
7. His will not write. It is out of ink.
- (a) pencil
 - (b) friend
 - (c) television
 - (d) pen
8. Who won the soccer ?
- (a) sport
 - (b) gain
 - (c) game
 - (d) throw
9. Your.....break is from noon to 1 pm.
- (a) supper
 - (b) breakfast
 - (c) dinner
 - (d) lunch
10. The police all uniforms.
- (a) wear
 - (b) eat
 - (c) use
 - (d) save

Тестирование

1. As there are so many dishes on the menu, would you like me to.....something to eat?
- (a) decide
 - (b) suggest
 - (c) offer

(d) consider

2. They simply couldn't decide which restaurant to choose and so in the end they took a vote and the decided on a Chinese one.

(a) most

(b) more

(c) majority

(d) main

3. We waited one hour for the main dish to and then it was the wrong order.

(a) arrive

(b) reach

(c) deliver

(d) send

4. If you really want to enjoy the full flavour of that particular meal, you must remember to the right balance of sauces together.

(a) join

(b) stick

(c) attach

(d) mix

5. It is always more relaxing to eat in a restaurant where the faces of the staff are and know everyone by name.

(a) familiarized

(b) familiar

(c) familiarly

(d) familiarity

6. There was a great discussion about which particular type of cuisine the guests would choose and finally they reached a and settled on the set menu.

(a) compromising

(b) compromised

(c) compromise

(d) compromisingly

7. It doesn't matter how late you arrive at this restaurant you can always on a warm welcome from the owner.

(a) trust

(b) confide

(c) rely

(d) believe

8. The place was so full of people and tables that the waiter had to us through the crowds to our table.

(a) show

(b) guide

(c) conduct

(d) enable

9. The problem about writing on food is that however hard you try, you will say what you like and end up being.....

- (a) subjective
- (b) objective
- (c) reflective
- (d) directive

10. The success of a really good meal is that not only must it taste good but it should also look good and thus to your eye.

- (a) attract
- (b) appeal
- (c) attend
- (d) appear

3

семестр

Лексико – грамматическое упражнение

1. Many people have.....about winning a big prize in the lottery.

- (a) imagined (b) visualized (c) fantasized (d) discovered

2. For many people, their way of life is closely linked to theircircumstances.

- (a) economic (b) ergonomic (c) profitable (d) money

3. Most people like the of not having to work.

- (a) scheme (b) suggestion (c) design (d) idea

4. People who win the lottery are usually advised not to their address and phone number.

- (a) douse (b) screen (c) transmit (d) publicize

5. There are many stories about people who couldn'thow to be rich.

- (a) teach (b) cram (c) learn (d) revise

6. A sailor from Sweden won three million dollars in the lottery and handed it to..... shipmates and strangers in the street.

- (a) previous (b) former (c) past (d) earlier

7. All over the world, lotteries.....new millionaires every week.

- (a) construct (b) craft (c) build (d) create

8. Many people about what they would do with their money if they won the lottery.

(a) plan (b) dream (c) vision (d) hallucinate

Тестирование

1. Pablo Picasso showed his from a very young age.

(a) genius (b) brain (c) master mind (d) clever

2. Picasso hated school and often to go unless he could take his pet with him.

(a) rebuked (b) rebuffed (c) rejected (d) refused

3. Picasso's of people were often made up of triangles and squares with their features in the wrong places.

(a) likenesses (b) portraits (c) descriptions (d) images

4. Picasso died of heart failure during an of influenza in 1973.

(a) attack (b) assault (c) offence (d) assail

5. Picasso's work ideas about art around the world.

(a) misused (b) ruined (c) changed (d) tainted

6. Picasso was on October 25, 1881 in Malaga, Spain.

(a) born (b) borne (c) birth (d) birthday

7. Picasso to be one of the twentieth century's greatest painters.

(a) grew up (b) grown up (c) grew out of (d) grew on

8. Picasso's genius as an artist was by many people.

(a) famous (b) familiar (c) recognized (d) distinguished

9. When Picasso was 90 years old, he was honored by an at the Louvre in Paris.

(a) explanation (b) display (c) exhibition (d) museum

10. Picasso over 6,000 paintings, drawings and sculptures.

(a) painted (b) formed (c) shaped (d) created

Уметь: общаться в большинстве типичных ситуаций, которые могут быть при поездке в страну изучаемого языка; понимать тексты на повседневные и

профессиональные темы, в которых используются достаточно употребительные слова и конструкции

Примерная тематика проектной деятельности

1 семестр

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

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

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

Лексико – грамматическое упражнение

1. People have.....against each other in bowling for thousands of years.
(a) originated (b) competed (c) enjoyed (d) gained
2. The French probably.....tennis in about 1150.
(a) developed (b) originated (c) competed (d) invented
3. Martina Navratilova.....into one of the world's greatest tennis players.
(a) excelled (b) played (c) developed (d) established
4. Michael Schumacher has.....Formula 1 racing over the past decade.
(a) competed (b) invented (c) dominated (d) excelled
5. Helen Moody..... a record of eight Wimbledon singles titles.
(a) set (b) played (c) starred (d) defeated
6. In Germany during the Middle Ages, people bowling at village dances.
(a) competed (b) gained (c) enjoyed (d) brought
7. Alethea Gibson..... to play tennis on the streets of New York City.
(a) earned (b) learned (c) competed (d) excelled
8. In 1926 Suzanne Lenglen..... in the first U.S. professional tennis tour.
(a) invented (b) learned (c) starred (d) enjoyed

Тестирование

Mrs. Clinton was very fond of shopping. One day she 1___a beautiful cotton dress in a shop. When her husband 2___home in the evening, she 3___4___him about the dress which she 5___in the shop. —Darling,|| she 6___, —I want you 7___it for me. You 8___anything for me for so long!|| —How much it 9___?|| asked the husband) —It 10 ___20 pounds||. Mr Clinton promised his wife that if he 11___the money from a chief at the end of the week, he 12___her the money for the dress. On Friday evening he 13___some money on the table, and 14___his wife, —Here 15___the money! I 16___my word, you can 17___the dress!|| But the next evening, when Mrs Clinton 18___home after her shopping, her husband 19___—20___the dress?|| —No,|| she 21___a little and then explained, —You see, the dress 22___still in the window of the shop. It 23there for a week already. If nobody 24___it, then I 25___it either||.

1. a) sees c) saw b) see d) has seen
2. a) came c) come b) comes d) is coming

3. a) began c) begins b) begin d) is beginning
4. a) tell c) told b) tells d) to tell
5. a) had seen c) sees b) has seen d) see
6. a) say c) had said b) says d) said
7. a) to buy c) buys b) buy d) buying
8. a) hasn't bought c) don't buy b) haven't bought d) didn't buy
9. a) cost c) does it cost b) costs d) has it cost
10. a) costs c) cost b) is costing d) has cost
11. a) will get c) gets b) would get d) got
12. a) would give c) give b) will give d) gives
13. a) put c) is putting b) puts d) had put
14. a) tell c) tells b) is telling d) told
15. a) are c) am b) is d) were
16. a) have kept c) will keep b) has kept d) am keeping
17. a) to buy c) buy b) buying d) bought
18. a) returned c) has returned b) returns d) was returning
19. a) asks c) has asked b) is asking d) asked
20. a) have you bought c) do you buy b) had you bought d) are you buying
21. a) thinks c) thought b) think d) is thinking
22. a) be c) are b) is d) were 23. a) has been c) is b) have been d) was
24. a) want c) is wanting b) wants d) had wanted
25. a) don't want c) hasn't wanted b) doesn't want d) is wanting

2

семестр

Лексико – грамматическое упражнение

—all, —the|| or — — (with nouns denoting names of seasons)

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

Тестирование

1. The crane.....the heavy box on board the ship. a) raised c) was rising b) rose d) had risen

2. They wondered ... he would say next. a) that c) what b) which d) whom
3. They don't know you, ... they? a) don't c) aren't b) are d) do
4. He was punished ... telling lies. a) at c) in spite of b) because d) for
5. Join us! We are sure to have ... lovely time. a) a c) the b) an d) –
6. This is the man ... caused all that trouble. a) who c) whom b) what d) which
7. I'm not sure how to behave in ... a situation. a) so c) like b) such d) as
8. When a kid I used ... lots of chocolate. a) eat c) eating b) to eat d) to eating
9. I don't know if ... is coming to lunch today. a) none c) everything b) anything d) someone
10. Is ... all? a) what c) that b) those d) these
11. Call ... the ambulance, it's urgent! a) on c) – b) off d) in
12. While in Spain we visited ... Prado Art Museum. a) a c) – B. an d) the
13. Who ... you all this nonsense? a) says c) told b) tell d) spoke
14. We made a short trip to ... Netherlands. a) the c) an b) a d) –
15. Are you ... cross with me? a) yet c) already b) still d) while
16. They wondered ... to do next. a) that c) whom b) what d) which
17. What was ... moment in your life? a) happy c) happier b) the happy d) the happiest
18. I can work ... the day-time but not at night. a) at c) in b) on d) into
19. He agreed to my suggestions a) willing c) ready b) willingly d) happy
20. You never had to take part in the war,you? a) didn't c) had b) did d) hadn't

3 семестр

Лексико – грамматическое упражнение

1. Everyone lost their money when the so-called treasurer with all the society's savings.
(a) avoided (b) evaded (c) absolved (d) absconded
2. The police not only arrested the leader of the gang but also the.....who had helped him.
(a) acolytes (b) attackers (c) accomplices (d) associates
3. I have no wish to..... these criminal activities but I do have some sympathy with the perpetrators.
(a) condone (b) concede (c) console (d) conduct
4. The judge has to adopt a..... view of the crime by being utterly impartial.
(a) detracted (b) detached (c) definite (d) defended
5. Despite all the chaos around him the captain remained totally calm and assumed an air of
(a) equation (b) equality (c) equanimity (d) equity
6. The police stopped the car because it had followed an.....course down the road and asked the driver why he was going from side to side.
(a) uneven (b) unequal (c) unerring (d) erratic

7. It was possible to look up the topic on the internet but she decided instead to ask herfather who knew

the answer to most things.

(a) earnest (b) erudite (c) learning (d) imminent

8. The party leader advised all her members to any question about finance and avoid the topic of money

completely.

(a) risk (b) undertake (c) eschew (d) involve

9. He has a very refined vocabulary and prefers to use arather than a more common and vulgar word.

(a) euphemism (b) delicacy (c) finery (d) edition

10. I've looked everywhere for my key and even carried out an search of my car but I can't find that book.

(a) exhausted (b) exhausting (c) exhaust (d) exhaustive

Тестирование

1. Here is the news read by Alan Townend. Today the Government is plans for a new scheme to help society.

(a) opening (b) unveiling (c) undoing (d) showing

2. The idea behind the scheme is to try and stealing in the country.

(a) curb (b) kill (c) maintain (d) confuse

3. The scheme will be.....into the school curriculum at the beginning of next academic year.

(a) entered (b) presented (c) welcomed (d) introduced

4. Children will be taught to respect other people's property and

(a) belongings (b) attachments (c) added (d) additions

5. If child A steals child B's exercise book, child A will have to stand up in front of the school and to being a

thief.

(a) conduce (b) confess (c) conduct (d) conform

6. The Government.....said the Prime Minister was sick and tired of papers disappearing from his office.
(a) speaking person (b) speak person (c) spoken person (d) spokesperson
7. Last week the Prime Minister had to give an important address to an internationalwhen he found his
speech had disappeared.
(a) assembled (b) assembly (c) assembling (d) assembles
8. This was of course very embarrassing for the P.M. andof the speech he told funny stories.
(a) in spite (b) in case (c) instead (d) intend
9. The worst part of the incident was that the audience did not see the funny.....of his stories.
(a) edge (b) side (c) line (d) part
10. I regret I cannot continue with the news because someone has the next page.
(a) misappropriated (b) misconstrued (c) mistaken (d) misread (a) wondered (b) asked (c) considered (d) believed

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 match each part with its title.

A The UK is an island nation in Western Europe just off the coast of France. The mainland areas lie between latitudes 49°N and 59°N and longitudes 8°W to 2°E.

The UK lies between the North Atlantic Ocean and the North Sea, and comes within 35 km (22 miles) of the northwest coast of France, from which it is separated by the English Channel. Northern Ireland shares a 360 km international land boundary with the Republic of Ireland. The Channel Tunnel bored beneath the English Channel, now links the UK with France.

B The UK Landscape is very varied, ranging from the Grampian Mountains of Scotland to the lowland fens of England which are at or below sea level in places.

Scotland and Wales are the most mountainous parts of the UK. A ridge of hills, the Pennine, runs down the centre of northern England. Many coastal areas are low-lying,

especially in the east and south of England. These include the wetlands of the Somerset levels, that regularly flood during heavy rain.

Most of the UK is made up of gently rolling hills with isolated areas of high ground such as Dartmoor in the south-west of England or the Mourne Mountains in Northern Ireland.

C Northern Ireland is also home to the UK's largest lake, Lough Neagh, which covers an area of 396sq.km (153 sq miles). Other major lakes include Windermere in the English Lake District and Loch Lomond in Scotland. Another of Scotland's lakes, Loch Ness is famous for sightings of 'Nessie', a mythical monster!

D Being a relatively small Island, the UK's rivers are not very long. The Severn, its longest river, is just 338 km in length, beginning in Wales and entering the Atlantic Ocean near Bristol in England. Other major rivers include the Thames, which flows through Oxford and London, and the Trent and Mersey rivers, which drain rainfall from large areas of central England.

Title	Part
1. Rivers in the UK	
2. Geographical location	
3. Lakes	
4. Landscape	

Владеть: профессионально-ориентированной межкультурной компетенцией

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

Reading. Read the text.

Part A

There is a substantial overlap between these three legal systems and the three legal jurisdictions of the United Kingdom: England and Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland. Unlike the other three, Welsh law is not a separate legal system per se, merely the primary and secondary legislation generated by the Senedd, interpreted in accordance with the doctrines of English law and not impacting upon English common law (except where such Welsh legislation ousts a common law rule by virtue of being a superior form of law).

The UK does not have a single legal system because it was created by the political union of previously independent countries. Article 19 of the Treaty of Union, put into effect by the Acts of Union in 1707, created the Kingdom of Great Britain but guaranteed the continued existence of Scotland's and England's separate legal systems.[6] The Acts of Union of 1800, which joined Great Britain and Ireland into the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, contained no equivalent provisions but preserved the principle of different courts to be held in Ireland, of which the part called Northern Ireland continues to follow as part of the United Kingdom.

Each legal system defaults to its jurisdiction, each of whose courts further that law through jurisprudence. Choice of which jurisdiction's law to use is possible in private law: For example, a company in Edinburgh, Scotland and a company in Belfast, Northern Ireland are free to contract in English law. This is not so in public law (for example, criminal law), where there are set rules of procedure in each jurisdiction.

Part B

Although Scotland and Northern Ireland form part of the United Kingdom and share Westminster as a primary legislature, they have separate legal systems. (Even though Scotland became part of the UK over 300 years ago, Scots law has remained remarkably distinct from English law). The UK's highest civil appeal court is the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom, whose decisions are binding on all three UK jurisdictions, as in *Donoghue v Stevenson*, a Scots case that forms the basis of the UK's law of negligence.

"Great Britain" means England, Wales, Scotland, their adjacent territorial waters and the islands of Orkney and Shetland, the Hebrides and, by virtue of the Island of Rockall Act 1972, Rockall. "United Kingdom" means Great Britain and Northern Ireland and their adjacent territorial waters, but not the Isle of Man, nor the Channel Islands, whose independent status was discussed in *Rover International Ltd. v Canon Film Sales Ltd.* (1987)[8] and *Chloride Industrial Batteries Ltd. v F. & W. Freight Ltd.* (1989).[9] "British Islands" – but not "British Isles" – means the United Kingdom, the Isle of Man and the Channel Islands.

Part C

English and Welsh law (or just *English law*) refers to the legal system administered by the courts in England and Wales, which rule on both civil and criminal matters. English and Welsh law is based on the principles of common law.^[11] English and Welsh law can be described as having its own legal doctrine, distinct from civil law legal systems since 1189.

There has been no major codification of the law, rather the law is developed by judges in court, applying statute, precedent and case-by-case reasoning to give explanatory judgments of the relevant legal principles. These judgments are binding in future similar cases (*stare decisis*), and for this reason are often reported in law reports. The courts of England and Wales are headed by the Senior Courts of England and Wales, consisting of the Court of Appeal, the High Court of Justice (for civil cases) and the Crown Court (for criminal cases). The Supreme Court is the highest court in the land for both criminal and civil appeal cases in England and Wales (also in Northern Ireland cases and civil cases in Scots law) and any decision it makes is binding on every other court in the same jurisdiction, and often has persuasive effect in its other jurisdictions.[12]

On appeal, a court may overrule the decisions of its inferior courts, such as county courts (civil) and magistrates' courts (criminal). The High Court may also quash on judicial review both administrative decisions of the Government and delegated legislation. Before the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom was created in October 2009, the highest appellate body was the Appellate Committee of the House of Lords, usually just referred to as "The House of Lords".[12]

After the Acts of Union, in 1707 English law became one of two legal systems in different parts of the same United Kingdom and has been influenced by Scots law, most notably in the development and integration of the law merchant by Lord Mansfield and in time the development of the law of negligence. Scottish influence may have influenced the abolition of the forms of action in the nineteenth century and extensive procedural reforms in the twentieth. Since the accession of the United Kingdom to the European Communities in 1973, English law has also been affected by European law under the Treaty of Rome.

Part D

The Supreme Court of the United Kingdom is the highest court in the UK for all criminal and civil cases in England and Wales and Northern Ireland, and for all civil cases in Scots law.[12] The Supreme Court is the final court, in the normal sense of the term, for interpreting United Kingdom law. Note that, unlike in some other systems, for example, the United States, the Supreme Court cannot strike down statutes. Its precedents can be expressly overridden by Parliament, by virtue of the doctrine of parliamentary sovereignty. The Supreme Court came into being in October 2009, replacing the Appellate Committee of the House of Lords.[24][25]

In England and Wales, the court system is headed by the Senior Courts of England and Wales, consisting of the Court of Appeal, the High Court of Justice (for civil cases) and the Crown Court (for criminal cases). The Courts of Northern Ireland follow the same pattern.

In Scotland, the chief courts are the Court of Session, for civil cases, and the High Court of Justiciary, for criminal cases. Sheriff courts, as they deal with both criminal and civil caseloads, have no equivalent outside Scotland.

Certain tribunals for administrative law cases have UK-wide jurisdiction, notably those dealing with immigration—the Upper Tribunal (Immigration and Asylum Chamber) and Special Immigration Appeals Commission—military and national security, competition and intellectual property, and a few others. Similarly, the Employment Appeal Tribunal has jurisdiction throughout Great Britain but not in Northern Ireland. The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council is the highest court of appeal for several independent Commonwealth countries, the British Overseas Territories, and the British Crown Dependencies.

Part E

The Parliament of the United Kingdom is bicameral, with an upper house - the House of Lords, and a lower house - the House of Commons. The House of Lords includes two different types of members: The Lords Spiritual (the senior bishops of the Church of England) and the Lords Temporal (members of the Peerage). Its members are not elected by the population at large.

The House of Commons is a democratically elected chamber. The two Houses meet in separate chambers in the Palace of Westminster, commonly known as the "Houses of Parliament", in the City of Westminster in London. By constitutional convention, all government ministers, including the Prime Minister, are members of the House of Commons or House of Lords.

Parliament evolved from the early medieval councils that advised the sovereigns of England and Scotland. In theory, power is vested not in Parliament, but in the "King-in-Parliament" (or "Queen-in-Parliament"). The King-in-Parliament is, according to the doctrine of parliamentary sovereignty, completely sovereign with the power to make and unmake any law other than to bind itself.

Real power is vested in the House of Commons. The Sovereign acts only as a figurehead and the powers of the House of Lords are greatly limited. The parliament retains some law-making powers for some jurisdictions outside of the United Kingdom proper.

Analyze the content of each part of the text and entitle them.

Part	Title	Answer
Part A	a. England and Wales	
Part B	b. United Kingdom Parliament	
Part C	c. Courts and tribunals	
Part D	<u>d. Legal jurisdictions</u>	

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. Особенности языка профессионального общения - лексика, грамматика, синтаксис
3. Основные направления изучаемой науки.
4. Современные направления развития изучаемой науки.
5. История развития изучаемой науки.
6. Первые законы – античность, Рим, Греция. Закон Талиона.

1 семестр Тексты социокультурной направленности

1. Buckingham Palace today

Today, Buckingham Palace is very much a working building and the centrepiece of the UK's constitutional monarchy, serving as the venue for many royal events and ceremonies from entertaining foreign Heads of States to celebrating achievement at Investitures and receptions.

More than 50,000 people visit the Palace each year as guests to State banquets, lunches, dinners, receptions and Garden Parties. Her Majesty also holds weekly audiences with the Prime Minister and receives newly-appointed foreign Ambassadors at 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.

2. British Museum

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

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

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

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

3. National Gallery

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

Unlike comparable museums in continental Europe, the National Gallery was not formed by nationalising an existing royal or princely art collection. It came into being when the British government bought 38 paintings from the heirs of John Julius Angerstein, an insurance broker and patron of the arts, in 1824. After that initial purchase the Gallery was shaped mainly by its early directors, notably Sir Charles Lock Eastlake, and by private donations, which comprise two-thirds of the collection. The resulting collection is small in size, compared with many European national galleries, but encyclopaedic in scope; most major developments in Western painting "from Giotto to Cézanne" are represented with important works. It used to be claimed that this was one of the few national galleries that had all its works on permanent exhibition, but this is no longer the case.

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

Denise Scott Brown, is a notable example of Postmodernist architecture in Britain. The current Director of the National Gallery is Gabriele Finaldi.

4. London Eye

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

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

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

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

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

5. Tower of London

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

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

The peak period of the castle's use as a prison was the 16th and 17th centuries, when many figures who had fallen into disgrace, such as Elizabeth I before she became queen, were held within its walls. This use has led to the phrase "sent to the Tower". Despite its enduring reputation as a place of torture and death, popularised by 16th-century religious propagandists and 19th-century writers, only seven people were executed within the Tower before the World Wars of the 20th century. Executions were more commonly held on the notorious Tower Hill to the north of the castle, with 112 occurring there over a 400-year period. In the latter half of the 19th century, institutions such as the Royal Mint moved out of the castle to other locations, leaving many buildings empty. Anthony Salvin and John Taylor took the opportunity to restore the Tower to what was felt to be its medieval

appearance, clearing out many of the vacant post-medieval structures. In the First and Second World Wars, the Tower was again used as a prison, and witnessed the executions of 12 men for espionage. After the Second World War, damage caused during the Blitz was repaired and the castle reopened to the public. Today the Tower of London is one of the country's most popular tourist attractions. Under the ceremonial charge of the Constable of the Tower, it is cared for by the charity Historic Royal Palaces and is protected as a World Heritage Site.

6. Madame Tussauds

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

Other famous people were added to the exhibition, including Lord Nelson, and Sir Walter Scott. Some of the sculptures done by Marie Tussaud herself still exist. The gallery originally contained some 400 different figures, but fire damage in 1925, coupled with German bombs in 1941, has rendered most of these older models defunct. The casts themselves have survived (allowing the historical waxworks to be remade), and these can be seen in the museum's history exhibit. The oldest figure on display is that of Madame du Barry. Other faces from the time of Tussaud include Robespierre and George III. In 1842, she made a self portrait which is now on display at the entrance of her museum. She died in her sleep on 15 April 1850.

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

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

7. Shakespeare Theatre Company

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

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

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

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

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

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

8. Agatha Christie

Agatha Christie is known all over the world as the Queen of Crime. She wrote 78 crime novels, 19 plays and 6 romantic novels under the name of Mary Westmacott. Her books

have been translated into 103 foreign languages. She is the third best-selling author in the world (after Shakespeare and the Bible). Many of her novels and short stories have been filmed. The Mousetrap, her most famous play, is now the longest-running play in history.

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

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

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

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

9. Conan Doyle

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

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

Many discussions take place about where 221 B was. There is no house there now. But a large company has its office near the place. This company answers twenty or so letters

which still come every week to Sherlock Holmes, 221 B Baker Street Most come from the United States and many people ask if Mr. Holmes can help them with some problem.

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

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

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

10. Diana - the People's Princess

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

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

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

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

She was a kind woman. Hundreds of people talked about Diana's kindnesses. She liked ordinary people, though she was rich and had many rich friends. Wherever she was, she

was always ready to lend a hand. She was devoted to the sick and the poor. She visited hospitals for people with AIDS and for lepers and wasn't afraid to touch them, talk to them, listen to them. She worked on children's charities, and had teamed up with Hillary Clinton in an effort to ban landmines. And it's not only money, that she wanted to give people. She wanted to give them apartof her soul.to make them happy because she was unhappy herself. She wanted to give them love, because she needed love herself.

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

She was, indeed, the People's Princess.

11. Margaret Thatcher

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

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

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

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

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

12. A Brief History of Oxford city

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

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

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

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

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

coopers, carpenters and blacksmiths. In the later Middle Ages Oxford declined in importance.

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

From 1819 Oxford had gas street lighting.

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

Oxford gained its first cinema in 1910.

The fate of Oxford was changed in 1913 when a man named Morris began making cars in the city. In 1919 a radiator making company was formed. By the 1930s Oxford was an important manufacturing centre. It was also a prosperous city., Furthermore it escaped serious damage during World War II.

Oxford airport opened in 1938.

Today the main industries are still car manufacturing and making vehicle parts and publishing. Today the population of Oxford is 121,000

13. A Brief History of Cambridge

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Cambridge was made a city in 1951. The first cinema in Cambridge opened in 1910.

Today Cambridge has a population of 109,000 people.

14. English Meals

The English proverb says: every cook praises his own broth. One can not say English cookery is bad, but there is not a lot of variety in it in comparison with European cuisine.

The English are very particular about their meals. The usual meals in England are breakfast, lunch, tea and dinner.

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

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

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

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

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

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

The British enjoy tasting delicious food from other countries, for example, French, Italian, Indian and Chinese food. Modern people are so busy that they do not have a lot of time for cooking themselves. So, the British buy the food at the restaurant and bring it home

already prepared to eat. So we can conclude that take-away meals are rather popular among the population. Eating has become rather international in Britain lately.

15. Life of Youth in Britain

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

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

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

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

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

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

16. National Emblems of the United Kingdom

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

In the Royal Arms three lions symbolize England, a lion rampant — Scotland, and a harp — Ireland. The whole is encircled and is supported by a lion and a unicorn. The lion has been used as a symbol of national strength and of the British monarchy for many centuries. The unicorn, a mythical animal that looks like a horse with a long straight horn, has appeared on the Scottish and British royal coats of arms for many centuries, and is a symbol of purity.

17. Historical Reference

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Alfred was a brave man as well as a good one. While he was king, the Danes came in their boats to England and fought their way up the rivers. They wanted to live in England and

make it their own country. Alfred and his people fought hard because they did not want to give up their country to the Danes.

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

18. A View on Entertainment in Britain

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

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

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

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

The theatre is little better. Although Britain has a theatrical tradition that is richer and more varied than almost any country in the world (this is, after all, the nation that has produced Shakespeare, Laurence Olivier and a sector of London — the West End — packed with more theatres and original productions than you could wish for), British audiences can be interminably irritating with their frequently snobby and smug attitudes. Worst of all are the

regulars of the Royal Shakespeare Company who derive immense pleasure from spotting — or pretending to spot — the most intellectual of puns (plays on words) or witty quips. They then laugh ostentatiously in a theatrical manner to show the surrounding audience that they, and only they, have the intelligence to understand the true meaning of the play that they are watching. You can always spot these characters because they glance discreetly around themselves a few seconds after they have finished laughing to check that their neighbours have noticed them.

A similar situation exists within British television. On the one hand, the Briton enjoys some of the best TV in the world. Soap-operas like Eastenders are vastly more enjoyable and believable than their standard American equivalents because they concentrate more on characters, acting and plot than on the immaculate hair styles of their stars.

On the other hand, however, Britain's TV producers still manage to let everyone down by making some utter garbage. There is a particular group of British 'comedians' — men like Brae Forsyth and Ronnie Corbett — whose humour ceased to be funny a long time ago (if it was ever funny in the first place). Why are they still on the TV? They're rubbish. To make matters worse, all these dreary and tedious shows are broadcast at peak times on Friday and Saturday nights. No one wants to watch them; what is there to do but go out and drink a pint of warm beer...?

19. Education in Great Britain: Higher Education

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The colleges vary very much in size and extent of grounds and buildings.

Colleges choose their own students, and a student only becomes a member of the University by having been accepted by a college. Students are chosen mainly on academic merit, but the policy of colleges in this respect varies from college to college. Some tend to be rather keen to admit a few men who are very good at rugby or some other sport, or sons of former students or of lords, or of eminent citizens, or of millionaires.

The colleges and university buildings are scattered about the town, mostly in the central area, though the scientific laboratories and the women's colleges are quite a long way out.

20. Democracy in Great Britain

Great Britain is one of the biggest and highly developed countries in the world. Britain's democratic system of government is long established and well tried, and has provided a

remarkable political stability. Britain's overseas relations including its membership in the European Economic Community and its links with Commonwealth countries, enable it to realize international cooperation.

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

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

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

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

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

21. Unwritten Rules of Great Britain

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

Queuing is a national habit and it is considered polite or good manners to wait for your turn.

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

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

22. Palace of Westminster

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

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

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

The Palace is one of the centres of political life in the United Kingdom; "Westminster" has become a metonym for the UK Parliament, and the Westminster system of government has taken its name after it. The Elizabeth Tower, in particular, which is often referred to by the name of its main bell, "Big Ben", is an iconic landmark of London and the United Kingdom in general, one of the most popular tourist attractions in the city and an emblem of parliamentary democracy. The Palace of Westminster has been a Grade I listed building since 1970 and part of a UNESCO World Heritage Site since 1987.

23. Rail transport in Great Britain

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

The United Kingdom is a member of the International Union of Railways (UIC). The UIC Country Code for United Kingdom is 70. The UK has the 18th largest railway network in the world; despite many lines having closed in the 20th century it remains one of the

densest rail networks. It is one of the busiest railways in Europe, with 20% more train services than France, 60% more than Italy, and more than Spain, Switzerland, The Netherlands, Portugal and Norway combined, as well as representing more than 20% of all passenger journeys in Europe.

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

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

24. Tea in Britain

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

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

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

Coffee Houses

Curiously, it was the London coffee houses that were responsible for introducing tea to England. One of the first coffee house merchants to offer tea was Thomas Garway, who owned an establishment in Exchange Alley. He sold both liquid and dry tea to the public as early as 1657. Three years later he issued a broadsheet advertising tea at £6 and £10 per

pound (ouch!), touting its virtues at "making the body active and lusty", and "preserving perfect health until extreme old age".

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

Taxation on Tea

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

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

25. British Pubs

Have you ever been to Great Britain? If you have, it will be much easier for you to imagine what a real British pub is. Anyway, I'll acquaint you with all the peculiarities of this extraordinary place.

A pub is a short word for "public house". It is a unique place not only because there are no similar bars or cafes in other countries, but because you won't find any public place like pub in Britain itself. It is not one of those restaurants with rather formal atmosphere. No, it will sooner be compared with a fast-food restaurant where all people are equal and there is no need to follow high manners. However, there is an essential difference — pub is not a place to come for a hamburger to satisfy one's hunger. A British pub is a place like home where you come to meet people, to learn latest news and just chat. A pub is the only public place where you won't be told off for noise, exclamations and even shouting. All this hubbub and dim make the atmosphere so unique. There are over 60 000 pubs in Great Britain. The local pub plays an important role in almost every neighbourhood.

In previous years pubs used to serve almost nothing but beer and other spirits. But nowadays you can be offered a various menu of hot dishes and snacks as well. Most pubs offer only special English meals, which is quite cheap. As for drinks, they are quite

expensive. Some pubs are controlled by breweries, that is why beer may cost even higher than wine or other spirits.

British pubs have their special character appealing to the idea of tradition. Each pub has its own name painted on a signboard hanging outside. As a rule, this sign is made in a certain old-fashioned style. British pubs usually bear the names relating to their location: The Three Arrows, The Cross, The Railway, The Church. It may be ironic description of the pub itself: The Nutshell. They may be named after a noted individual (The Lord Nelson, The Emma Hamilton); after an aristocrat or a monarch (The King's Head, The Queen Victoria, The Duke of Cambridge); their names may relate to the names of some animals (The Red Lion, The Unicorn). Some pub signs are in the form of a pun or rebus.

All pubs are built in a particular style. Even if it is a newly built pub, it is often designed to look as if it were about several hundred years old. All the windows in the pub are small in order to make a cozy home atmosphere. Very few pubs have tables outside the building. This peculiarity came from the Victorians who thought that people mustn't be seen drinking. On the other hand, many pubs have a garden at the back for children because children are not allowed in most pubs. Moreover, there still exist very few pubs where it is surprising for a woman to walk in.

Another distinctive point of pubs is that there is no waiter service. Some people may consider that a bit strange way of making people feel comfortable, but British people are sure that being served at a table makes the visitors be reserved and unnaturally polite. So, when you come to a pub, the first thing you have to do is lean on the bar and wait for someone behind the bar to serve you. Eye contact and "smiling eyes" is a key to getting served faster. The staff in a pub is usually very friendly and jesting. They are expected to know all the regular customers personally, their preferences in food and drinks. It makes the atmosphere very relaxed, informal and amicable. All the staff is always ready to chat and take part in any sort of discussion.

The visitors of British pubs like to spend time playing there a wide range of games: from the well-known darts, skittles, dominoes, cards and billiards to more uncommon — Aunt Sally and ringing the bull. Many pubs also hold special Theme Nights with tournaments at the games listed above, or karaoke. A lot of pubs are equipped with large plasma panels, and many people come here to watch football or other sport game with a glass of beer in a pleasant company.

2 семестр

1. UK Education System

The education system in the UK is divided into four main parts: primary education, secondary education, further education and higher education. Children in the UK have to legally attend primary and secondary education which runs from about 5 years old until the student is 16 years old. Primary and Secondary Education More than 90% of students in the UK attend publicly-funded state schools (1); still there are also financially self-supported independent, or —privatel, schools (2). By law, all children in England and Wales between ages 5 and 16 must receive a full-time education, while in Northern Ireland, children must begin at age 4. For children under age 5, publicly-funded nurseries and pre-schools are available for a limited number of hours each week. Primary schooling starts at 5 and continues up to the age of 11 when children take their first exams to proceed to secondary schooling phase which is also compulsory in the country. From the age of 11-14, students study a broad range of subjects. National Curriculum (3) core subjects at this stage are: English (Welsh is also a core subject in Welsh-speaking schools), mathematics, science, design and technology, information and communication technology, history, geography, modern foreign languages, music, art and design, physical education, and citizenship. When students reach 14, they generally enter into the first year of a 2-year process known as GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education). GCSE's are a set of exams that test your knowledge and skill. Most schools offer to take such core subjects as English, Maths and Sciences (either combined or separate Biology, Chemistry and Physics). Students typically then select additional 4 or 5 subjects in which to take GCSE's, and these can be subjects like French, German, Business Studies, Design and Technology, Music, Sports Science, Geography, History and many other options. GCSEs mark the end of compulsory education for students in the UK. Once they have completed their GCSEs students then have the choice to either move into further education (with a view to higher education) or can leave school and look for work. Scotland has its own qualification framework that is separate from that in England, Wales and Northern Ireland (4). After seven years of primary education and four years of compulsory secondary education, students aged 15 to 16 may take the Scottish Certificate of Education (SCE). The Scottish Certificate of Education is recognized throughout the UK as the equivalent to GCE A-levels and is usually the entry qualification for university.

2. Further UK Education System

When students reach the age of 16 and have completed their GCSE's they have a few options to choose from: — Find work — Academic Qualifications Most schools in the UK have what is called a "6th Form" for students to enter after they have taken their GCSE's. As an alternative, there are many "6th Form Colleges" that will offer the same courses from students at schools that do not have a 6th form. Here students typically study 4 A-levels (5), further academic qualifications required of students before they enter higher education and a degree program. — Vocational Qualifications For students who are not so academically minded, they still have the option to further their education by studying a vocational course (6) that will provide them with a more hands-on experience and education. Higher Education System The UK has a vast variety of higher education opportunities to offer students with over 100 universities offering various degree programs for students from the UK and around the world. In the UK about one-third of all students go on to some form of higher education. This makes competition for places very fierce and so it is advised to apply early for courses. In the UK most undergraduate degree programs take three years to finish; however, the —sandwich course (7) is increasing in popularity. In Scotland the courses are four years in length for undergraduate programs. Masters programs are generally shorter in length and undertaken after graduation of undergraduate programs. Some professional degrees like medicine, veterinary, law etc. have longer programs that can be as much as five years. From 2007, universities in the UK are allowed to charge students from the UK up to £3,070 per year (depending on the school and location). Students from the EU also only have to pay the same fees as students from the UK, but international students from the rest of the world have to pay the full school fees which will vary depending on the school. These fees for international students can range anywhere from £4,000 per year right up to £18,000 per year or more.

3. US Education System

The United States offers top-notch resources and qualitative education that enables students to pursue world-class education. The educational system comprises 12 years of primary and high school education, which is mandatory for getting admission in any graduate college, university, or for any professional and technical schools.

Primary/Elementary School Usually the education for Americans starts at around 5 years of age. Primary schooling lasts for about five to six years. In this level students complete five grades of their education focusing on the broad range of knowledge, basic academic learning, reading and socialization skills. This also includes learning basics of mathematics, English proficiency, science, social studies, physical development and fine

arts. Students have a choice to select their education held either in public schools, or private schools, or home school. High/Secondary School Upon completion of five grades of education in primary school, students enter high/secondary school. The duration of secondary school is about six to seven years, by which students complete their 12 grades. Junior high school (or middle school) and Senior high school together provide secondary education to the children (8). The mandatory subjects which are taught in US high schools include Science (biology, chemistry and physics), Mathematics (statistics, algebra, geometry and calculus), English (humanities, literature and composition) and Social Sciences (history, geography and economics). Most of the states have made health courses mandatory so that the students learn about first-aid, nutrition, sexuality and drug awareness. Art, foreign language and physical education are also made compulsory by some schools in the curriculum. After completion of their secondary education (9), successful students obtain a high school diploma.

5 Undergraduate School Undergraduate Schools offer a two-year degree which is called Associate's degree or a four-year degree called Bachelor's degree in a particular field of study. This particular course of study is called a major. The most common bachelor's degrees are Bachelor of Arts (B.A.), Bachelor of Science (B.S.), Bachelor of Fine Arts (B.F.A.), Bachelor of Engineering (B.Eng.).

– Associate's Degree. This is a two-year program at the undergraduate level. Completion of this program enables the students to seek a transfer into the third year of the four-year Bachelor's degree either in 4-year colleges or universities. Taking this route to study the first two years is very inexpensive for both American and International students, since the tuition and fees are very low when compared to other types of colleges. Most colleges require good score in TOEFL (for establishing English proficiency) (10) and Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) Reasoning scores (11) for admission in their Associate Degree programs.

– Bachelor's Degree: This is a four-year program at the undergraduate level. This is the first degree with which most students plan their career or profession. Hundreds of majors in all the fields are offered at the Bachelor's level, which makes education an attractive proposition for students all over the world. In the U.S, the first year of Bachelor's degree is called the Freshman Year, the second one, the Sophomore Year, the third, Junior Year and the fourth, the Senior Year. Professional School For professional programs like Law, Medicine, Pharmacy etc., US universities offer professional programs leading to degrees such as MD (for Medicine), Pharm D (for Pharmacy) etc. These are known as the first professional degrees, completion of which entitles the students to practice as professionals in their respective fields (after meeting other requirements). Admissions into most of these professional programs are based on good performance in entrance tests after completion of a Bachelor's degree in related subjects. Students are evaluated for their

performance, based on the number of credits they obtain during their academic performance. These credits are calculated depending upon the performance in semester-end examinations, class room preparation, seminar participation, laboratory hours etc. For every course of study students will earn a particular number of credits per semester. Professors and advisers assist the students in organizing their course schedule for their academic year.

4. Accommodation for students in the UK

There are a number of international student accommodation options you can choose for UK study. We've put together some useful tips to help you make up your mind. There are two main choices for international student accommodation – halls of residence or private flats and houses. Your options depend on your UK study choice and the institution you apply to, but here are some things to consider in choosing a great place to live: – How close is the accommodation to your place of study? – Are there good public transport links? – Is it close to shops and facilities? – How big is your room? – Will you have enough quiet and privacy for study? University/college owned international student accommodation. Most UK institutions provide accommodation for international students. This will either be a room in halls of residence (either full-board or self-catering) or a self-catering shared house or flat. If you want to stay in university/college owned accommodation you should apply as soon as you are accepted on your course. Remember that it's always a good idea to arrange accommodation before you travel to the UK. If you can't, speak to the accommodation office at your place of study when you arrive. Private accommodation for UK international students. You can make the most of your independence as an international student by renting private accommodation. The most usual type is a room in a house or flat shared with other students. It's a good idea to agree how to split bills beforehand and you'll do your own cooking and cleaning. It's a good idea to ask for advice from your institution's accommodation or welfare officer before you sign any contracts for private accommodation. Lodging with a UK family in their own home is another option. You will usually need to abide by their house rules, but it's a great opportunity to experience UK culture first-hand. UK accommodation for international English language students. If you're studying English in the UK, your English language centre can help you arrange accommodation. The choices available will depend on where you study: it may be halls of residence or a hostel, or lodging with a UK family. Living with a UK family is the most common option and will give you the opportunity to practise English in a supportive environment. Independent school accommodation in the UK. If you are planning to study at a UK independent college or school, you will most likely be

offered boarding at that institution. Independent boarding schools offer a relaxed, home-like atmosphere. Pupils stay in bedrooms or dormitories on the school site, living under the same roof as residential house staff and their families. Useful link: UKCISA - http://www.ukcisa.org.uk/student/info_sheets/accommodation.php

5. 5 Questions to Ask When Considering a Gap Year

By Rebecca Kern

While it has been a longtime tradition for high school graduates in Europe to spend a "gap year" traveling the world and volunteering before college, this practice is becoming more popular and accepted in the United States. U.S. News spoke with students who took a gap year before college, as well as gap year counselors and college admissions officials, to answer common questions related to taking a gap year.

1. What exactly is a gap year? The term "gap year" has taken on different meanings over the years. Holly Bull, president of the first and longest-running gap year counseling organization in the US, defines a gap year as a period of time that people use to explore areas of interest. Bull says a gap year doesn't have to last a full year and can be taken at any age, but the typical gap year is taken by students between high school and college. Gail Reardon, who runs the gap year counseling firm Taking Off, says: —The name implies that students are taking a gap in their education, when really the gap is to fill in what 15 they haven't learned in school. A gap year is about what happens after school, how you make decisions, how you figure out who you are, where you want to go, and how you need to get there. It's about the skill set you need to live your life."
2. I want to go to college. Should I apply before or after I take a gap year? Most counselors and college admissions officials encourage high school seniors to apply and get accepted to college before taking a gap year. Reardon says students should apply to college while in high school because their junior and senior years are set up to support the college application process. William Fitzsimmons, dean of admissions and financial aid at Harvard, says Harvard accepts students who apply after their gap year.

1. Are there affordable options for a gap year? Many domestic and international programs charge little to no fees. Bull recommends students look for programs that offer free housing and food in turn for volunteer work. But be prepared to work. Zack Sills just completed his gap year, and he lived for free on a ranch in British Columbia. In return for food and housing, he cut firewood, took care of livestock, and worked in the kitchen. Gap years can also save parents money in the long run. Steve Goodman, an educational consultant and college admissions strategist, says, "If a gap year clarifies what a student is

going to do at college, it pays back in college because you're saving tuition money for the time a student may have spent clarifying their major." 2. What are the benefits of a gap year? Gap year consultants, students, parents, and even college admissions officials all claim that gap year experiences make these students more mature, confident, and career driven. Goodman says, "Taking a gap year can clarify the intellectual, academic, and professional objectives of a student." The students emphasize that the experiential learning during their gap year was unlike any they could gain in the college classroom. Sills, 19, says, "I learned just as much in my nineteenth year then I probably learned in my last two years of high school. When I was in Canada, I was the only American at the ranch. There were Canadians, Germans, and Australians, so it really made me appreciate other cultures. I learned a lot in Canada; the type of work I did made me come outside of my comfort zone." He says this experience helped prepare him to pursue a film degree this fall at the School of Visual Arts in New York City. Emily Carr, 19, spent September to December 2009 taking courses related to marine biology on a boat that toured the Eastern Caribbean. For the rest of her gap year, she spent this spring volunteering for a penguin and sea bird hospital in Cape Town, South Africa, and then in an animal rescue and refuge center outside of Bangkok, Thailand. "My gap year helped me build my people skills, gain more independence, and more maturity," Carr says. 3. What do college admissions officials think of gap years? College admission officials have become more accepting of the gap year over the past several years. Some even encourage their admitted students to take one. Some encourage students to take a gap year so they don't burn out in college. Those who come to school after a gap year are "so fresh, anxious, and excited to be back in school," he says. At Binghamton, Brown has also noticed an increase in the number of students taking a gap year. "I think the increased maturity, self confidence, sense of problem solving, and recognition that they can do these kinds of wonderful things only serves them well in their college experience," she says.

6. Harvard University

Location: Cambridge, Mass. Year Founded: 1636 Tuition and Fees (Fall 2009): \$36,828 Total enrollment (Fall 2008): 26,496 Undergraduate enrollment: 10,156 Undergraduate applicants (Fall 2008): 27,380 Graduation rate: 98% Sports Nickname: Crimson Official Web site: Harvard.edu Continuing Education at Harvard University The majority of people dream about continuing their education at Harvard University, a famous education institution where numerous outstanding persons have made their first steps in career. You can choose one of the presented major programs for your academic benefit. 1. The Harvard

Summer School is considered the oldest American academic summer session. Every summer lots of students of various ages visit the University from each state and about 80 countries to study for two months with faculty from Harvard and some American universities. The Summer School has a program for well-qualified secondary school students, and courses in creative writing, premedical sciences, economics, and other foreign languages. 2. The Harvard Extension School is an academic evening program serving the educational needs and interests of the Greater Boston community. It provides open enrollment, coeducation for various ages, part-time evening study, modest tuition rates, and a chance to study for career advancement, personal enrichment, or certificates or degrees. About 550 courses are offered annually, including computer and health sciences, administration and management, arts, some foreign languages to about 13,000 students of various ages. 3. The Harvard Institute for English Language Programs offers part-time evening and day programs to non-native speakers. During the summer session, intense day, part-time evening, as well as numerous business programs are provided. 4. The Harvard Institute for Learning in Retirement provides retirees a chance to follow intellectual interests plus explore some new fields of learning in different study groups. Harvard University Degree Online Harvard university degree programs online have made it very simple for a great number of people to be capable to get further education owing to its convenience. And so, as a result of this, those people who are very busy, even handicapped people and the persons who are at home all the time could choose it. By means of the Internet, students and teachers are connected with Harvard University degree program online. Such arrangement will enhance learning and make it much more flexible. Also, students have right for using the school web site and acquire their study materials on the site for learning. In addition, various innovative pedagogic techniques are employed in that students are often engaged in the serious web chat. The lecture time-table is fixed, and students receive lecture no matter when they have the time. Lots of research works have justified it that students can learn well utilizing this way of learning. While an exam was conducted for online and regular students alike, they scored grades were similar. During the years people have grasp the concept of Internet courses. Employing of 18 online degree alumni is the choice of by agencies with good reputation. Actually, they see premium qualities in them, for example, discipline and diligence. No matter when you wish to register, you must be sure to register with only an accredited school online like the one that is managed by Harvard University. In addition, you should be aware that certain online college web sites are posted by online fraudsters. Thus you need to be watchful whenever you want to enroll.

7. University Guide: Want a place? Get the insider knowledge

If you're thinking about applying to university, you're probably confused about what to expect. With tuition fees of up to £9,000 a year, you're likely to be wondering what the final bill will actually be and whether it's worth it, as well as the usual questions about where to go, what to study ... and will you get in? Student life is still an unparalleled educational and social experience. So if you want to go, you should be more determined than ever to get on to the best possible course at your ideal university. But how to actually get a place? Read on. We've got exclusive tips from the very people who'll be reading your personal statements this autumn. They reveal what they really want to see on an UCAS form, and advise how to pick a course – and why following them on Twitter could put you on the path to a cap'n'gown. What to study? Gloomy admissions statistics might leave you wondering whether the best course is the one that's most likely to offer you a place. It's not. Imagine dragging yourself to lectures to study something you hate for three or more years. Pick a course you'll be motivated to study – either a subject that fascinates you or a vocational course that sets you on the path to your dream career. 19 • "Don't be afraid to contact a university to find out more – this shows interest and commitment," says admissions tutor John Wheeler at Staffordshire University. "Many universities make a record of personal contact, and may use it in their decision-making." • "Don't apply for lots of different types of courses," says Sheila Byrne at Anglia Ruskin. "This shows lack of commitment and not knowing what you want to do." Where to apply? Don't place too much authority on universities' glossy photos – they're adverts. Ask yourself what you want from a university; how far away from home do you want to be, and do you want to be in a big or small institution? At open days, ask the grumpiest-looking students their views: they're more likely to be honest. Check out extra-curricular activities, library facilities and bursary offerings, which differ according to university. • Nicola Rees, admissions tutor at Kingston University, says: "Never be afraid to ask questions, however intrusive you think they may be. Most unis have a live chat line for potential applicants staffed by current students or staff. Ask what are the rooms like, who will you share with, what facilities are there? An informed choice will be a better choice." • "Apply early," advises Philip Davies, head of admissions at Bournemouth & Poole College. "Don't leave your application until the new year. The best places fill up quickly." Unsurprisingly, Davies also recommends looking beyond traditional universities. "Don't forget colleges, which can offer you the same quality degree as a university, but usually a lot cheaper." Selling yourself. The UCAS statement – containing just basic facts about you plus your personal statement – is your precious tool to tell universities: pick me, one day I'll make a great addition to your alumni list. But don't go too far – avoid jokes at all costs. You can make yourself stand out before

your application lands on their desk: universities are making a big effort with social media.

- "Have a look at course blogs to get a feel for what's happening," says David McSherry, a lecturer at the University of Lincoln. "Comment on them. Find out who the academics who teach on the course are, follow them on Twitter, introduce yourself. That way you'll already have had a dialogue with them before you meet them in the flesh at an open day."
- "Humour is a risky strategy – your taste may not be shared by the person reading the application," says John Wright, admissions tutor at the University of Surrey. "Aim to devote the majority of the personal statement to academic achievement and motivations, but do include evidence of leadership skills, and situations where you have overcome problems to achieve goals. Admissions tutors tire of reading statements like, 'I am fascinated by science'. Give examples of situations where your interest has been aroused." If the worst happens... If you're not successful with your application to university, don't crawl under a rock. Since many university courses begin in January or other times throughout the year, don't assume you'll have to wait 12 months: shop around. "Seek feedback from admissions tutors as soon as possible," says Warren Turner at London South Bank University. "Don't give up. Consider other routes into higher education – a foundation course, apprenticeship, work-based learning – before submitting another application."

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*¹ or a natural phenomenon that is *significant*² 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*³ 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*⁴ 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*⁵ 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*⁶, 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*⁷ 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*¹ 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*² 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*³ 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*⁴ 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*⁵. 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*⁶ 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*⁷. *At some point*⁸ there was even a zoo inside. It started as a collection of royal pets that quickly outgrew

its *accommodations*⁹ 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*¹⁰ 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. The largest organisms on Earth

What is the largest organism living on Earth? How about those that are *extinct*¹ now? These questions are *trickier*² than they look. Are they about height, mass, volume or maybe length? Sometimes we can see only a small part of an otherwise huge living creature. Other times you can *argue*³ that a colony of organisms that *behaves*⁴ as one creature also needs to be *considered*⁵. Let's at least try to find out what are the largest creatures in some *taxonomic kingdoms*⁶ out there.

We'll start with the animal kingdom. Of all the living animals the largest one (and also the heaviest one) is the *majestic*⁷ blue whale. It's so large that there are no *scales*⁸ available to weigh them as a whole. The heaviest blue whale ever recorded was at 190 tonnes, while the longest was about 33 meters long. It still came shorter than a humble lion's mane jellyfish that is nearly 37 meters long.

The largest animal to walk on Earth today (or a *terrestrial*⁹ animal) is, *without a doubt*¹⁰, the African bush elephant. An adult *elephant bull*¹¹ weighs almost 11 tons, and stands about 4 meters tall. Both the blue whale and the African elephant are very *gentle*¹² giants. Despite this, sadly, both populations were hurt *severely*¹³ by humans. Currently both *species*¹⁴ are considered *endangered*¹⁵.

But what about the extinct species? Everyone knows that some dinosaurs were gigantic! And while the dinosaurs aren't actually extinct (since modern birds belong to the dinosaur *clade*¹⁶ Theropoda), the largest of them we know about only from *fossils*¹⁷. For example, the famous Tyrannosaurus rex, as scientists speculate, was standing roughly 370 cm tall and was over 12 meters in length! The largest *exhibited*¹⁸ skull of T. rex was just about one and a half meters long. A study on Tyrannosaurus bones was made in 2012. It has revealed that T. rex had the strongest bite of any terrestrial animal, ever! A hungry Tyrannosaurus could bite with the force of more than 50.000 Newtons, which is *comparable*¹⁹ to some modern hydraulic press machines. One of the largest dinosaurs known today though is Giraffatitan. It was a large, plant-eating creature. Its mass could *exceed*²⁰ 70 tons and it was over 20 meters long!

Other large extinct animals include the species called Palaeoloxodon and Paraceratherium. Those were the distant cousins of modern elephants and rhinos. They were the ones of the largest known mammals to walk the Earth, ever.

But wait, animals are not the only living creatures out there! What about plants and other, more basic organisms? For example, an *aspen*²¹ grove called Pando located in south-central Utah, U.S., is believed to be a single organism connected by one root system. If this

is correct, the size of Pando is 43.6 hectares, or 0.43 km²! It's at least a few thousand years of age, making it one of the oldest living organisms, too.

And if you want to go wider, a *fungus*²² named *Armillaria ostoyae* occupies nearly 9 km² as a single colony in the woods of Oregon, U.S. If you think about this colony as a single organism, it can be the largest organism in the world by area occupied.

We're still making many *discoveries*²³ today. And maybe tomorrow we'll find something that makes all these things small by *comparison*²⁴.

11. The Olympic Games

The Olympic Games is a major international sports *competition*¹ event. Inspired by the Olympic Games of Ancient Greece, the modern Olympics *participation*² unites more than 200 nations of the world in a *strife*³ to be the best at various sports. The competition is held every two years and alternates between *_summer* and *_winter* sports. Only *_summer* types of sport were represented at first.

The first *modern*⁴ Olympics were held in Athens in 1859. The event was held by a Greek businessman Evangelis Zappas as an *effort*⁵ to support Greek culture. It was repeated again in 1870 and in 1875. *Foreigners*⁶ who visited these events liked them very much.

International sports competition was a thing that very much *resonated*⁷ with the *code of conduct*⁸ of Victorian gentlemen.

French historian Pierre de Frédy, Baron de Coubertin, made an effort to *preserve*⁹ these competitions. With the help of his English and Greek friends, he *established*¹⁰ the International Olympic Committee in 1894. This organisation still successfully *oversees*¹¹ modern Olympics nowadays.

The first Olympics under the IOC *supervision*¹² were held in 1896 in Athens. More than 200 sportsmen from 14 nations came to compete for a chance to win international *recognition*¹³ and a medal. A silver medal was awarded to the winner in a competition, along with an olive branch and a diploma of a winner. Those who came second were awarded a copper medal and a *laurel*¹⁴ branch. Third place was *honorary*¹⁵ and offered no prize. The competitions were held in 9 disciplines: athletics (jumping and running various distances, as well as running a marathon), cycling, *fencing*¹⁶, gymnastics, swimming, tennis, wrestling, weightlifting, and, curiously enough, shooting a rifle. Additional competition in *sailing*¹⁷ was planned, but cancelled shortly before the event.

Attempts to add some winter sports were made in 1908 and 1920. The first real Winter Olympics were held in 1924, in a French town of Chamonix-Mont-Blanc. The contest was held in 5 different sports: curling, bobsleigh, ice skating, ice hockey and nordic skiing.

At first the games didn't allow any professional sportsmen to compete. The people behind the competitions thought that training actually gives a participant an unfair *advantage*¹⁸ over any other person that wished to compete. After much debate and *controversy*¹⁹, this *restriction*²⁰ was finally lifted in 1988.

The Olympics today are one of the biggest possible events of the year. Any country might apply to host it, but preparing for the event is very hard. It usually pays out *in the long run*²¹, since the competitions gather much *revenue*²² off the tourists and *advertisements*²³. As the IOC was joined by more members, the event also became increasingly political, with various countries boycotting the Olympic Games for various reasons *throughout*²⁴ the years. The competitions have also been in the middle of many major doping scandals that had *quite a few*²⁵ competitors disqualified.

12. 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*². 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*³ of global warming is attributed to human activity. Assuming we don't do something about it, the consequences would be lasting, probably *irreversible*⁴, 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*⁵. 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*⁶. This can lead to even more rains, floods and some extreme weather patterns such as wildfires and tropical cyclones.

One of the most *insidious*⁷ 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*⁸ burning of fossil fuels, we still can battle it. Switching to renewable and clean 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*⁹, humanity can be very good at adapting to hostile *environments*¹⁰. Adaptation strategies include reinforcing the coastlines or relocating deeper into the mainland; development of weather-resistant crops; development of *contingency*¹¹ scenarios for local disaster management.

13. A murder mystery as a literary genre

A crime fiction (also called a murder mystery) is a story that focuses on a criminal act and on a following *investigation*¹. Usually done from a point of view of either a detective or their assistant, crime fiction spans over many types of media. Usually it takes the form of either a novel or a movie.

The first historical example of crime fiction is probably a novel *The Three Apples*. It was a part of *One Thousand and One Nights*, which is a collection of old Arabic folk tales. The novel lacked any typical features of a modern murder mystery, but still tried to set up a crime scene as a *plot*² device. Other tales from this collection also describe some *bits and pieces*³ of actual crime investigation.

The genre became very popular in the late 19th century, with works by Edgar Allan Poe and Arthur Conan Doyle *paving*⁴ the way for more advanced stories of John Dickson Carr and Agatha Christie. Sherlock Holmes and Hercule Poirot, while being purely fictional characters, became real enough to their own fans. Over the course of many years readers were following the adventures of their beloved detectives. Holmes has appeared in 60 works of fiction in total, while Poirot in his career has made over 80 appearances.

A classic murder mystery can be viewed as a sort of a game between an author and the reader. An author sets up a murder scene, and the reader must *deduce*⁵ the *culprit*⁶ before the main detective character reveals him. A typical murder mystery leaves three questions to the reader: who has done it? How was it done? Why was it done? Answering all three questions before the main character would mean *‘beating’* the novel.

As the genre developed further, authors have developed some guidelines on writing a good murder mystery. There were many variations of such rules, but *in a nutshell*⁷ it all boiled down to a novel being fair to its reader. For example, a good novel had to introduce the culprit early in the story as someone who a reader would know about. All clues should be available to the reader the same way they are available for the protagonists. There were also some very strict rules on the usage of poison and other similar substances, as the reader should have been able to *unravel*⁸ the story without any sort of special knowledge. One of the most iconic form of a murder fiction is the locked-room mystery, which describes seemingly an impossible crime (for example, a corpse would be hidden inside an empty room that is locked from the inside) and challenges the reader to find a plausible way to explain it and eventually find the *perpetrator*⁹.

Another type of murder novels revolves around a closed circle of suspects. These stories usually have many colorful characters, each of them with their own *agenda*¹⁰, and the main challenge for a reader lies in pointing out the single guilty party while sparing the rest of possible culprits.

The murder mystery is still a very popular genre nowadays, and the classics of it are routinely adapted into films, videogames and some other forms of fan fiction.

14. Timeline of the far future

The future is not set. Or is it? Modern science allows us to predict some future events that are about to happen (for example, a weather tomorrow), but how about something that will happen **100,000**¹ years from now? What about **1,000,000**² years? With the power of biology and physics we can go that far. And maybe even further than that!

We can start with really simple predictions that are guaranteed to be fulfilled (obviously, if nothing happens to the object we're looking at before that). For example, we know that it will take roughly **50,000**³ for the famous Niagara Falls to erode completely and disappear. In the same 50,000 years the astronomical day will need another second to be added to in order to actually represent a day.

In 100,000 years, even if humans are extinct, at least **10%**⁴ of anthropogenic carbon dioxide will still remain in the atmosphere.

Roughly 1,000,000 years will take for the Arizona Meteor Crater to completely disappear.

1,000,000 years is also the top estimated time for the red star Betelgeuse to explode in a supernova. This supernova would be visible from Earth for some months afterwards.

In **10,000,000**⁵ years from now on the Red Sea will flood into some areas of East Africa, dividing the continent.

In **100,000,000**⁶ years the rings of Saturn will probably disappear.

In **180,000,000**⁷ years the day on Earth will be an hour longer than today.

In **250,000,000**⁸ years a new supercontinent may appear, and some completely new species may start dominating the planet.

In **600,000,000**⁹ years the increasing Sun luminosity will start to disrupt carbon-based life as we know it, eventually making photosynthesis no longer possible. The oceans will start evaporating rapidly.

Assuming all previous events are true, about **1,300,000,000**¹⁰ years separates us from the total eukaryotic life extinction. In about 2.8 **billion**¹¹ years all life goes extinct, as the surface temperature reaches roughly **150 °C**¹².

Roughly in 4-5 billion years our galaxy will collide with the Andromeda galaxy, forming a new Milkomeda galaxy in the process. An event of such magnitude would be hardly (if ever) noticeable from Earth.

It will take an estimate of **3 x 10⁴³ years**¹³ for the Universe as we know it to end and the Black Hole Era to begin. Black holes, the enormous pockets of crushing gravity that usually form out of dead stars, will be the only **celestial**¹⁴ bodies in that era. But even the black holes will **evaporate**¹⁵ eventually, perhaps clearing the way for a new Big Bang.

Those all are very large amounts of time. Still, they are all perfectly **countable**¹⁶. Seeing as we now know both the time that passed since the birth of the Universe, as well as the time for it to end, perhaps we can finally start to treasure the time that is given to us.

15. 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**² 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*⁴, 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.

16. The longest soap operas ever made

A soap opera is a long, often melodramatic piece of fiction that tends to focus on family relationships and various *domestic*¹ situations. Usually it has no clear protagonist (or there are few of them, equally important to the plot), and is presented in the form of a serial. The term itself was *coined*² way back in the 1950s, when such radio dramas were often

interrupted by soap commercials. The soap operas were usually broadcasted in the middle of the day. The target audience of the genre would be middle-aged *stay-at-home moms*³ who needed some sort of spice in their life to make their daily *chores*⁴ more bearable.

The series that are widely considered to be the first soap opera ever made were *Painted Dreams*. This radio show started in 1930 and was broadcasted up to 1942. The plot revolved around the relationships between a widowed single mother and her teenage daughter.

The world's longest-running soap opera of our time is *The Archers*: starting in 1951, it's still well alive nowadays, and *boasts*⁵ more than 19,000 episodes as of July 2020. Set as a contemporary drama in a *rural*⁶ setting, this radio drama has won its lead actor Norman Painting a Guinness World Record Award as the longest-serving actor in a single soap opera.

The longest TV soap operas are American *Guiding Light* and British *Coronation Street*, both starting around 1960 (although *Guiding Light* was also on radio for good 20 years before that!). *Guiding Light* aired its last episode in 2009, while *Coronation Street* celebrated its 10,000th episode on February 7th, 2020.

If you prefer counting the longest by an episode count, the top five would be all American shows: *Guiding Light* (15,762 episodes in total, both TV and radio), *General Hospital* (14,557 episodes), *Days of Our Lives* (13,902 episodes), *As the World Turns* (13,858 episodes) and *The Young and the Restless* (11,745 episodes). To put it in perspective, the notorious *Santa-Barbara* ended at 2,137th episode, while *Dynasty* ended at 220th, and *Charmed* had only 178 episodes in total.

In the 21st century the soap genre has seen a revival with some of the famous series making a moderately successful *reboot*⁷ comebacks, and with other series borrowing some of the more distinct soap opera traits for their own use.

17. The Black Forest

The Black Forest is a large mountain range located in southwestern Germany. As the name suggests, it's covered by a lush forest. The highest *summit*¹ of the range is the Feldberg mountain (1,493 m above sea level). The region is widely known for its precious minerals as well as its rich history, culture and cooking style.

In ancient literature the region is first mentioned in the works of Pliny and Tacitus. Almost for 2000 years, from the 5th century BC up to the 16th century, the Black Forest was known only for its surplus of ore. Workers of the few settlements that were in the region made a living mining lead, silver and iron.

An outbreak of plague and the German Peasants' War forced a decline of the region in the 16th century, through and all the way up to the beginning of the 18th century, when the mines were reopened, while lumbering and *rafting*² of precious timber solidified its prospects of economic prosperity.

The region's relative *seclusiveness*³ coupled with an access to abundant mineral resources made people who lived in the Black Forest into *artisan*⁴ craftsmen. Even before the

widespread *advent*⁵ of precision mechanics, the people of the Black Forest made additional income making wooden clocks and toys when mines and lumber mills were closed. When the Industrial Revolution dawned and a railway network made its way into the region, its clockmakers, jewelers and glassmakers became prominent throughout Europe.

In the 20th and 21st centuries the main industries of the region were power plants and tourism. Many of the mines were remade into museums, which are opened daily for the visitors. Numerous military conflicts of the Late Middle Ages, as well as those of early modern period, have left many archeological sites to discover, many of them *pertaining*⁶ to warfare, including more than 200 km of defensive fortifications. New archeological sites are still being discovered these days, and the full *inventorying*⁷ is still yet to be completed. Someone who has no interest in history or industry can still find many interesting things to do there. The big lakes Titisee and Schluchsee are surrounded by small resort towns that offer miscellaneous water sport activities including deep diving. Each year the region sees a competition held between amateur and professional *confectioners*⁸ who aim to perfect an art of making the famous Black Forest *gateau*⁹.

Today the region makes use of developed transport infrastructure and is easily accessible from any other region of Germany. A bus ticket from Berlin to Freiburg, one of the largest cities in the region, will cost you approximately 30 euros.

18. Born Free

Friederike Victoria Gessner (better known by her *pen name*¹ as Joy Adamson) was an Austrian-born writer, painter and naturalist famous for her work raising and reintroducing big cats into the wild.

Briefly considering a career of a musician or a doctor at first, in 1937 Friederike was forced to migrate from *turbulent*² Vienna into wild Kenya. Being very easy-going by nature, she made friends wherever she went. Soon enough she found herself very close to many researchers, biologists and wildlife conservators who were *prominent*³ in the area. Thus she spent her younger years as a naturalist, doing sketches and making observations on various flora and fauna.

Her greatest work was yet to come, though. When she was 42, her then-husband George Adamson, a senior wildlife *warden*⁴, was asked to protect local farmers from a lioness that was threatening them. As it turned out later, the lioness was simply protecting her cubs from *encroaching*⁵ human settlement. After successfully fighting the lioness off, George and Friederike decided to adopt those little lions. Tending to all three of them at home has proven very difficult, so the couple eventually donated two larger cubs to Rotterdam Zoo, and took the smallest one, Elsa, for themselves.

As the young lioness was growing up very fast, Friederike has realised that soon they wouldn't be able to provide for her, so she decided to teach Elsa how to act on her own, hunt, and live in the wild. Taking this duty very *diligently*⁶ and treating Elsa as an equal rather than as a pet, Friederike (who by this point has already adopted her pen name) has managed to succeed. Roughly two years later Elsa, now a wild lioness, brought a *litter*⁷ of

her own, and those three cubs were the first ever to be born by a domesticated lioness that was reintroduced into the wild.

This was an unprecedented story in a naturalist world, and soon enough Joy Adamson had the attention of both scientists and cinematographers. The story of Elsa was documented in her book, *Born Free*, that was also made into a motion picture in 1966.

Encouraged by her first successes, Joy shifted her focus to cheetahs. While still a rather large cat and a very fast predator, a cheetah nevertheless is one of the most vulnerable species amongst its kind. They suffer both from larger and smaller predators, as well as from human encroachment.

Using the techniques she learned with Elsa, Joy successfully reintroduced Pippa, a female cheetah, into the wild. Joy has dedicated two books to Pippa and her litter, first being *The Spotted Sphinx*, and the second being *Pippa's Challenge*. Yet another success was waiting some years later, when Joy successfully worked on a reintroduction of an African leopard named Penny.

In her later years Joy was an activist, travelling around the world, making speeches and raising funds in order to protect the wildlife. Her life ended tragically shortly before her 70th birthday as she was murdered by a *disgruntled*⁸ laborer who was fired by Adamson not too long ago. Her ashes were scattered in Meru National Park over Elsa's grave as an eternal *testament*⁹ to the fact that we all were born to be free.

19. Space Oddity

David Bowie (born David Robert Jones) was an English musician, actor, and one of the most *prominent*¹ artists of the 20th and the early 21st centuries.

The American popular culture magazine *Rolling Stone* placed him as 39th in their list of 'The 100 Greatest Artists of All Time', right behind John Lennon, and, following Bowie's death in 2016, they also called him 'The Greatest Rock Star Ever'.

David Bowie was born 1947 in London to a working class family. As a child, he was very gifted, *albeit*² with a temper. When he was only 9 years old, he was already noticed by his music teachers for his highly *imaginative*³ and flashy dancing style. His childhood was spent under heavy influence of popular artists of the time, mainly Elvis Presley, Little Richard and Fats Domino.

As a teenager, Bowie took many classes in various musical instruments, including ukulele, piano and saxophone. In his free time, he liked doing *impressions*⁴ of his favourite artists to his friends. Later on, when talking about it, his friends and biographers were noting that Bowie's performances were 'like something from another planet'.

After multiple unsuccessful tries joining with various local bands, David has tried to *embark*⁵ on a solo career. He's taken his alias inspired by James Bowie, an American pioneer who has also invented a Bowie knife. This try was not very successful as well. Nevertheless, Bowie persisted *relentlessly*⁶, recording his own music, building up his network of contacts in the music world, and educating himself in various theatrical arts. The real fame came to him after his song *Space Oddity* that was released as a single on July, 11, 1969, a mere few days before the fateful Apollo 11 launch. The song was inspired

by Stanley Kubrick's 2001: *A Space Odyssey* which was released just a year before that. The single quickly climbed to the top five in the UK charts. The song became one of Bowie's signature songs, while it's hero, Major Tom, eventually became a *recurring*⁷ character in his other songs.

Building on his *newfound*⁸ fame, Bowie again tried to build a team around himself. Fairly antagonistic by nature, he nevertheless managed to record another of his iconic albums, *The Man Who Sold the World*. Around this time he also started to develop many different colourful stage personas and build his stage appearances in-character according to those personas. Wearing provocative costumes and makeup, he and his projects swiftly came to the light of the media and he started gathering a cult following.

His acting talent has also caught the attention of various film and stage directors, sparking his acting career. While he never got any notable lead roles, he was a very convincing actor nevertheless, and often appeared in an important supporting role or as a cameo. His most noteworthy performances in this field include Joseph Merrick in the Broadway theatre *rendition*⁹ of *The Elephant Man*, and Phillip Jeffries, an enigmatic FBI agent from David Lynch's movie *Twin Peaks: Fire Walk with Me*.

Bowie has struggled with drugs in his young years, but eventually managed to get rid of his addiction. In his late years he was a major advocate of healthy lifestyle. He has also used his fame to send strong statements regarding equality and the need to stand up against racism.

David Bowie died of liver cancer in his own apartment in New York City. It happened on January, 10, 2016, just two days after the worldwide premiere of his newest album, *Blackstar*. He's still remembered as being one of the most strange, wonderful and almost *otherworldly*¹⁰ artists of our age.

20. William Wallace and the First War of Scottish Independence

A great *strife*¹ 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*² 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*³ 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*⁴ 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*⁵ 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*⁶ 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*⁸ 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.

21. 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*¹ 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*². 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*³ 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*⁴ 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*⁵ 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*⁶ 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.

22. 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*⁴. 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.

23. Thus Spoke Zarathustra

‘_Thus Spoke Zarathustra: A Book for All and None’ is a famous and somewhat controversial novel finalized by German philosopher Friedrich Nietzsche in 1885. Nietzsche has considered this book his most important work. It greatly expands on the main ideas that he has presented in his previous works, and remains a hot topic for debates in scholarly circles up to this day.

The book was written in German, and made heavy use of various forms of wordplay. The translations were thus sometimes *impeded*¹ by a lack of corresponding wordplays or terms in other languages. Even taken at face value, the book was made *explicitly*² in a way that *defies*³ any attempts to read it straightforwardly. Nietzsche himself, rather *tongue-in-cheek*⁴, has written thus in a preface to his next book, *Ecce Homo*: ‘_With *Thus Spoke Zarathustra* I have given mankind the greatest present that has ever been made to it so far. This book, with a voice bridging centuries, is not only the highest book there is, the book that is truly characterized by the air of the heights — the whole fact of man lies *beneath* it at a tremendous distance — it is also the *deepest*, born out of the innermost wealth of truth, an inexhaustible well to which no pail descends without coming up again filled with gold

and goodness', perhaps hinting at the fact that none of his *contemporaries*⁵ had even begun to move in the right direction regarding that book.

The plot of the book is fairly simple. Zarathustra, a wandering philosopher, travels around the world and comments on various people and places he sees. Zarathustra is an evaluator (or rather, transvaluator) of all ideas, and strives to question a broad variety of topics regarding human culture and daily lives.

Three major themes can be followed through the book: the eternal recurrence of everything that is; the possible appearance of 'super-humanity'; the concept of 'will to power' as the cornerstone of human psyche and behaviour.

The idea of 'eternal return' (or recurrence) is the idea that each event and occurrence that happens, repeats itself eternally in cycles. Rather than postulating this, Nietzsche actually ponders if it's true. Although it's a very popular idea that seemingly stems logically from the laws of infinite Universe as we know it, it still hasn't been proven nor disproven, so Nietzsche marks it as 'the most burdensome' of his thoughts.

The concept of a 'super-human' (or, rather, of a 'beyond-human', *Übermensch*) is one of the goals that Nietzsche suggests to humanity through teachings of Zarathustra.

The *Übermensch* is an objectively better type of a human that is destined to *transcend*⁶ the regular humans. This idea was interpreted in wildly different ways, sometimes outright xenophobic. But at its core it suggests only transcendence of some stale norms of morality and building a better future on Earth instead of turning to all things spiritual. An antithesis of an *Übermensch* is called a 'last man', a nihilistic, egalitarian and decadent human being, 'too apathetic to dream'. Nietzsche also suggests that this is another of the possible outcomes of humanity development.

The third idea, which is a 'will to power' is never precisely defined in any of Nietzsche's work. This also has brought many speculations and controversy into his works, as well as into the works of his researchers. He did mention though that it's a driving characteristic of all life, and it's related to overcoming *perils*⁷ and obstacles, including the obstacles within oneself. He also made a notion that human cruelty (in whatever form) may be related to this driving force.

Initially Nietzsche has planned this book to have six parts. During his life he's managed to write only four, and the fourth was largely written as a rough draft. Debates around the book are still going strong today, and while Nietzsche himself has argued that the book is finished, and opposed vehemently to any attempts to add or remove something from it, the key to the ultimate understanding of his ideas is yet to be found.

24. Baby K

The development of a human embryo can go *awry*¹ in many different ways. One of the most common types of birth defects that afflict yet unborn children are referred to as neural tube defects (NTDs). A premise for the development of NTDs lies in an incomplete closure of a neural tube, a *precursor*² to the human central nervous system that forms from an embryo's nervous *tissue*³ over the course of a normal development. As a result, an opening remains in the developing spine or *cranium*⁴ of the fetus, which, depending on its severity,

can fully disrupt the growth of the nervous system. Neural tube defects affect either the development of the brain, or spine, or both. Most of the conditions that stem from NTDs are usually untreatable, leave the person largely disabled, and have an extremely high mortality rate.

Anencephaly is a NTD that in broadest terms means the complete absence of the *cerebrum*⁵, the largest part of the brain responsible for senses and cognition. The causes of the condition are still unclear, but it is speculated that it can be triggered by a folic acid deficiency and certain types of diabetes in pregnant women. Abortion is strongly encouraged when anencephaly is detected via ultrasound. Anencephalic children are usually either *stillborn*⁶, or die from cardiorespiratory arrest mere hours or a few days after the birth.

Nevertheless, there were some cases of anencephaly that truly stood out from the rest. One of such cases was of Stephanie Keene (name was probably changed due to privacy concerns) dubbed as Baby K.

Stephanie was diagnosed with anencephaly long before her birth. Her mother has chosen to keep the child due to her belief as a Christian that all life should be protected.

The doctors and the nurses both strongly advocated for a *DNR order*⁷ for the baby, but the mother refused yet again. Over the course of six months after the birth Stephanie has travelled from hospital to a hospital and was kept under a ventilator all this time.

Eventually a hospital has filed a lawsuit against Stephanie's mother, aiming to appoint a legal guardian in her place, and trying to receive a legal confirmation that the hospital couldn't be held responsible for Stephanie's health and would *opt out*⁸ of any services to her save for palliative caregiving.

And, in a very controversial ruling, the hospital has lost that case. The court has ruled that Stephanie is to be put under a mechanical ventilator and be given other care if any sort of other medical emergency would have arisen. The court has also made a notion that they ruled according to existing laws, without any regard to the rather unusual condition that Stephanie had.

Thus Baby K has lived 2 years and 174 days. Her heart had stopped on April 5, 1995. Keeping her heart beating had cost over 500,000\$, a sum, as some would argue, that could've been spent on research aimed to prevent NTDs or, possibly, treatment of other newborn children.

25. A Beautiful Mind

Game theory can be explained broadly as a study of behaviour of rational beings in cooperative and non-cooperative decision making. It's a relatively new field of science that emerged in the second half of the 20th century. Globalization of economics, advent of nuclear weaponry and *emergence*¹ of computers were all major milestones in the history of humanity, and each *subsequently*² dictated the need to formalize at least the most common trade and war strategies.

A game is usually defined as a process involving two or more *actors*³, each of them having something to gain or lose through their actions after the game is finished (or solved).

Thus, the definition applies to most of the regular games (like, for example, poker), but can be broadened as necessary to cover multitudes of other situations, both real and hypothetical. The action is presumed to be taken by a ‘rational agent’ - that is, an actor that acts consistently and always chooses an action that is the most optimal in terms of loss/gain ratio according to his current position. A game can be cooperative or non-cooperative, allowing or disallowing willing alliances between the participants respectively.

The study of cooperative games usually focuses on why and how the coalitions form, and what actions the members of any coalition would take at any given time. The study of non-cooperative games instead focuses on individual players and on finding a solution called Nash *equilibrium*⁴.

Nash equilibrium is a state of a game in which no player, knowing the strategies of other players, can change his own strategy to better his own odds while the other strategies are unchanged. Essentially, this means that all of the players have found the best possible (or ‘optimal’) outcome of the game for themselves, given the current rules and circumstances. Mathematician John Forbes Nash, who was an author of the concept, proved that this equilibrium is possible to find for any finite game.

One of the most famous examples of finding Nash equilibrium is a thought experiment called Prisoner’s dilemma. Suppose there are two prisoners *interrogated*⁵ in two different prison cells. They have no way to communicate with each other, but each of them knows that the other is also interrogated. Each prisoner is sentenced to one year in prison. Each prisoner is then offered a deal: if he *testifies*⁶ against the other, he is set free, while the other gets a harsher, 3-year penalty. However, if both prisoners testify against each other, both of them will get a harder sentence, and both will serve 2 years in prison. Each prisoner can choose either to testify or to remain silent. What is the optimal course of action for each prisoner?

According to game theory, a rational actor would choose to leave prison, *condemning*⁷ the other prisoner. Thus Nash equilibrium in this situation (and the most optimal outcome) would be reached if both prisoners tried to betray each other and subsequently each served 2 years.

Knowledge that in any situation with something to gain or lose there is indeed an optimal course of action with maximized profits for any and all participants has very wide *implications*⁸. Finding it might be hard, but the willingness to do that, perhaps, can make us able to stop the wars and other major threats to our society.

For his works in game theory, John Nash was awarded a Nobel Prize in Economic Sciences back in 1994, 45 years after actually writing them down. As of 2020, Nash is the only person ever to be awarded both this prize and the Abel Prize in mathematics, which he was awarded in 2015.

3 семестр

1. WHY DO WE NEED THE LAW?

Almost everything we do is governed by some set of rules. There are rules for games, for social clubs, for sports and for adults in the workplace. There are also rules imposed by morality and custom that play an important role in telling us what we should and should not do. However, some rules -- those made by the state or the courts -- are called "laws". Laws resemble morality because they are designed to control or alter our behavior. But unlike rules of morality, laws are enforced by the courts; if you break a law -- whether you like that law or not -- you may be forced to pay a fine, pay damages, or go to prison.

Why are some rules so special that they are made into laws? Why do we need rules that everyone must obey? In short, what is the purpose of law?

If we did not live in a structured society with other people, laws would not be necessary. We would simply do as we please, with little regard for others. But ever since individuals began to associate with other people -- to live in society -- laws have been the glue that has kept society together. For example, the law in our country states that we must drive our cars on the right-hand side of a two-way street. If people were allowed to choose at random which side of the street to drive on, driving would be dangerous and chaotic. Laws regulating our business affairs help to ensure that people keep their promises. Laws against criminal conduct help to safeguard our personal property and our lives.

Even in a well-ordered society, people have disagreements and conflicts arise. The law must provide a way to resolve these disputes peacefully. If two people claim to own the same piece of property, we do not want the matter settled by a duel: we turn to the law and to institutions like the courts to decide who is the real owner and to make sure that the real owner's rights are respected.

We need law, then, to ensure a safe and peaceful society in which individuals' rights are respected. But we expect even more from our law. Some totalitarian governments have cruel and arbitrary laws, enforced by police forces free to arrest and punish people without trial. Strong-arm tactics may provide a great deal of order, but we reject this form of control. The legal system should respect individual rights while, at the same time, ensuring that society operates in an orderly manner. And society should believe in the Rule of Law, which means that the law applies to every person, including members of the police and other public officials, who must carry out their public duties in accordance with the law.

In our society, laws are not only designed to govern our conduct: they are also intended to give effect to social policies. For example, some laws provide for benefits when workers

are injured on the job, for health care, as well as for loans to students who otherwise might not be able to go to university.

Another goal of the law is fairness. This means that the law should recognize and protect certain basic individual rights and freedoms, such as liberty and equality. The law also serves to ensure that strong groups and individuals do not use their powerful positions in society to take unfair advantage of weaker individuals.

However, despite the best intentions, laws are sometimes created that people later recognize as being unjust or unfair. In a democratic society, laws are not carved in stone, but must reflect the changing needs of society. In a democracy, anyone who feels that a particular law is flawed has the right to speak out publicly and to seek to change the law by lawful means.

2. LAW AND SOCIETY

When the world was at a very primitive stage of development there were no laws to regulate life of people. If a man chose to kill his wife or if a woman succeeded in killing her husband that was their own business and no one interfered officially.

But things never stay the same. The life has changed. We live in a complicated world. Scientific and social developments increase the tempo of our daily living activities, make them more involved. Now we need rules and regulations which govern our every social move and action. We have made laws of community living.

Though laws are based on the reasonable needs at the community we often don't notice them. If our neighbor plays loud music late at night, we probably try to discuss the matter with him rather than consulting the police, the lawyer or the courts. When we buy a TV set, or a train ticket or loan money to somebody a lawyer may tell us it represents a contract with legal obligations. But to most of us it is just a ticket that gets us on a train or a TV set to watch.

Only when a neighbor refuses to behave reasonably or when we are injured in a train accident, the money wasn't repaid, the TV set fails to work and the owner of the shop didn't return money or replace it, we do start thinking about the legal implications of everyday activities.

You may wish to take legal action to recover your loss. You may sue against Bert who didn't pay his debt. Thus you become a plaintiff and Bert is a defendant. At the trial you testified under oath about the loan. Bert, in his turn, claimed that it was a gift to him, which

was not to be returned. The court after the listening to the testimony of both sides and considering the law decided that it was a loan and directed that judgment be entered in favor of you against Bert.

Some transactions in modern society are so complex that few of us would risk making them without first seeking legal advice. For example, buying or selling a house, setting up a business, or deciding whom to give our property to when we die.

On the whole it seems that people all over the world are becoming more and more accustomed to using legal means to regulate their relations with each other. Multinational companies employ lawyers to ensure that their contracts are valid whenever they do business.

3. Enforcing laws

When governments make laws for their citizens, they use a system of courts backed by the power of the police to enforce these laws. Of course, there may be instances where the law is not enforced against someone—such as when young children commit crimes, when the police have to concentrate on certain crimes and therefore ignore others, or in countries where there is so much political corruption that certain people are able to escape justice by using their money or influence. But the general nature of the law is enforced equally against all members of the nation.

Government-made laws are nevertheless often patterned upon informal rules of conduct already existing in society, and relations between people are regulated by a combination of all these rules. This relationship can be demonstrated using the example of a sports club.

Suppose a member of a rugby club is so angry with the referee during a club game that he hits him and breaks his nose. At the most informal level of social custom, it is probable that people seeing or hearing about the incident would criticize the player and try to persuade him to apologize and perhaps compensate the referee in some way. At a more formal level, the player would find he had broken the rules of his club, and perhaps of a wider institution governing the conduct of all people playing rugby, and would face punishment, such as a fine or a suspension before he would be allowed to play another game. Finally, the player might also face prosecution for attacking the referee under laws created by the government of his country. In many countries there might be two kinds of prosecution. First, the referee could conduct a civil action against the player, demanding compensation for his injury and getting his claim enforced by a court of law if the player

failed to agree privately. Second, the police might also start an action against the player for a crime of violence. If found guilty, the player might be sent to prison, or he might be made to pay a fine to the court—that is, punishment for an offence against the state, since governments often consider anti-social behavior not simply as a matter between two individuals but as a danger to the well-being and order of society as a whole.

4. LEGAL PROFESSIONS

A lawyer is a person learned in the law. A lawyer, also known as an attorney, a counselor, a solicitor, a barrister or an advocate, is an individual licensed by the state to engage in the practice of law and advise clients on legal matters. Lawyers act as both advocates and advisors on behalf of their clients.

The role of the lawyer varies significantly across legal jurisdictions, and therefore can be treated in only the most general terms. Lawyers' roles vary greatly, depending upon their practice environment and field of specialization.

In most countries there is only one legal profession. This means that all the lawyers have roughly the same professional education leading to the same legal qualifications, and they are permitted to do all the legal work.

In England the system is different. Here the profession is divided into two types of lawyers, called solicitors and barristers. Solicitors and barristers are both qualified lawyers, but they have different legal training; they take different examinations to qualify; and once they have qualified, they usually do different types of legal work.

Many solicitors deal with a range of legal work: preparing cases to be tried in the civil or criminal courts; giving legal advice in the field of business and drawing up contracts; making all the legal arrangements for the buying and selling of land or houses; assisting employees and employers; making wills.

Barristers are mainly —courtroom lawyers‖ who actually conduct cases in court. Unlike solicitors, they have rights of audience (rights to appear) in any court of the land, and so barristers are those lawyers who appear in the more difficult cases in the higher courts.

The educational requirements to becoming a lawyer vary greatly from country to country. In some countries, law is taught by a faculty of law, which is a department of a university's general undergraduate college. Law students in those countries pursue a Bachelor (LLB) or a Master (LLM) of Laws degree. In some countries it is common or even required for students to earn another bachelor's degree at the same time. Besides it is often followed by

a series of advanced examinations, apprenticeships, and additional coursework at special government institutes. In other countries, particularly the United States, law is primarily taught at law schools. Most law schools are part of universities but a few are independent institutions. Law schools in the United States (and some in Canada and elsewhere) award graduating students a J.D. (Jurist Doctor/Doctor of Jurisprudence) (as opposed to the Bachelor of Laws) as the practitioner's law degree. However, like other professional doctorates, the J.D. is not the exact equivalent of the Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.), a university degree of the highest level, since it does not require the submission of a full dissertation based on original research.

The methods and quality of legal education vary widely. Some countries require extensive clinical training in the form of apprenticeships or special clinical courses. Many others have only lectures on highly abstract legal doctrines, which force young lawyers to figure out how to actually think and write like a lawyer at their first apprenticeship (or job).

In most common law countries lawyers have many options over the course of their careers. Besides private practice, they can always aspire to becoming a prosecutor, government counsel, corporate in-house counsel, judge, arbitrator, law professor, or politician.

In most civil law countries, lawyers generally structure their legal education around their chosen specialty; the boundaries between different types of lawyers are carefully defined and hard to cross. After one earns a law degree, career mobility may be severely constrained.

5. LAW-MAKING PROCEDURE IN THE USA

The Congress of the United States is the highest lawmaking body in the United States and one of the oldest national legislatures in the world. The U.S. Congress consists of two houses—the Senate and the House of Representatives. A member of the Senate is referred to as a senator, and a member of the House of Representatives is called a representative or congressman or congresswoman.

The general process for making a bill into a law is described in the Constitution.

The first step in the legislative process is the introduction of a bill to the Congress. Bills originate from several different sources: from individual members of the Congress, from a member of a constituent or a group of constituents, from one or more state legislatures, or the President or his administration, but only members of the Congress can introduce legislation.

After being introduced, a bill is referred to the appropriate committee for review. There are 17 Senate committees, with 70 subcommittees, and 23 House committees, with 104 subcommittees. A bill is first considered in a subcommittee, where it may be accepted, amended, or rejected. If the members of the subcommittee agree to move a bill forward, it is reported to the full committee, where the process is repeated again. If the full committee votes to approve the bill, it is reported to the House or the Senate.

When the bill comes up for consideration, the House has a very structured debate process. Each member who wishes to speak only has a few minutes, and the number and kind of amendments are usually limited. In the Senate, debate on most bills is unlimited — Senators may speak to issues other than the bill under consideration during their speeches, and any amendment can be introduced. A bill must pass both houses of the Congress before it goes to the President for consideration. Once debate has ended and any amendments to the bill have been approved, the full membership will vote for or against the bill.

The bill is then sent to the President. When receiving a bill from the Congress, the President has several options. If the President agrees with the bill, he or she may sign it into law. If the President disagrees with the bill, he may veto it and send it back to the Congress. The Congress may override the veto with a two-thirds vote of each chamber, at which point the bill becomes law and is printed.

6. THE UNITED KINGDOM LEGISLATION

In Great Britain laws are made in Parliament at Westminster. The British Parliament consists of the monarch, the House of Lords, and the House of Commons. Their work is similar: making laws (legislation), checking the work of the government (scrutiny), and debating current issues. The House of Lords is composed of life peers and hereditary peers. The House of Commons is composed of Members of Parliament (Mps).

The idea for a new law can come from a variety of sources: bills may be introduced by any member of either House (a "Private Member's Bill"), a Minister of the Crown (a "Government Bill"), by the general public ("Public Bills"), by an individual or small group of individuals (a "Private Bill").

First reading is the first stage of a Bill's passage through the House of Commons - usually a formality, it takes place without debate. The short title of the Bill is read out and then the Bill is printed. The Bill is published as a House of Commons paper for the first time.

The next stage is second reading, the first opportunity for MPs to debate the general principles and themes of the Bill.

Once second reading is completed the Bill proceeds to committee stage. Committee stage is where detailed examination of the Bill takes place, clause by clause, determining the intent and impact of the bill's language. This is therefore often considered the most important step in the parliamentary process for researchers aiming to determine legislative intent. It is at this stage that amendments are made. If the Bill has been amended the Bill is reprinted before its next stage.

Once committee stage is finished, the Bill returns to the floor of the House of Commons for its report stage, where the amended Bill can be debated and further amendments proposed. All MPs can suggest amendments to the Bill or new clauses (parts) they think should be added.

Report stage is normally followed immediately by debate on the Bill's third reading. Committee stage is where detailed examination of the Bill takes place, clause by clause, determining the intent and impact of the bill's language. Amendments (proposals for change) cannot be made to a Bill at third reading in the Commons.

The process in the House of Lords is very similar to the process in the House of Commons. The bill will have a pro forma first reading, then a second reading. After the second reading the bill will normally be referred to a Committee of the Whole House. The bill then passes through a consideration stage and a third reading. In the House of Lords amendments may be made in the Committee of the Whole House, the consideration stage, and the third reading (this is different from the House of Commons where no amendments can be made in the third reading).

If the Bill started in the Commons it goes to the House of Lords for its first reading. If the Bill started in the Lords it returns to the House of Lords for consideration of any amendments the Commons has made. Both Houses must agree on the exact wording of the

Bill. A Bill may go back and forth between each House (‘Ping Pong’) until both Houses reach agreement.

When a Bill has completed all its parliamentary stages in both Houses, it must have Royal Assent before it can become an Act of Parliament (law). Royal Assent is the Monarch's agreement to make the Bill into an Act and is a formality. When Royal Assent has been given to a Bill, the announcement is usually made in both Houses by the Lord Speaker in the Lords and the Speaker in the Commons.

7. THE CONSTITUTION OF THE RUSSIAN FEDERATION

The Constitution of the Russian Federation is Russia's supreme law, passed through a national vote. It contains the basic principles of the Russian constitutional system.

The Constitution:

- defines the federative structure of the Russian Federation;
- establishes the principles of sovereignty and independence of the Russian Federation;
- defines the principle of separation of powers between legislative, executive and judicial branches;
- establishes equality of ideologies and religions;
- defines the Russian Federation as a secular state.

The Constitution of the Russian Federation defines the rights and freedoms of a human and a citizen, sets their priority when handling any questions, and proclaims the principle of equality before law and court. As for the federative structure, the Constitution contains the list of component units of the Russian Federation, covers the questions that are in the jurisdiction of the Russian Federation and those that are in the joint jurisdiction of federal and local authorities.

Separate articles are devoted to the bodies of federal power: the President of the Russian Federation, the Federal Assembly of the Russian Federation, and the Government of the Russian Federation and also the judicial power of the Russian Federation. In these articles, the order and the terms of appointed and elected officials and the limits of their competence are defined according to the principle of separation of powers.

Under the Constitution accepted on December 12, 1993 at the all-Russia referendum, full authority in the RF belongs to the President and bodies of legislative (two-chamber parliament – Federal Assembly), executive (Government of the Russian Federation) and the judicial authority, which work independently.

The President of the Russian Federation is the Head of the State; the duties of the President are listed, including his status of the Supreme Commander of the military forces of the Russian Federation. The Constitution also contains the text of the oath taken by the President of the Russian Federation when entering the post.

The Federal Assembly of the Russian Federation (the Federation Council and the State Duma) represents the legislature. The order of electing representatives for these chambers, their competence, terms of office are provided by the Constitution.

The Government of the Russian Federation is the executive branch. The Constitution determines the extent of its jurisdiction and also defines the order and the terms of office of government officials.

Judicial power is implemented by means of constitutional, civil, administrative, and criminal legal proceedings. The Constitution establishes the principles of independence, irremovability and immunity of judges, thus providing for objectiveness and impartiality of the court.

8. THE US CONSTITUTION

The form of the US government is based on the Constitution of 1787 which was adopted after the War of Independence. The US Constitution consists of 7 articles and 27 amendments. The first 10 amendments are called the Bill of Rights and were adopted in 1791 under popular pressure.

The Bill of Rights is a series of limitations on the power of the United States federal government, protecting the natural rights and liberties, property including freedom of religion, freedom of speech, a free press, free assembly, and free association, as well as the right to keep and carry arms. In federal criminal cases, it requires indictment by a grand jury for any capital crime, guarantees a speedy, public trial with an impartial jury composed of members of the state in which the crime occurred.

A key feature of the US Constitution is federalism – the division of power between the national government and the states. Another major feature of the Constitution is the principle of the separation of powers within the national government. According to this

principle the executive, legislative and judicial branches exercise powers that are largely separate and distinct. There is not a strict and complete separation of powers, the powers of the three branches overlap. Each branch has its own responsibilities, but no branch has more power than the other branches. There is the system of checks and balances, that is each branch has certain duties to check the powers of the other branches. This system was meant to protect against the extremes since it makes compromise and consensus necessary.

The legislative branch is called the Congress which consists of the Senate and the House of Representatives. It is the responsibility of the Congress to propose and pass laws. In the system of checks and balances, Congress can refuse to approve Presidential appointments and can override presidential veto.

The executive branch consists of the President, the Vice President, the Cabinet and the 13 Departments, and also of the independent agencies. Its responsibility is to enforce laws. According to the principle of checks and balances, the President has the power of veto to reject the bill of the Congress. He also appoints all Supreme Court Justices.

The judicial branch consists of the Supreme Court, 11 Circuit Courts of Appeals and 94 District Courts. This branch explains and interprets laws and makes decisions in lawsuits. It has the power over the other two branches and according to the principle of checks and balances can declare their actions and laws unconstitutional in case they violate the principles of the Constitution.

9. THE BRITISH CONSTITUTION

The British Constitution is unwritten unlike the constitution in America or the proposed European Constitution, and as such, is referred to as an uncodified constitution in the sense that there is no single document that can be identified as Britain's constitution. The British Constitution can be found in a variety of documents. The main ones are: Statutes (the Magna Carta of 1215 and the Act of Settlement of 1701), Acts of Parliament; customs and traditions, political conventions, case law; constitutional matters decided in a court of law.

Since the English Civil War, the core principle of the British constitution has traditionally been the doctrine of parliamentary sovereignty, according to which the statutes passed by Parliament are the UK's supreme and final source of law. It follows that Parliament can change the constitution simply by passing new Acts of Parliament to be followed by the Royal Assent. There is some debate about whether this principle remains entirely valid today, in part due to the UK's European Union membership.

According to the doctrine of parliamentary sovereignty, Parliament may pass any legislation that it wishes. There are many Acts of Parliament which themselves have constitutional significance. For example, Parliament has the power to determine the length of its own term. However, the Sovereign retains the power to dissolve parliament at any time on the advice of the Prime Minister. Parliament also has the power to change the structure of its constituent houses and the relation between them.

Parliament consists of the Sovereign, the House of Commons and the House of Lords. All the legislation must receive the approval of the Sovereign (Royal Assent). Following the accession of the UK to European Economic Community (now the European Union) in 1972, the UK became bound by European law and more importantly, the principle of the supremacy of European Union law.

The House of Commons alone possesses the power to pass a motion of no confidence in the Government, which requires the Government either to resign or seek fresh elections. Such a motion does not require passage by the Lords, or Royal Assent. Parliament traditionally also has the power to remove individual members of the government by impeachment. By the Constitutional Reform Act 2005 it has the power to remove individual judges from office for misconduct.

The executive power in the United Kingdom is exercised by the Sovereign through Her Majesty's Government. The monarch appoints a Prime Minister as the head of Her Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom. The Prime Minister then selects the other Ministers which make up the Government. As in some other parliamentary systems of government, the executive is answerable to Parliament.

The Courts of the United Kingdom are separated into three separate jurisdictions serving England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland, as the United Kingdom does not have a single unified judicial system.

The Constitutional Reform Act 2005 created a new Supreme Court of the United Kingdom to take over the judicial functions of the House of Lords and devolution cases from the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. The Supreme Court began work in 2009, and serves as the highest court of appeal in England and Wales and in Northern Ireland, and for civil cases in Scotland. The High Court of Justiciary will remain the court of last resort in Scotland for criminal cases.

10. Types of Constitutions

A Constitution is a system which establishes the fundamental rules and principles which a state will use to govern and regulate.

There are several types of constitutions: written/unwritten constitution, rigid/flexible constitution, federal/unitary constitution.

The term written constitution is used to describe a constitution that is entirely written, that is codified in one single document. Written constitutions normally consist of a ceremonial preamble, which sets forth the goals of the state and the motivation for the constitution, and several articles containing the substantive provisions.

The term unwritten constitution is used to describe a based on series of laws over time. Unwritten constitutions could contain written sources: e.g. constitutional statutes enacted by the Parliament; and also unwritten sources: constitutional conventions, customs and traditions.

Many historians use the term —rigidl to describe the Constitution because the provisions are in a written document that cannot be legally changed with the same ease and in the same manner as ordinary laws. On the other hand, the Constitution is called —flexiblel because it is an unwritten document that can be changed by an act of Parliament or through a process of amendment.

The federal constitution establishes the division of authority between the Federal Government and the component units of the government. In a federal constitution, sovereignty is invested in the central government. It allows a limited amount of government among units.

The unitary constitution relates to the parliament. It follows parliamentary system of power. The unitary constitution establishes a unitary system of government where a central government does exist. Although units are associated with that government, sovereignty is controlled by the central government.

11. Declaration of Right

An 18th-century engraving, based on a drawing by Samuel Wale, of the Bill of Rights being presented to William and Mary

The proposal to draw up a statement of rights and liberties and James's violation of them was first made on 29 January in the House of Commons, with members arguing that the

House "can not answer it to the nation or Prince of Orange till we declare what are the rights invaded" and that William "cannot take it ill if we make conditions to secure ourselves for the future" in order to "do justice to those who sent us hither". On 2 February a committee specially convened reported to the Commons 23 Heads of Grievances, which the Commons approved and added some of their own. However, on 4 February the Commons decided to instruct the committee to differentiate between "such of the general heads, as are introductory of new laws, from those that are declaratory of ancient rights". On 7 February the Commons approved this revised Declaration of Right, and on 8 February instructed the committee to put into a single text the Declaration (with the heads which were "introductory of new laws" removed), the resolution of 28 January and the Lords' proposal for a revised oath of allegiance. It passed the Commons without division.

On 13 February the clerk of the House of Lords read the Declaration of Right and Halifax, in the name of all the estates of the realm, asked William and Mary to accept the throne. William replied for his wife and himself: "We thankfully accept what you have offered us". They then went in procession to the great gate at Whitehall. The Garter King at Arms proclaimed them King and Queen of England, France and Ireland, whereupon they adjourned to the Chapel Royal, with the Bishop of London preaching the sermon. They were crowned on 11 April, swearing an oath to uphold the laws made by Parliament. The Coronation Oath Act 1688 had provided a new coronation oath, whereby the monarchs were to "solemnly promise and swear to govern the people of this kingdom of England, and the dominions thereunto belonging, according to the statutes in parliament agreed on, and the laws and customs of the same". They were also to maintain the laws of God, the true profession of the Gospel, and the Protestant Reformed faith established by law. This replaced an oath which had deferred more to the monarch. The previous oath required the monarch to rule based on "the laws and customs ... granted by the Kings of England".

12. Bill of Rights 1689

The Bill of Rights is an Act of the Parliament of England that deals with constitutional matters and lays out certain basic civil rights. Passed on 16 December 1689, it is a restatement in statutory form of the Declaration of Right presented by the Convention Parliament to William and Mary in February 1689, inviting them to become joint sovereigns of England. The Bill of Rights lays down limits on the powers of the monarch and sets out the rights of Parliament, including the requirement for regular parliaments, free elections, and freedom of speech in Parliament. It sets out certain rights of individuals including the prohibition of cruel and unusual punishment and reestablished the liberty of

Protestants to have arms for their defence within the rule of law. Furthermore, the Bill of Rights described and condemned several misdeeds of James II of England.

These ideas reflected those of the political thinker John Locke and they quickly became popular in England. It also sets out—or, in the view of its drafters, restates—certain constitutional requirements of the Crown to seek the consent of the people, as represented in Parliament.

In the United Kingdom, the Bill of Rights is further accompanied by Magna Carta, the Petition of Right, the Habeas Corpus Act 1679 and the Parliament Acts 1911 and 1949 as some of the basic documents of the uncodified British constitution. A separate but similar document, the Claim of Right Act 1689, applies in Scotland. The Bill of Rights 1689 was one of the inspirations for the United States Bill of Rights.

Along with the Act of Settlement 1701, the Bill of Rights is still in effect in all Commonwealth realms.

Following the Perth Agreement in 2011, legislation amending both of them came into effect across the Commonwealth realms on 26 March 2015

13. SOLON (b. 630 - d. 560 B.c.)

Solon, the Athenian statesman, is known as one of the Seven Wise Men of Greece. He ended exclusive aristocratic control of the government, substituted a system of control by the wealthy, and introduced a new and more humane law code. He was also a noted poet.

Unfortunately it was not until the 5th century B.C. that accounts of his life and works began to be put together, mostly on the evidence of his poems and his law code. Although certain details have a legendary ring, the main features of his story seem to be reliable. Solon was of noble descent but moderate means. He first became prominent in about 600 B.C. The early 6th century was a troubled time for the Athenians.

Society was dominated by an aristocracy of birth, who owned the best land, monopolized the government, and were themselves split into rival factions. The social, economic, and political evils might well have culminated in a revolution and subsequent tyranny (dictatorship), as they had in other Greek states, had it not been for Solon, to whom Athenians of all classes turned in the hope of a generally satisfactory solution of their problems. Because he believed in moderation and in an ordered society in which each class had its proper place and function, his solution was not revolution but reform.

Solon's great contribution to the future good of Athens was his new code of laws. The first written code at Athens that of Draco was still in force. Draco's laws were shockingly severe (hence the term draconian) - so severe that they were said to have been written not in ink but in blood. On the civil side they permitted enslavement for debt, and death seems to have been the penalty for almost all criminal offenses. Solon revised every statute except homicide and made Athenian law altogether more humane.

14. The MAGNA CARTA.

At the heart of the English system are two principles of government - limited government and representative government. The idea that government was not all-powerful first appeared in the Magna Carta*, or Great Charter, that King John** signed in 1215 under the threat of civil war. Earlier kings of England had issued charters, making promises to their barons. But these were granted by, not exacted from the king and were very generally phrased. Later the tension between the Kings and the nobility increased. Since 1199 John's barons had to be promised their rights. It is, therefore, not surprising that Stephen Langton, archbishop of Canterbury, directed baronial unrest into a demand for a solemn grant of liberties by the king. The document known as the Articles of the Barons was at last agreed upon and became the text from which the final version of the charter was drafted and sealed by June on June 15, 1215.

The Magna Carta established the principle of limited government, in which the power of the monarch, or government, was limited, not absolute. This document provided for protection against unjust punishment and the loss of life, liberty, and property except according to law. It stipulated that no citizen could be punished or kept in prison without a fair trial. Under the Magna Carta, the king agreed that certain taxes could not be levied without popular consent.

Although the Magna Carta was originally intended to protect aristocracy and not the ordinary citizens, it came in time to be regarded as a cornerstone of British liberties. It is one of the oldest written constitutional papers.

15. "Let the body be brought ..."

In Britain, the United States and many other English-speaking countries, the law of Habeas Corpus guarantees that nobody can be held in prison without trial. Habeas Corpus became a law because of a wild party held in 1621 at the London home of a notoriously rowdy lady, Alice Robinson. When a constable appeared and asked her and her guests to quiet down, Mrs. Robinson allegedly swore at him so violently that he arrested her, and a local justice of the peace committed her to jail.

When she was finally brought to trial, Mrs. Robinson's story of her treatment in prison caused an outcry. She had been put on a punishment diet of bread and water and caused an outcry. She had been put on a punishment diet of bread and water, forced to sleep on the bare earth, stripped, and given fifty lashes. Such treatment was barbaric even by the harsh standards of the time; what made it worse was that Mrs. Robinson was pregnant.

Public anger was so great she was acquitted, the constable who had arrested her without a warrant was himself sent to prison, and the justice of the peace, was severely reprimanded. And the case, along with other similar cases, led to the passing of the Habeas Corpus Act in Britain in 1679. The law is still on the British statute books, and a version of it is used in the United States, where the law is regarded as such an important guarantee of liberty that Article 1 of the U.S.

Constitution declares that —Habeas Corpus shall not be suspended except in cases of rebellion or invasion.

Habeas Corpus is part of a Latin phrase- Habeas corpus ad subjiciendum- that means —Let the body be brought before the judge. In effect, a writ of Habeas Corpus is an order in the name of the people (or, in Britain, of the sovereign) to produce an imprisoned person in court at once.

16. Madame Tussaud's Chamber of Horrors

Madame Tussaud's is the best known and most visited waxwork exhibition in the world. In the Chamber of Horrors which is a part of Madame Tussaud's every exhibit deals with the subject of crime and punishment- it is a rogues gallery of dangerous and evil criminals.

In a dark, dank Victorian street, Jack the Ripper stalked his prey, the torn and twisted body of one of his victims, Catherine Eddowes, lies mutilated in a pool of blood. Jack the Ripper was never brought to justice but other were, villains and murderers who met their ends by guillotine, gallows or garrote.

Madame Tussaud first arrived in England in 1802 from Germany, where she was born in 1761. She brought with her gruesome souvenirs of the French Revolution, the instruments of death and death masks of their victims. The death masks of Louis 16 and Marie Antoinette are still on display next to the very guillotine blade that beheaded the French queen.

More recent means of execution include the firing squad and the electric chair American murderer Gary Gilmore is seen facing a hail of bullets. Bruno Hauptmann electrocuted in New Jersey, USA in 1936 can be seen here too.

Acid-bath murderer John George Haigh who killed at least nine people and disposed of the bodies in an acid bath, stands in the clothes he wore before his execution. Many prisoners or their relatives bequeathed or sold the clothes or some items which belonged to the murderers to dress their portraits at Madame Tussaud.

And the —Brides in the Bath George Joseph Smith Leans over a victim in the actual bathtub in which he drowned his well-insured brides. Notorious mass-murderer John Christie is at work in a replica of the tiny West London kitchen where he concealed the bodies of three of the seven women he killed.

Contemporary criminals in Britain no longer face the death penalty—instead they must spend years behind bars. The exhibition shows a bleak modern prison block with contemporary murderers which are standing before their cells.

Guy Thorne's 1912 description of the murderers in the Chamber of Horrors is still true today: —Row upon row of faces which differ in very way one from another and yet are dreadfully alike. For these great sinister dolls, so unreal and so real, have all a likeness. The smirk of cruelty and cunning seems to lie upon their waxen masks. Colder than life, far colder than death they will give forth emanations which will strike the heart with woe and desolation.

17. The British Police

The British police officer is a well-known figure to anyone who has visited Britain or who has seen British films. Policemen are to be seen in towns and cities keeping law and order, either walking in pairs down the streets ("walking the beat") or driving specially marked police cars. One known as 'panda cars' because of their distinctive markings, these are now often jokingly referred to as 'jam sandwiches' because of the pink fluorescent stripe running horizontally around the bodywork. In the past, policemen were often known as 'bobbies' after Sir Robert Peel, the founder of the police force. Nowadays, common nicknames include 'the cops', 'the fuzz', 'the pigs', and 'the Old Bill' (particularly in London). Few people realize, however, that the police in Britain are organized very differently from any other countries.

Most countries, for example, have a national police force which is controlled by central Government. Britain has no national police force, although police policy is governed by the

central Government's Home Office. Instead, there is a separate police force for each of 52 areas into which the country is divided. Each has a police authority – a committee of local councillors and magistrates.

The forces co-operate with each other, but it is unusual for members of one force to operate in another's area unless they are asked to give assistance. This sometimes happens when there has been a very serious crime. A Chief Constable (the most senior police officer of a force) may sometimes ask for the assistance of London's police force, based at New Scotland Yard - known simply as "the Yard".

In most countries the police carry guns. In Britain, however, this is extremely unusual. Policemen do not, as a rule, carry firearms in their day-to-day work, though certain specialist units are trained to do so and can be called upon to help the regular police force in situations where firearms are involved, e.g. terrorist incidents, armed robberies, etc. The only policemen who routinely carry weapons are those assigned to guard politicians and diplomats, or special officers who patrol airports.

In certain circumstances specially trained police officers can be armed, but only with the signed permission of a magistrate.

All members of the police must have gained a certain level of academic qualifications at school and undergone a period of intensive training. Like in the army, there are a number of ranks: after the Chief Constable comes the Assistant Chief Constable, Chief Superintendent, Chief Inspector, Inspector, Sergeant and Constable. Women make up about 10 per cent of the police force. The police are helped by a number of Special Constables - members of the public who work for the police voluntarily for a few hours a week.

Each police force has its own Criminal Investigation Department (CID). Members of CIDs are detectives, and they do not wear uniforms. The other uniformed people you see in British towns are traffic wardens. Their job is to make sure that drivers obey the parking regulations. They have no other powers - it is the police who are responsible for controlling offenses like speeding, careless driving and drunken driving.

The duties of the police are varied, ranging from assisting at accidents to safeguarding public order and dealing with lost property. One of their main functions is, of course, apprehending criminals and would-be criminals.

18. The UK Forensic Science Service.

The Forensic Science Service (FSS) serves the administration of justice in England and Wales by providing scientific support in the investigation of crime, and by giving evidence to courts. Its customers include the police, the Crown Prosecution Service, coroners and defense solicitors.

In February 1995 the UK government announced that the FSS would merge with the Metropolitan Police Forensic Science Laboratory to form a single agency serving all police forces in England and Wales through seven regional operational laboratories.

Scientific expertise is available on a case-by-case basis to law enforcement agencies and attorneys. The Service provides assistance to home and overseas police forces in the investigation of many crimes, particularly fires where arson is suspected, cases involving DNA profiling and offences involving the use of firearms. The scientists have a wide range of experience in fire-scene examination, including fatal fires in domestic premises, large industrial fires and vehicle fires.

DNA profiling is a revolutionary scientific testing process which can positively identify an individual from a specimen of blood, semen, hair roots or tissue. Its application to crime specimens represents the greatest advance in forensic science in decades. The vast potential of DNA profiling is recognized by the police and the legal profession, and its use in criminal investigation has increased.

The Forensic Science Service provides advice on firearms and related matters and assistance in the investigation of shooting incidents. When presented with a suspect weapon, the expert is able to establish whether or not it was the weapon used in a crime. Experts are particularly adept in the microscopic examination of spent bullets and cartridge cases. They have access to a world-famous computer-based information systems relating to thousands of firearms.

The Service offers training to overseas scientists which is of a general nature or is aimed at specific techniques such as DNA profiling or examination of firearms and documents. Training is provided on note taking, searching, report writing and expert witness appearances in court. Contact is maintained with other institutions and universities in Britain and other countries.

19. Laws of King William I (the Conqueror)

1. First that above all things he wishes one God to be revered throughout his whole realm, one faith in Christ to be kept ever inviolate, and peace and security to be preserved between English and Normans.
2. We decree also that every freeman shall affirm by oath and compact that he will be loyal to King William both within and without England, that he will preserve with him his lands and honor with all fidelity and defend him against his enemies.
3. I will, moreover, that all the men I have brought with me, or who have come after me, shall be protected by my peace and shall dwell in quiet. And if any one of them shall be slain, let the lord of his murderer seize him within five days, if he can; but if he cannot, let him pay me 46 marks of silver so long as his substance avails. And when his substance is exhausted, let the whole hundred in which the murder took place pay what remains in common.
4. And let every Frenchman who, in the time of King Edward, my kinsman, was a sharer in the customs of the English, pay what they call "scot and lot", according to the laws of the English. This decree was ordained in the city of Gloucester.
5. We forbid also that any live cattle shall be bought or sold for money except within cities, and this shall be done before three faithful witnesses; nor even anything old without surety and warrant. But if anyone shall do otherwise, let him pay once, and afterwards a second time for a fine.
6. It was decreed there that if a Frenchman shall charge an Englishman with perjury or murder or theft or homicide or "ran," as the English call open rapine which cannot be denied, the Englishman may defend himself, as he shall prefer, either by the ordeal of hot iron or by wager of battle. But if the Englishman be infirm, let him find another who will take his place. If one of them shall be vanquished, he shall pay a fine of 40 shillings to the king. If an Englishman shall charge a Frenchman and be unwilling to prove his accusation either by ordeal or by wager of battle, I will, nevertheless, that the Frenchman shall acquit himself by a valid oath.
7. This also I command and will, that all shall have and hold the law of the King Edward in respect of their lands and all their possessions, with the addition of those decrees I have ordained for the welfare of the English people.
8. Every man who wishes to be considered a freeman shall be in pledge so that his surety shall hold him and hand him over to justice if he shall offend in any way. And if any

such shall escape, let his sureties see to it that they pay forthwith what is charge against him, and let them clear themselves of any complicity in his escape. Let recourse be had to the hundred and shire courts as our predecessors decreed. And those who ought of right to come and are unwilling to appear, shall be summoned once; and if for the second time they refuse to come, one ox shall be taken from them, and they shall be summoned a third time. And if they do not come the third time, a second ox shall be taken from them. But if they do not come the fourth summons, the man who is unwilling to come shall forfeit from his goods the amount of the charge against him, "ceapgeld" as it is called, and in addition to this a fine to the king.

9. I prohibit the sale of any man by another outside the country on pain of a fine to be paid in full to me.

10. I also forbid that anyone shall be slain or hanged for any fault, but let his eyes be put out and let him be castrated. And this command shall not be violated under pain of a fine in full to me.

20. United States Declaration of Independence

The Declaration of Independence is the statement adopted by the Second Continental Congress meeting at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania on July 4, 1776, which announced that the thirteen American colonies, then at war with the Kingdom of Great Britain, regarded themselves as thirteen newly independent sovereign states, and no longer under British rule. Instead they formed a new nation—the United States of America. John Adams was a leader in pushing for independence, which was unanimously approved on July 2. A committee of five had already drafted the formal declaration, to be ready when Congress voted on independence. The term "Declaration of Independence" is not used in the document itself.

Adams persuaded the committee to select Thomas Jefferson to compose the original draft of the document, which Congress would edit to produce the final version. The Declaration was ultimately a formal explanation of why Congress had voted on July 2 to declare independence from Great Britain, more than a year after the outbreak of the American Revolutionary War. The national birthday, Independence Day, is celebrated on July 4, although Adams wanted July 2.

After ratifying the text on July 4, Congress issued the Declaration of Independence in several forms. It was initially published as the printed Dunlap broadside that was widely

distributed and read to the public. The source copy used for this printing has been lost, and may have been a copy in Thomas Jefferson's hand.[4] Jefferson's original draft, complete with changes made by John Adams and Benjamin Franklin, and Jefferson's notes of changes made by Congress, are preserved at the Library of Congress. The best known version of the Declaration, a signed copy that is popularly regarded as the official document, is displayed at the National Archives in Washington, D.C. This engrossed copy was ordered by Congress on July 19, and signed primarily on August 2.

The sources and interpretation of the Declaration have been the subject of much scholarly inquiry. The Declaration justified the independence of the United States by listing colonial grievances against King George III, and by asserting certain natural and legal rights, including a right of revolution. Having served its original purpose in announcing independence, references to the text of the Declaration were few in the following years. Abraham Lincoln made it the centerpiece of his rhetoric (as in the Gettysburg Address of 1863), and his policies. Since then, it has become a well-known statement on human rights, particularly its second sentence:

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness.

This has been called "one of the best-known sentences in the English language", containing "the most potent and consequential words in American history". The passage came to represent a moral standard to which the United States should strive. This view was notably promoted by Abraham Lincoln, who considered the Declaration to be the foundation of his political philosophy, and argued that the Declaration is a statement of principles through which the United States Constitution should be interpreted.

The United States Declaration of Independence inspired many other similar documents in other countries in the 18th and 19th centuries, spreading to the Low Countries, and then to the Caribbean, Spanish America, the Balkans, West Africa, and Central Europe in the decades up to 1848.

21. Sherlock Holmes

Sherlock Holmes is a fictional private detective created by British author Sir Arthur Conan Doyle. Known as a "consulting detective" in the stories, Holmes is known for a proficiency with observation, forensic science, and logical reasoning that borders on the fantastic, which he employs when investigating cases for a wide variety of clients, including Scotland Yard. First appearing in print in 1887, the character's popularity became widespread with the first series of short stories in *The Strand Magazine*, beginning with "A Scandal in Bohemia" in 1891; additional stories appeared from then to 1927, eventually totalling four novels and 56 short stories. All but one are set in the Victorian or Edwardian periods, taking place between about 1880 to 1914. Most are narrated by the character of Holmes's friend and biographer Dr. Watson, who usually accompanies Holmes during his investigations and often shares quarters with him at the address of 221B Baker Street, London, where many of the stories begin.

Though not the first fictional detective, Sherlock Holmes is arguably the most well-known, with Guinness World Records listing him as the "most portrayed movie character" in history. Holmes's popularity and fame are such that many have believed him to be not a fictional character but a real individual;^{[2][3]} numerous literary and fan societies have been founded that pretend to operate on this principle. The stories and character have had a profound and lasting effect on mystery writing and popular culture as a whole, with both the original tales as well as thousands written by authors other than Conan Doyle being adapted into stage and radio plays, television, films, video games, and other media for over one hundred years.

22. HM Prison Altcourse

HM Prison Altcourse is a Category B men's private prison and Young Offenders Institution in the Fazakerley area of Liverpool in Merseyside, England. The prison is operated by G4S.

Altcourse Prison was opened in December 1997, being the first privately designed, constructed, managed and financed prison in the United Kingdom. While early reports about the management of the prison were favourable, the financing of the project drew criticism after it emerged that former owner GSL had managed to make a £10 million windfall from the contracts. In 2005 it was reported that Altcourse was the most overcrowded prison in England with 1,324 inmates, with overcrowding being an issue at the prison ever since.

In November 2009, the prison's own Independent Monitoring Board published a report which criticised the amount of illegal drugs that were being smuggled into Altcourse. The report suggested that mobile phones (which were also being smuggled into the jail) were helping to fuel the trade. A month later, it emerged that inmates at Altcourse were being given access to satellite television as a reward for good behaviour.

Altcourse is a Category B local prison, receiving prisoners from the courts in Lancashire, Merseyside, Cheshire and North Wales. The prison accepts young offenders and adult male prisoners who are both sentenced and remanded by the courts. Accommodation at the prison comprises six accommodation units, a First Night Centre, three Vocational Training residential units and the Healthcare Centre. The prison offers full-time education and night classes to inmates as well as workshops and offender management programmes.

23. Scotland Yard

Commonly known as the Met, the Metropolitan Police Service is responsible for law enforcement within Greater London, excluding the square mile of the City of London, which is covered by the City of London Police. Additionally, the London Underground and National Rail networks are the responsibility of the British Transport Police. The Metropolitan Police was formed by Robert Peel with the implementation of the Metropolitan Police Act, passed by Parliament in 1829.[1] Peel, with the help of Eugène-François Vidocq, selected the original site on Whitehall Place for the new police headquarters. The first two commissioners, Charles Rowan and Richard Mayne, along with various police officers and staff, occupied the building. Previously a private house, 4 Whitehall Place (51.50598°N 0.12609°W) backed onto a street called Great Scotland Yard.

The original New Scotland Yard, now called the Norman Shaw Buildings

By 1887, the Met headquarters had expanded from 4 Whitehall Place into several neighbouring addresses, including 3, 5, 21 and 22 Whitehall Place; 8 and 9 Great Scotland Yard, and several stables.[1] Eventually, the service outgrew its original site, and new headquarters were built (51.50222°N 0.12463°W) on the Victoria Embankment, overlooking the River Thames, south of what is now the Ministry of Defence's headquarters. In 1888, during the construction of the new building, workers discovered the dismembered torso of a female; the case, known as the 'Whitehall Mystery', was never solved. In 1890, police headquarters moved to the new location, which was named New Scotland Yard. By this time, the Met had grown from its initial 1,000 officers to about 13,000 and needed more administrative staff and a bigger headquarters. Further increases in the size and responsibilities of the force required even more administrators, and in 1907

and 1940, New Scotland Yard was extended further (51.50183°N 0.12446°W). This complex is now a Grade I listed structure known as the Norman Shaw Buildings.

The original building at 4 Whitehall Place still has a rear entrance on Great Scotland Yard. Stables for some of the mounted branch are still located at 7 Great Scotland Yard, across the street from the first headquarters.

24. Not to be confused with Precedence.

In common law legal systems, a precedent or authority is a principle or rule established in a previous legal case that is either binding on or persuasive for a court or other tribunal when deciding subsequent cases with similar issues or facts. Common law legal systems place great value on deciding cases according to consistent principled rules so that similar facts will yield similar and predictable outcomes, and observance of precedent is the mechanism by which that goal is attained. Black's Law Dictionary defines "precedent" as a "rule of law established for the first time by a court for a particular type of case and thereafter referred to in deciding similar cases." Common law precedent is a third kind of law, on equal footing with statutory law (statutes and codes enacted by legislative bodies), and Delegated legislation (in U.K. parlance) or regulatory law (in U.S. parlance) (regulations promulgated by executive branch agencies).

Case law or common law is the set of decisions of adjudicatory tribunals that can be cited as precedent. In most countries, including most European countries, the term is applied to any set of rulings on law which is guided by previous rulings, for example, previous decisions of a government agency.

Precedential (whether strongly binding or weakly persuasive) case law can arise from a ruling by either a judicial court, or by an executive branch agency. Trials and hearings that do not result in written decisions, decisions from tribunals that are not in the "chain of command" that binds the later court, written decisions that are designated "nonprecedential" by the tribunal, or written decisions of agencies that are not issued and indexed with sufficient formality to gain precedential effect, and cases that are resolved without written decision, do not create binding precedent for future court decisions.

25. Napoleonic reforms

This section does not cite any sources. Please help improve this section by adding citations to reliable sources. Unsourced material may be challenged and removed.

Napoleon set to reform the French legal system in accordance with the ideas of the French Revolution, because the old feudal and royal laws seemed confusing and contradictory to

the people. Before the Code, France did not have a single set of laws; law consisted mainly of local customs, which had sometimes been officially compiled in "customals" (coutumes), notably the Coutume de Paris. There were also exemptions, privileges, and special charters granted by the kings or other feudal lords. During the Revolution, the last vestiges of feudalism were abolished.

Specifically, as to civil law, the many different bodies of law used in different parts of France were to be replaced by a single legal code. Leading this drafting process was Jean-Jacques Régis de Cambacérès. His drafts of 1793 (for which he had been given a one-month deadline), 1794, and 1799, however, were adopted only piecemeal by a National Convention more concerned about the turmoil resulting from the various wars and strife with other European powers.

A fresh start was made after Napoleon came to power in 1799. A commission of four eminent jurists was appointed in 1800, including Louis-Joseph Faure and chaired by Cambacérès (now Second Consul), and sometimes by First Consul Napoleon himself. The Code was complete by 1801, after intensive scrutiny by the Council of State, but was not published until 21 March 1804. It was promulgated as the "Civil Code of the French" (Code civil des Français), but was renamed "the Napoleonic Code" (Code Napoléon) from 1807 to 1815, and once again under the Second French Empire.

The process was developed mainly out of the various customals, but was inspired by Justinian's sixth-century codification of Roman law, the Corpus Iuris Civilis and, within that, Justinian's Code (Codex). The Napoleonic Code, however, differed from Justinian's in important ways: it incorporated all kinds of earlier rules, not only legislation; it was not a collection of edited extracts, but a comprehensive rewrite; its structure was much more rational; it had no religious content; and it was written in the vernacular.

The development of the Napoleonic Code was a fundamental change in the nature of the civil law system, making laws clearer and more accessible. It also superseded the former conflict between royal legislative power and, particularly in the final years before the Revolution, protests by judges representing views and privileges of the social classes to which they belonged. Such conflict led the Revolutionaries to take a negative view of judges making law.

This is reflected in the Napoleonic Code prohibiting judges from deciding a case by way of introducing a general rule (Article 5), since the creation of general rules is an exercise of legislative and not of judicial power. In theory, there is thus no case law in France. However, the courts still had to fill the gaps in the laws and regulations and, indeed, were

prohibited from refusing to do so (Article 4). Moreover, both the codes and legislation have required judicial interpretation. In these ways, a vast body of judicially created law (jurisprudence) has come into existence. There is no rule of stare decisis (binding precedent), but the decisions by important courts have become more or less equivalent to case law (see jurisprudence constante).

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	<p>Студент демонстрирует отличное знание предмета (сформированность умений и навыков иноязычного общения в 4-х сферах коммуникации: повседневно-бытовой, учебно-образовательной, социокультурной и профессиональной):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• 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	<p>Студент демонстрирует хорошее знание предмета:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• произношение в целом соответствует программным требованиям,

	<p>но встречаются случаи отклонения от нормы. В основном умеет использовать ритмику, мелодику иноязычной речи, хотя иногда речь может быть недостаточно выразительной;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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	<p>Студент демонстрирует отдельные речевые навыки и умения:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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	<p>Студент демонстрирует отсутствие сформированности умений и навыков иноязычного общения:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • при частичном понимании текста не может передать его содержание. Отвечает лишь на простые вопросы, при этом допускает грамматические и синтаксические ошибки; <p>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</p>

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	<p>Студент демонстрирует отличное знание предмета (сформированность умений и навыков иноязычного общения в 4-х сферах коммуникации: повседневно-бытовой, учебно-образовательной, социокультурной и профессиональной):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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:

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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.
14	<p>Студент демонстрирует отдельные речевые навыки и умения:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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	<p>Студент демонстрирует отсутствие сформированности умений и навыков иноязычного общения:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • при частичном понимании текста не может передать его содержание. Отвечает лишь на простые вопросы, при этом допускает грамматические и синтаксические ошибки; <p>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</p>

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	отлично
61-80	хорошо
41-60	удовлетворительно
0-40	не удовлетворительно