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АНГЛИЙСКИЙ ДЛЯ ЭКОНОМИСТОВ

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ДЛЯ ЭКОНОМИСТОВ

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Учебное пособие соответствует государственному образовательному стандарту и требованиям программы по английскому языку для неязыковых вузов. Оно рассчитано на 4–6 семестров работы. Может также частично использоваться в средних специальных учебных заведениях (содержит повторительный курс грамматики). В пособии рассматриваются основные экономические системы, макро- и микроэкономические теории, действие экономических законов в реальной жизни.

Для студентов высших учебных заведений с экономической направленностью, подготовительных курсов и факультетов, а также для самостоятельного обучения.

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От авторов

Перед вами учебное пособие, рассчитанное на 4-6 семестров работы в высшем учебном заведении с экономической направленностью. Пособие также может быть частично (первая часть и приложения) использовано в средних специальных учебных заведениях, на подготовительных курсах и факультетах, а также для самостоятельного обучения.

Пособие состоит из четырех частей и приложений. Первая часть – это корректировочный курс фонетики и правила чтения. Вторая часть предназначена для вчерашних выпускников средних школ – студентов первого курса. Она носит общий характер, содержит повторительный курс грамматики в соответствии с требованиями программы по английскому языку для неязыковых вузов.

Каждый из уроков второй части содержит тематический текст, являющийся также полно изложенной устной темой. Так, во второй части рассматриваются такие обязательные вузовские темы, как: **About myself, Student's working day, My University, My future profession** и цикл страноведческих тем – **Great Britain, USA, Russian Federation, Moscow**.

Второй текст урока предназначен для классного и внеаудиторного чтения, развития навыков работы со словарем и передачи содержания на английском языке. Каждый урок завершается блоком кратко изложенной грамматики по обязательным разделам с закрепляющими упражнениями.

Третья часть предназначена для аудиторных и вне-аудиторных занятий по английскому языку в третьем-четвертом семестре.

Третья и четвертая части представляют собой самостоятельные, структурно независимые пособия для развития навыков чтения, извлечения и обработки информации по специальности. В целях универсализации пособия каждый урок в третьей и четвертой части самостоятелен. При составлении пособия мы исходили из принципа «от общего к частному», логически переходя от более общих тем к более специализированным разделам (например, от *Defining Economics* к *Management, Marketing*).

В четвертой части пособия – Applied Economics (Прикладная экономика) – рассматриваются основные экономические системы, экономические законы, макро- и микроэкономические теории. Все тексты являются оригинальными. Некоторая сложность использованных текстов обусловлена установкой авторов на их оригинальный характер, так как основная цель – развить у студентов навыки извлечения, обработки и передачи экономической информации на английском языке.

Пособие завершают ряд полезных, как для учебного процесса, так и для практической работы, приложений:

Appendix A: Тексты для дополнительного чтения.

Appendix B: Frequently used business abbreviations. –

Словарь наиболее часто встречающихся сокращений в литературе по экономической тематике.

Appendix C: Таблица неправильных глаголов.

Good luck!

PART 1

Фонетика. Особенности английского произношения

В результате сложного исторического развития английского языка и системы его письменности возникло значительное расхождение между написанием слова и его произношением. Это привело к системе специальной записи звукового образа слова – фонетической транскрипции. Знание знаков транскрипции – это ключ к правильному чтению и произношению слова. Транскрипционные значки звуков заключаются в квадратные скобки.

Звуки английского языка

ГЛАСНЫЕ

[i:] – долгий *и*

[ɪ] – краткий, открытый *и*

[e] – э в словах *этот, экий*

[æ] – более открытый, чем э

[ɑ:] – долгий, глубокий *а*

[ɔ] – краткий, открытый *о*

[ɔ:] – долгий *о*

[o] – закрытый, близкий к у звук *о*

[u] – краткий у со слабым округлением губ

[u:] – долгий у без сильного округления губ

[ʌ] – краткий гласный, приближающийся к русскому а в словах *варить, бранить*

[ə] – безударный гласный, напоминающий русский

безударный гласный в словах:
нужен, молоток

[ə:] - в русском отсутствует, средний между о и э

ДВУГЛАСНЫЕ (ДИФТОНГИ)

[eɪ] – эй

[oʊ] – оу

[aɪ] – ай

[aʊ] – ау

[ɔɪ] – ой

[ɪə] – иа

[ɛə] – эа

[uə] – уа

СОГЛАСНЫЕ

[p] – п

[b] – б

[m] – м

[w] – звук, образующийся с положением губ, как при б, но с маленьким отверстием между губами, как при свисте

[f] – ф

[v] – в

[ð] – (с голосом) \

[θ] – (без голоса) / оба звука образуются при помощи языка, кончик которого легко касается верхних передних зубов, как в шепелявом русском з

[s] – с

[z] – з

- [t] – т, произнесенное не у зубов, а у десен
[d] – д, произнесенное не у зубов, а у десен
[n] – н
[l] – л
[r] – звук произносится без вибрации кончика языка в отличие от русского *r*
[ʃ] – мягкий русский ш
[ʒ] – мягкий русский ж в слове *возжжи*
[tʃ] – ч
[dʒ] – озвонченный ч
[k] – к
[g] – г
[ŋ] – заднеязычный н, произнесенный задней частью спинки языка
[h] – простой выдох
[j] – й

Некоторые английские согласные имеют двойное чтение, сочетания двух согласных могут передавать один согласный звук, а 6 гласных букв передают 20 гласных звуков в зависимости от положения гласной в слове (ударное или неударное) и от типа слога (открытый или закрытый).

Рекомендуется выучить три основных правила произношения английских слов:

1. Краткость или долготы гласных звуков в русском языке не влияет на смысл слова. В английском же языке долготы или краткости произнесенного гласного звука меняет смысл слова. Так, [ʃɪp] – корабль, а [ʃi:p] – овца.
2. В отличие от русского языка в английском языке согласные звуки не оглушаются в конце слова. Оглушение согласных отражается на смысле слова. На-

пример: [bæɡ] – сумка, [bæk] – спина.

3. Гласная буква **e** в конце слова не читается. Чтение гласной буквы в английском языке зависит от ее положения в слове (ударное или неударное) и от типа слога (открытый или закрытый).

Правила чтения

Правила чтения букв **a, e, i, o, u, y** и их сочетаний

Чтение гласных букв **a, e, i, o, u, y** зависит от:

- 1) типа слога, в котором они стоят;
- 2) ударные они или безударные;
- 3) от того, какие буквы стоят впереди или позади

них.

Типы слогов

I	I	II
Открытый	Условно-открытый	Закрытый
Слог оканчивается на гласную	Слог оканчивается на согласную, за которой следует непронизносимая буква e	Слог оканчивается на одну или несколько согласных
he, she, me	make, note, time	sit, but, test

Правила чтения гласных **a, e, i, o, u, y** в ударных и безударных слогах

	Типы слога				
	I	II	III	IV	
Гласные	открытый ударный тип слога	закрытый ударный тип слога	гласная+г ударный тип слога	гласная+г+е ударный тип слога	безударный слог
A a	[eɪ] plate	[æ] lamp	[ɑ:] car	[ɛə] share	[ə] ago

	Типы слога				
	I	II	III	IV	
Гласные	открытый ударный тип слога	закрытый ударный тип слога	гласная+г ударный тип слога	гласная+г+е ударный тип слога	безударный слог
E e	[i:] we	[e] ten	[ə:] her	[iə] here	[ə] [ɪ] absent forest
I i Y y	[aɪ] fine byte	[ɪ] bit mystic	[ə:] girl	[aɪə] fire tyre	[ɪ] music copy
U u	[ju:] tube	[ʌ] cut	[ə:] turn	[juə] cure	[ə] [ju:] success unite
O o	[ou] bone	[ɒ] not	[ɔ:] short	[ɔ:] more	[ə] [ou] confer retro

Правила чтения буквосочетаний

Сочетания согласных

Буквосочетание	Произношение	Пример
ch	[tʃ]	chair
sh	[ʃ]	she
th	[θ]	thin
th	[ð]	thus
wh	[w]	what
wh	[h]	who
ng	[ŋ]	long
ck	[k]	clock

Непроизносимые согласные

Буквосочетание	Произношение	Пример
igh	[aɪ]	high light
kn	[n]	know knife
wr	[r]	write wrong
gn	[n]	sign

Звуки [ɪ], [i:]

Гласный звук [ɪ] При произнесении краткого гласного звука [ɪ] кончик языка находится у основания нижних зубов: оттенок русского звука и в словах *шить*, *шило* практически совпадает с английским [ɪ] – *it, sit, in*.

Гласный звук [i:]. При произнесении долгого гласного [i:] язык продвинут вперед, кончик языка касается нижних зубов, губы несколько растянуты и слегка обнажают зубы. Оттенок русского звука и в словах *ива*, *игло*, *игры*, *избы* практически совпадает с английским звуком [i:].

Сочетания *ee, ea* – читаются [i:]. Например, *meet, peat*.

Долгота звука влияет на лексическое значение слова.

Например, *feet* (ноги) – *fit* (вмещаться), *steel* (сталь) – *still* (все еще)

👂 Exercise A

[ɪ], [i:]

if – it

is – bit

tip – kit

did – bill

mill – meal

pill – peel

keel – kill

sit – seat

👂 Exercise B

[ɪ], [i:]

lip – leap

did – deed

pit – peat
 fit – feet
 it – eat
 lid – lead

💡 Exercise C

[ɪ], [i:]
 bin – bean – seem
 beat – bin – keen
 sit – seat – least
 steel – still – steal
 feel – fill – feet
 fit – eat – bean
 simple – Pete – ease
 feel – peel – reel
 meet – meat – knit
 ill – bill – will
 steel – feel – clear

💡 Exercise D

[ɪ], [i:]
 be – been – bean
 me – meet – meat
 see – seat – seed
 meal – seal – mean
 pea – Pete – peat
 sea – see – meet
 bee – been – feet
 mean – lean – keen

💡 Exercise E

[ɪ], [i:]
 I see a sea. I see lean meat. I eat meat. I like meat.

I like tea. I make tea. I take tea. I like fine tea I like fine meals.

Звуки [e], [æ]

Гласный звук [e]. При произнесении гласного [e] масса языка находится в передней части ротовой полости. Кончик языка находится у нижних зубов. Губы слегка растянуты. Звук близок к русскому звуку [э] в словах *эти, жесть*.

Гласный звук [æ]. При произнесении звука [æ] губы несколько растянуты, нижняя челюсть сильно опущена, кончик языка касается нижних зубов, а средняя спинка языка немного выгибается вперед и кверху.

 **Exercise A**

[æ]

am – Ann – lamp

man – can – cat

sat – hat – bat

Pat – rat – cam

 **Exercise B**

[e], [æ]

tan – ten

pan – pen

bad – bed

land – lend

ban – bent

fan – fence

man – men

pat – pet

 **Exercise C**

[e], [æ]

bat – bet

pat – pet

rad – red

lap – met

ten – pen
men – hen

Звуки [ɑ:], [ɛə], [eɪ]

Гласный звук [ɑ:]. При произнесении английского гласного [ɑ:] рот открыт почти как для русского звука, но язык отодвигается дальше назад и книзу и лежит плоско. Кончик языка оттянут от нижних зубов. Губы не растянуты и не выдвинуты вперед.

Гласный звук [ʌ]. При произнесении звука язык несколько отодвинут назад, задняя спинка языка приподнята к передней части мягкого неба, губы слегка растянуты. Звук похож на русский предударный звук а в словах: какой, посты, басы.

Гласный звук [ɛə]. Ядро звука – гласный, похожий на русский звук в слове *это*. Скольжение происходит в направлении нейтрального гласного с оттенком звука а.

Гласный звук [eɪ]. Дифтонг, ядром которого является гласный [e], а скольжение происходит в направлении гласного [ɪ]. Произнося дифтонг, необходимо следить за тем, чтобы ядро не было таким широким, как русский гласный э, а второй элемент не превращался в русский звук й.

👤 Exercise A

[ɑ:]

car – far – bar

half – calf – bath

part – park – tart

cart – barter – shark

spark – bath – mark

park – raft – plant

💡 Exercise B

[ɛə]

Mary – air
 pair – parents
 care – dare
 rare – hare
 fare – fair
 hair – stair

💡 Exercise C

[eɪ]

tape – hate – bate
 mate – plate – Kate
 late – fate – rate
 brave – maple – main
 pain – name – day
 date – may – pay
 lay – hay – Ray

💡 Exercise D

[ʌ], [ɑ:]

cup – car
 sun – part
 us – art
 bus – bath
 tub – tart
 mud – mark
 must – marble
 but – barter
 hunt – harm
 trust – drama

[ɑ:]

far – bar
 half – calf

park – tart
 spark – bath
 park – raft – plant
 cart – barter – shark

Звуки [u:], [u]

Гласный звук [u:]. При произнесении долгого гласного звука [u:] губы напряжены и сильно округлены, но гораздо меньше выдвинуты вперед, чем при русском звуке у.

На письме передается буквосочетанием двойное О, за исключением случаев перед буквой к. Например, *soon* – скоро, *vsore*, *moon* – луна

Исключение: book – книга (краткое u).

Гласный звук [u]. При произнесении краткого гласного звука [u] губы заметно округлены, но не выдвинуты вперед, язык оттянут назад, но несколько меньше, чем для [u:] (u долгого). Звук напоминает безударный русский звук у в словах *пустой*, *тупой*, произнесенный без выдвижения губ вперед.

Например, *hook* – крюк, *look* – взгляд

Запомните слова, в которых в качестве исключения произносится [u]:

<i>put</i> – класть	<i>pull</i> – тянуть
<i>push</i> – толкать	<i>full</i> – полный

👁 Exercise A

[u:], [u]

pool (бассейн) – *pull* (тянуть)
tool (инструмент) – *full* (полный)
too – *took*
tooth – *hook*

food – cook

boot – look

fool – full

Exercise B

[u:]

fool – pool – hook

fool – too – book

cook – boot – loop

foot – cool – mood

shook – soon – boot

spoon – moon – foot

Звуки [ɔ:], [ɒ], [ou]

Гласный звук [ɔ:] – долгий гласный. Для того, чтобы правильно произнести звук, следует придать органам речи положение, как при произнесении звука *a*, затем значительно округлить губы и несколько выдвинуть их вперед.

Гласный звук [ɒ]. Для того, чтобы произнести звук [ɒ], следует исходить из положения органов речи при произнесении звука [ɑ:], затем слегка округлить губы и произнести краткий звук [ɒ].

Гласный звук [ou]. Начало звука представляет собой нечто среднее между русскими звуками *o* и *э*. Губы при произнесении начала этого дифтонга слегка растянуты и округлены. Скольжение происходит в направлении гласного [u].

Exercise A

[ɔ:]

more – score – poor

floor – for – form

fork – pork – sport

dawn – hawk – because

🧠 Exercise B

[ɔ]

not – top – hot

Rostov-on-Don

dot – mop – mob

🧠 Exercise C

[ou]

tone – note – smoke

cone – loan – moan

code – hope – cope

lobe – mould – gold

boat – soap – coat

Звуки [iə], [aɪ], [aʊ]

Дифтонг [iə]. Ядро звука – гласный [i], а скользящее происходит в направлении нейтрального гласного, имеющего оттенок звука [ʌ].

Дифтонг [aɪ]. Ядро дифтонга – гласный звук, похожий на русский звук а в слове *чай*. Скользящее происходит в направлении звука и, однако его образование полностью не достигается, в результате чего слышится лишь начало звука и.

🧠 Exercise A

[iə]

year – hear – ear

here – near – fear

tear – peer – beer

rear – leer – mere

🧠 Exercise B

[aɪ]

mile – pile – kite

site – side – ride

height – light – fight
 might – right – tight
 pike – hike – hide

🧠 Exercise C

[au]

now – how – brown
 out – now – house
 louse – mouse – cows
 out – loud – without

Звуки [θ], [ð]

Согласный звук [θ]. В русском языке подобного звука нет. Звук [θ] – глухой. При его произнесении язык распластан и ненапряжен, кончик языка образует узкую плоскую щель, неплотно прижимаясь к нему. В эту щель с силой проходит струя воздуха. Кончик языка не должен сильно выступать за верхние зубы или слишком плотно прижиматься к губам. Зубы должны быть обнажены, особенно нижние, чтобы нижняя губа не касалась верхних зубов и не приближалась к ним.

Согласный звук [ð]. При произнесении звука [ð] органы речи занимают такое же положение, как и при произнесении звука [θ]. Звук [ð] отличается от звука [θ] только звонкостью, то есть произносится с голосом.

🧠 Exercise A

[θ], [ð]

through – fifth – myth
 thief – tooth – thunder
 thank – think – thought
 theatre – theory – theft

 Exercise B

[θ], [ð]

thermometer – thick – thin

thirst – thirty – thorough

threat – three – booth

threw – throat – thumb

faith – hearth – path

bath – booth – broth

this – that – those

there – though – these

them – they – the

Звуки [w], [ŋ]

Согласный звук [w]. При произнесении губы округлены и значительно выдвинуты вперед, а задняя часть языка занимает примерно такое же положение, как при произнесении русского у. Струя выдыхаемого воздуха с силой проходит через образованную между губами круглую щель. Губы энергично раздвигаются.

Согласный звук [ŋ]. При произнесении согласного задняя спинка языка смыкается с опущенным мягким нёбом, и воздух проходит через носовую полость. Для того, чтобы добиться нужного положения органов речи, можно сделать вдох через нос с широко открытым ртом, затем следить за тем, чтобы ни кончик языка, ни его передняя и средняя часть не касались нёба.

 Exercise A

[w]

what – why – where

whip – wheat – while

war – wharf – water

wedding – wage – wait

waitress – waist – waste

weather – woman – wind
 wall – wallet – walk
 walnut – waltz – won

Exercise B

[ŋ]
 wing – king – being
 sing – nothing – something
 nothing – anything – ring

Согласный звук [h].

Этого звука в русском языке нет. В английском языке он встречается только перед гласным и на слух представляет собой легкий, едва слышный выдох. В отличие от русского звука **х** английский звук [h] образуется без всякого участия языка, поэтому необходимо следить за тем, чтобы задняя спинка языка не поднималась близко к мягкому нёбу.

Exercise A

[h]
 hit – heat – head
 hall – hollow – hammer
 hand – happy – hard
 hope – heap – hat
 heal – heel – heal
 health – height – hear
 hood – his – ham
 her – here – hate

Звуки [dr], [br], [gr], [tr], [fr], [θr]

Эти сочетания согласных произносятся слитно, без деления на отдельные звуки.

🗨️ Exercise A

[dr]

draw – drum – draft
drink – drank – drunk
drain – dragon – drama
drift – dreadful – drugs
Dresden – dress – dry
drill – drop – drag
drive – drove – driven

🗨️ Exercise B

[br]

brown – bread – bracelet
brain – brakes – bran
brunch – branch – brave
Brazil – breach – breast
breadth – broth – breathe

🗨️ Exercise C

[tr]

treasure – trainer – trench
track – trade – traffic
troops – trend – trail
translate – transmit – trance

🗨️ Exercise D

[fr], [θr]

France – French – fruit
fry – frame – free
three – thread – throat
threat – through – thriller
thrifty – throne – threaten

English alphabet
(Английский алфавит)

БУКВА	НАЗВАНИЕ	БУКВА	НАЗВАНИЕ
A a	[eɪ]	N n	[en]
B b	[bi:]	O o	[ou]
C c	[si:]	P p	[pi:]
D d	[di:]	Q q	[kju:]
E e	[i:]	R r	[ɑ:]
F f	[ef]	S s	[es]
G g	[dʒi:]	T t	[ti:]
H h	[eɪtʃ]	U u	[ju:]
I i	[aɪ]	V v	[vi:]
J j	[dʒeɪ]	W w	[ˈdʌblju:]
K k	[keɪ]	X x	[eks]
L l	[el]	Y y	[waɪ]
M m	[em]	Z z	[zed]

PART 2

REVISION COURSE

LESSON 1



Text 1

LET ME INTRODUCE MYSELF

Hello, friends. Let me first **introduce** myself. My name is Vera. My surname or last name is Voronina. I was born on the 13th of October in Sochi, Krasnodarsky Krai. This is the most beautiful city in Russia situated on the **Black Sea coast**. Now I am a first-year **student** at the Faculty of Economics of Rostov State University.

Now let me describe my **appearance**. I am tall and slim and have fair hair and blue eyes. My friends say that I am pretty. I love sports and music. I was very serious about a career in **gymnastics** when I was in the 4th form. But then I **broke my arm** and doctors didn't let me to go in for gymnastics. I love to listen to the modern music and dance. I dance a lot and I hope I am good at it. I also love swimming. I always swim in the Black sea when I visit my parents.

I would like to tell you about my family. There are five people in our family. My father's name is Mi-hail Evgenyevich. He is a **mathematician** by education but works at a bank now. My mother's name is Natalya Yakovlevna. She works as a **chief accountant** at the hotel «Zhemchuzhina». She also has much work about the house after she gets home from work. But my sister and I always

help her. Yes, let me introduce my younger sister. She is still a pupil. Her name is Tanya and she is in the fifth form. She is very pretty and a great dancer. We are good friends with my sister. My grandmother, my mother's mother, lives with us. She is very kind and helps us a lot.

Our family is very friendly, we have many friends. In summer many relatives come to visit us. And of course they use a chance to spend **several** weeks in beautiful Sochi.

In May I have finished school No5 in Sochi. I did well in all the subjects but my favourite subjects at school were Computer Science and English. I also enjoyed Geography lessons.

I am very interested in learning English because I always wanted to become an economist or a manager at some **joint venture**. That is why I think it is necessary to know at least one foreign language. Besides, knowledge of foreign languages helps in everyday life.

As you see, my biography isn't very long yet. But we'll meet again in the next lesson and I'll tell you more about myself. See you later...

VOCABULARY:

introduce [,intrə'dju:s] – представлять, знакомить	broke my arm – сломала руку
Black Sea coast [koust] – побережье Черного моря	mathematician [,mæθimə'tɪʃən] – математик
a first-year student – студент(-ка) первого курса	chief accountant – [tʃi:f ə'kauntənt] главный бухгалтер
appearance [ə'piərəns] – внешность	several [sevərəl] – несколько
slim – стройная	to do well – зд. успевать
gymnastics [dʒɪm'næstiks] – гимнастика	joint venture – совместное предприятие
kind – добрый	

ADD TO YOUR ACTIVE VOCABULARY
(Пополни свой активный словарь):


tall [tɔ:l] – высокий	stupid ['stju:pɪd] – тупой, глупый
short [ʃɔ:t] – маленького роста	boring – скучный
stout [staut] – приземистый, коренастый	fun to be with – веселый человек
slim – стройный	easy to go along – легкий в общении
fat [fæt] – толстый	quiet ['kwaɪət] – спокойный
plump [plʌmp] – полный	impulsive [ɪm'pʌlsɪv] – порывистый, импульсивный
fair hair [fɛə' hɛə] – светлые волосы	aggressive [ə'grɛsɪv] – агрессивный
blonde [blɒnd] – блондин(ка)	rude [ru:d] – невежливый, грубый
brunette [bru:'net] – брюнет(ка)	shy [ʃaɪ] – застенчивый
gray hair – седые волосы	active ['æktɪv] – активный
bald headed [bɔ:ld] – лысый	talkative ['tɔ:kətɪv] – разговорчивый
short sighted – близорукость	
smart, clever, bright – умный	





1.1. *Представьте, ответив на следующие вопросы:*

1. What is your name?
2. Where and when were you born?
3. How old are you?
5. Have you got a family?
6. How many people are there in your family?
7. Do you have brothers, sisters, grandparents in your family?
8. Where do you live?
9. Did you study well at school?
10. What school did you finish?

11. Did your teachers help you to choose your future profession?
12. What were your favourite subjects at school?
13. What do you like to read?
14. What sport do you go in for?
15. What are you going to be?
16. Do you still live with your parents?
17. Do you have a many friends?

 1.2. *Напишите рассказ о своем друге (внешность, интересы, характер).*

 1.3. *Опишите внешность какого-либо вашего знакомого, используя активный словарь урока.*

 1.4. *Работа в парах. Спросите соседа по парте о его/ее:*

- family
- hobbies
- friends
- favourite films
- favourite actor
- favourite book
- favourite food
- places he/she visited



ГРАММАТИКА

ОСНОВНЫЕ ПОНЯТИЯ В ГРАММАТИКЕ

Части речи

Все слова, входящие в язык, делятся на разряды, называемые частями речи.

Различаются следующие части речи:

- 1) существительное (noun, *n*);
- 2) прилагательное (adjective, *a*);
- 3) числительное (numeral, *num*);
- 4) местоимение (pronoun, *pron*);
- 5) глагол (verb, *v*);
- 6) наречие (adverb, *adv*);
- 7) предлог (preposition, *prep*);
- 8) союз (conjunction, *cj*);
- 9) междометие (interjection, *interj*).

1. **Существительным** называется часть речи, обозначающая предметы. Предметами в грамматике называют все то, о чем можно спросить: *кто это?* или *что это?*

Например: Кто это? — *a doctor, a man, a girl*
Что это? — *a tree, a house, freedom*

Существительные имеют два артикля: **a (an)** — неопределенный и **the** — определенный.

Существительные имеют два **числа**: единственное — *a boy, a tree* и множественное — *boys, trees*.

Существительные имеют два **падежа**: общий — *my sister* и притяжательный — *my sister's*. Притяжательный падеж, как правило, имеют одушевленные существительные.

2. **Прилагательным** называется часть речи, обозначающая признаки предметов и отвечающие на вопрос: *какой?* Например: *red, interesting, Russian* и т.д.

Прилагательные не изменяются по родам, числам и падежам.

Прилагательные имеют **три степени сравнения**: положительную, сравнительную и превосходную.

3. **Числительным** называется часть речи, обозначающая количество или порядок предметов при

счете. Числительные делятся на количественные и порядковые.

4. **Местоимением** называется часть речи, которая употребляется вместо имени существительного или прилагательного. Имеются также личные, притяжательные, указательные, вопросительные и др. местоимения.

5. **Глаголом** называется часть речи, которая обозначает действие или состояние, представленное в виде действия.

Глаголы в английском языке имеют четыре основные формы:

- 1) инфинитив (неопределенная форма);
- 2) прошедшее время (Past Indefinite);
- 3) причастие прошедшего времени (Past Participle);
- 4) причастие настоящего времени (Present Participle).

С помощью этих форм образуются все сложные временные формы действительного и страдательного залога.

6. **Наречием** называется часть речи, указывающая на признак действия или на различные обстоятельства, при которых протекает действие (*как, где, когда* и т.д.):

Существительное, прилагательное, числительное, местоимение, глагол и наречие являются *самостоятельными* частями речи. Они обозначают предметы, их качества, действия и т.п. и являются членами предложения.

Предлоги и союзы являются *служебными* частями речи. Они показывают различные отношения между членами предложения или предложениями.

Члены предложения

Предложением называется сочетание слов, выражающее законченную мысль.

Слова, входящие в состав предложения и отвечающие на какой-нибудь вопрос, называются **членами предложения**. Члены предложения делятся на главные и второстепенные.

Главные члены предложения: **подлежащее и сказуемое**; второстепенные члены предложения: **дополнение, определение и обстоятельства**.

Подлежащим называется член предложения, обозначающий предмет или лицо, о котором что-либо говорится в предложении. Подлежащее отвечает на вопрос *кто?* или *что?*

Сказуемым называется член предложения, обозначающий то, что говорится о подлежащем. Сказуемое отвечает на вопросы: *что делает подлежащее?*, *что делается с подлежащим?*, *кем или чем является подлежащее?*

Дополнением называется второстепенный член предложения, который обозначает предмет и отвечает на вопросы, соответствующие в русском языке вопросам косвенных падежей как с предлогом, так и без него: *кого?* *чего?*, *что?*, *кому?*, *чему?*, *кем?*, *чем?*, *о ком?*, *о чем?*.

Обстоятельствами называются второстепенные члены предложения, которые обозначают, как или при каких обстоятельствах (*т.е. где, когда, почему, зачем* и т.п.) совершается действие.

Обстоятельства могут обозначать:

- 1) время
- 2) место
- 3) образ действия
- 4) причину
- 5) цель
- 6) степень

МЕСТОИМЕНЕНИЯ (Pronouns)

Местоимения употребляются в предложении вместо имени существительного или имени прилагательного. Местоимение называет людей, предметы или признаки, уже упомянутые ранее.

Например:

Peter gave Kate a book. She took it.

Петя дал Кате книгу. Она взяла ее.

You have a good dictionary. I want to buy such a dictionary.

У вас хороший словарь. Я хочу купить такой словарь.

Личные местоимения

(Personal pronouns) Единственное число		Множественное число	
1 лицо	I (я)	1 лицо	we (мы)
2 лицо	you (ты)	2 лицо	you (вы)
3 лицо	he (он) she (она) it (оно)	3 лицо	they (они)

Примечание: после местоимения *you* глагол-сказуемое всегда стоит во множественном числе: *You are a student.* Ты студент.

Склонение личных местоимений

Личные местоимения в английском имеют два падежа:

- 1) именительный падеж (the nominative case);
- 2) объектный падеж (the objective case), заменяющий собой все падежи русского.

Число	Лицо	Именительный падеж	Объектный падеж
Ед.	1 лицо	I (я)	me (мне, меня)
	2 лицо	you (ты)	you (тебе, тебя)
	3 лицо	he (он) she (она) it (оно)	him (ему, его) her (ей, ее) it (ему) неодуш
Мн.	1 лицо	we (мы)	us (нам, нас)
	2 лицо	you (вы)	you (вам, вас)
	3 лицо	they (они)	them (им, их)

Притяжательные местоимения (Possessive pronouns)

Единственное число

1 лицо **my** (мой, моя, мое, мои)

2 лицо **your** (твой, твоя, твое, твои)

3 лицо **his** (его), **her** (ее), **its** (его)

Множественное число

1 лицо **our** (наш, наша, наше, наши)

2 лицо **your** (ваш, ваша, ваше, ваши)

3 лицо **their** (их)

Притяжательные местоимения имеют две формы: основную и абсолютную.

Основная форма употребляется в тех случаях, когда за притяжательным местоимением стоит существительное.

This is my book and that is your book. Это моя книга, а то твоя книга.

Абсолютная форма притяжательных местоимений употребляется в тех случаях, когда за местоимением не стоит существительное.

This is my book and that is yours. Это моя книга, а то твоя.

It is not mine. Она не моя.

Абсолютные формы притяжательных местоимений

	Единственное число	Множественное число
1 лицо	mine (мой, моя, мое, мои)	ours (наш, наша, наше, наши)
2 лицо	yours (твой, твоя, твое, твой)	yours (ваш, ваша, ваше, ваши)
3 лицо	his (его), hers (ее), its (его)	theirs (их)

Указательные местоимения (Demonstrative pronouns)

Указательные местоимения имеют единственное и множественное число.


Единственное число	Множественное число
this [ðis] (этот, эта, это)	these [ði:z] (эти)
that [ðæt] (тот, та, то)	those [ðouz] (те)

This is my house and that is yours. Это мой дом, а то – твой.

These are my books. Take those books. Эти книги мои. Возьми те книги.


Указательное местоимение **such** имеет одну неизменяемую форму.

I like such books. Мне нравятся такие книги.


 1.5. Переведите на английский язык:

1. Та книга не моя. 2. Эта книга – моя. 3. Это моя книга, а то – его. 4. Эти – ее карандаши, а те – мои. 5. Возьми те карандаши. Они новые. 6. Я люблю такие


ручки, они хорошие. 7. Ваша ручка плохая, возьмите мою.

 **1.6.** *Замените выделенные слова личными местоимениями.*

1. Peter helped the pupils to translate the text.
2. Mother asked Mary to wash the plates. 3. My friend writes a letter to his sister. 4. Jane took 3 books from the library. 5. His cousins live in Moscow. 6. Grandfather and grandmother will come tomorrow. 7. Mary works in a shop.

 **1.7.** *Напишите предложения во множественном числе.*

1. This is my pen and that is your pencil.
2. This is our office and that is yours.
3. This is his desk and that is hers.
4. This is my book and that is theirs.
5. This is my letter and that is his.
6. Is this is my book?
7. Is that house yours? That house is mine.

 **1.8.** *Выберите правильные притяжательные местоимения:*

1. Is this (your / yours) book?
2. It's (their / theirs) door, not (our / ours).
3. They're new pupils and I don't know (their / theirs) names.
4. (My / Mine) flat is bigger than (her / hers), but (her / hers) is nicer.
5. That's not (my / mine) book. (My / Mine) is new.

6. They took (our / ours) books and we took (their / theirs).
7. Are these pencils (her / hers)?
8. Is this (your / yours) house or (their / theirs)?

Вопросительные местоимения и вопросительные слова

Эти местоимения употребляются для построения вопросительного предложения.

What (что, какой, какая, какое, какие)

What is it? Что это такое? *What book is it?* Какая это книга?

Who (кто)

Who is this man? Кто этот человек?

Whose (чей)

Whose pencil is it? Чей это карандаш?

Which (который)

Which of these books is yours? Которая из этих книг твоя?

When (когда)

When does the lesson begin? Когда начинается урок?

Why (почему, зачем)

Why did you come here? Почему вы пришли сюда?

How (как)

How are you? Как поживаете?

How many (much) (сколько)

Вопросительное местоимение **what** относится к словам, обозначающим вещи, предметы, явления.

Вопросительное местоимение **who** относится к словам, обозначающим людей.

Однако, обратите внимание:

Who is he? Кто он? (как его зовут) *He is Mr. Johnson.*

What is he? Кто он? (по профессии) *He is an economist.*

Местоимение *who* имеет два падежа:

1. Именительный падеж **who**
2. Объектный падеж **whom** (кому, кого).

Who is here? Кто здесь?

Whom do you see there? Кого ты там видишь?

Whom did you give my book? Кому ты дал мою книгу?

1.9. Переведите на английский язык:

1. Чье это письмо? – Это наше письмо.
2. Чей это компьютер? – Это ее.
3. Кто этот человек? – Этот человек наш профессор.
4. Какие это книги? – Это хорошие книги.
5. Которые из этих книг наши? – Они все ваши.
6. Кто м-р Джонсон? – Он менеджер большой фирмы.
7. Кого вы встречаете сегодня? – Мы встречаем иностранную делегацию.
8. Которая из этих ручек твоя? – Эта моя.
9. Почему вы пришли рано? – У меня много работы.
10. Когда вы идете на работу? – Я иду на работу в понедельник.

Возвратные местоимения

Возвратные местоимения употребляются в предложении для того, чтобы сказать, что предмет, названный подлежащим предложения,

(а) сам совершает действие, или

(б) сам совершает действие и испытывает его на себе.

Как правило, они переводятся глаголом с частицей **-сь (-ся)**, которая присоединяется к глаголам.

Например:

Do it yourself.

Сделайте это **сами**.


Do not cut yourself!

Не порежьтесь!


В английском языке возвратные местоимения образуются от личных:

I – myself	we – ourselves
you – yourself	you – yourselves
he – himself	they – themselves
she – herself	
it – itself	


Возвратное местоимение **oneself** образуется от неопределенного местоимения **one + self**.

 **1.10.** *Употребите нужное возвратное местоимение:*

1. I shall ask him 2. They want to do it 3. She washed 4. You will answer the letter 5. I looked at ... in the mirror. 6. We shall tell her 7. They have done the task 8. She doesn't like to speak about 9. The story ... is very good, but not the translation. 10. Children, do it

 **1.11.** *Переведите на английский язык:*

1. Утром я умываюсь и одеваюсь. 2. Идите домой сами. 3. Читайте книгу сами. 4. Не пораньтесь! (hurt). 5. Они ходят в школу сами. 6. Причешитесь! (comb).

 **1.12.** *Выберите нужное местоимение:*

- I invited my friends to ... place.
a) me b) his c) my d) mine
- It's easy, you can do it
a) you b) your c) yours d) yourself

СПРЯЖЕНИЕ ГЛАГОЛА *to be*

Число	Утвердительная форма	Вопросительная форма	Отрицательная форма
Настоящее время (Present Indefinite)			
Ед. ч	I am.	Am I?	I am not.
	You are. He (she, it) is.	Are you? Is he (she, it)?	You are not. He (she, it) is not.
Мн. ч	We (you, they) are.	Are we (you, they)?	We (you, they) are not.
Прошедшее время (Past Indefinite)			
Ед. ч	I (he, she, it) was.	Was I (he, she, it)?	I (he, she, it) was not.
	You were.	Were you?	You were not.
Мн. ч	We (you, they) were.	Were we (you, they)?	We (you, they) were not.
Будущее время (Future Indefinite)			
Ед. ч	I shall be.	Shall I be?	I shall not be.
	You (he, she, it) will be.	Will you (he, she, it) be?	You (he, she, it) will not be.
Мн. ч	We shall be. You (they) will be.	Shall we be? Will you (they) be?	We shall not be. You (they) will not be.

ГЛАГОЛ *to have*


Глагол <i>to have</i> (иметь)		
утверждение	отрицание	вопрос
I have	I have no .	have I?
he has	he has no	has he?
she has	she has no ..	has she?
it has	it has no .	has it?
we have	we have no...	have we?
you have	you have no. .	have you?
they have	they have no..	have they?

Глагол **to have** означает «иметь», «обладать» и переводится на русский язык «у меня (тебя и т. д.) есть».

Вопросительная форма образуется постановкой глагола-сказуемого перед подлежащим.


В отрицательных предложениях ставится отрицательное местоимение **no**: *I have no watch. He has no books.*

В кратких отрицательных ответах после глагола следует отрицание **not**: *I have not* или (в разговорной речи) *I haven't, he has not* или *he hasn't*.

 **1.13.** Выберите правильную форму глагола *to have*:


Mr. Johnson stayed at his office till late at night because he ... a lot of work.

- a) has b) have c) will have d) had


 **1.14.** Вставьте глагол *to have* в нужной форме:

- a) We ... an examination tomorrow.
 b) We ... not much time to prepare for the examination.
 c) He ... many friends.
 d) I hope you ... a good time at the party yesterday.

Запомните: **this is – these are**
that is – those are
there is – there are
it is – they are

 **1.15.** *Вставьте нужную форму глагола to be и переведите предложения.*

1. He ... born in 1985. 2. We ... students now. 3. We ... good friends in our group. 4. It ... an interesting book. 5. Who ... absent today? 6. He ... a student. 7. What ... he? 8. ... he a doctor? 9. These ... my pencils. 10. Where ... this book? It ... on the table. 11. What ... their names? 12. Mary ... a girl. 13. Who ... he? 14. What ... you? 15. This man ... in the room. 16. How ... she? 17. How ... you? I ... fine. 18. How ... your friend? 19. ... he your son? 20. Tomorrow we ... at home. 21. ... you a sportsman? 22. There ... no book on the table. 23. It ... my parents' car. 24. There ... 25 students in our group now.

 **1.16.** *Выберите правильную форму глагола to be:*

- 1) He ... a student of the first course.
a) is b) are c) am d) were
- 2) He ... an economist in five years.
a) is b) was c) will be d) were

НЕОПРЕДЕЛЕННЫЙ И ОПРЕДЕЛЕННЫЙ Артикли

Неопределенный артикль **a (an)** происходит от числительного **one** (один), определенный – от указательного местоимения **that** (тот).

Артикль употребляется: перед каждым нарицательным существительным.

Артикль не употребляется если перед существительным стоит:

- указательное или притяжательное местоимение,
- другое существительное в притяжательном падеже,
- количественное числительное,
- отрицание *no*.

Например: This is my book. I have no book. It's teacher's book.

Упомянув предмет впервые, мы употребляем перед ним неопределенный артикль **a(an)**. Упомянув этот же предмет вторично, мы ставим перед ним определенный артикль **the**. *Например: This is a book. The book is interesting.*

Неопределенный артикль a (an)

Употребляется перед *единичным, отдельным* предметом, который мы не выделяем из класса ему подобных. Неопределенный артикль **an** обычно стоит перед существительным, которое начинается с гласного звука: *an apple, an egg*.

Например: I bought a book yesterday. Я купил вчера книгу (одну из многих ей подобных). *I have an apple.* У меня есть яблоко (одно, какое-то).

Неопределенный артикль a (an) может употребляться только с исчисляемыми существительными, стоящими в единственном числе. Перед неисчисляемыми существительными или существительными во множественном числе неопределенный артикль опускается.

Неопределенный артикль a/an не употребляется:

а) с неисчисляемыми и «абстрактными» существительными:

I like coffee and tea. Friendship is very important in our life.

б) с существительными во множественном числе:

Children like lollypops (chupa-chups).

в) с именами собственными:

Jane is a student of the first course.

г) с существительными, перед которыми стоят притяжательные или указательные местоимения:

This car is better than that. That house is old.

д) с существительными, за которыми следует количественное числительное, обозначающее номер:

I have read page eight already.

Неопределенный артикль *a* необходим в конструкциях:

I have a... This is a... What a fine day!

I see a... There is a... He is a...

I am a... He is such a good boy!

Определенный артикль *the*

Определенный артикль *the* выделяет предмет или предметы из класса им подобных:

The book I bought yesterday was interesting. — Книга, которую я купил вчера, была интересной (это — конкретная книга, которую говорящий выделяет из класса ей подобных).

Определенный артикль *the* употребляется как с исчисляемыми, так и с неисчисляемыми существительными, как с единственным, так и с множественным числом.

Например:

This is a book. The book is interesting (исчисляемое в единственном числе).

This is meat. The meat is fresh. (неисчисляемое)

These are books. The books are good. (множественное число).

Определенный артикль употребляется:

а) когда известно (из контекста, из обстановки) о каком предмете (предметах, явлениях) идет речь: *Open the door, please. I am going to the University.*

б) когда речь идет о единственном в своем роде предмете или явлении: *The Moon is shining brightly. The Sun is a star.*

в) когда существительное имеет ограничивающее определение, чаще всего с предлогом *of*.

I don't know the name of this student.

г) в словосочетаниях типа *in the north, to the west, at the cinema, the same, in the country, the rest of the ...*

д) если перед существительным стоит прилагательное в превосходной степени

This is the most interesting book.

Географические названия и артикль


С географическими названиями и с именами собственными, артикль, как правило, не употребляется, кроме следующих случаев:

а) с названиями морей, рек, океанов, горных хребтов, групп островов используется определенный артикль: *the Pacific Ocean, the Black Sea, the Thames, the British Isles;*


б) определенный артикль используется с несколькими названиями стран, областей и городов, (хотя обычно с этими типами названий артикль не используется): *the Ukraine, the Crimea, the Caucasus, the Netherlands, the Hague, the Riviera, the Congo, the West Indies;*

в) определенный артикль используется с названиями стран типа: *the Russian Federation, the United States of America, the United Kingdom;*


г) перед собирательным именем семьи *The Petrovs* — Петровы.

 **1.17.** Вставьте артикль где он необходим:

1. This ... pencil is broken. Give me that ... pencil, please. 2. I have ten programs on my computer. My favourite is ... Microsoft Word. 3. My friend has ... car. ... car is broken now. My ... friend has no ... motorcycle. 4. Our flat ... is large. 5. I received a ... letter from my friend yesterday. ... letter was very long. 6. She has two ... daughters and one ... son. Her ... son is ... lawyer. 7. My ... brother's ... friend has no ... dog. 8. This is ... house. ... tree is green. 9. They have ... party. ... party is ... a birthday party.. 10. I read a book on marketing yesterday. ... book was interesting and useful.

 **1.18.** Используйте артикли где необходимо:

1. Yesterday I saw ... new film, but ... film wasn't very interesting. 2. ... Washington is situated on ... Potomac River, and ... London is situated on ... Thames. 3. Yuri Gagarin was ... first man to fly over ... Earth in ... spaceship. 4. My younger sister will go to school ... next year. 5. In ... summer we went to ... Black Sea coast. 6. ... New York is one of ... biggest business centers in ... world. 7. Lomonosov was ... great Russian scientist. He was born in ... small village on ... shore of ... White Sea. 8. My mother is ... accountant. I don't want to be ... accountant. I want to be ... manager. 9. Is your dress made of ... silk or ... cotton? 10. ... Peter's brother is ... student. He will be ... economist soon. 11. One of my neighbours is ... student of ... faculty of Philosophy. Philosophy is ... very difficult discipline.

 1.19. Используйте артикли где необходимо:

1. ... Germany is ... most developed country in Europe.
2. ... History and ... Computer Science were ... my favourite subjects at ... school.
3. I don't know ... nearest way to ... bank.
4. ... Economics is one of ... most difficult disciplines at ... University.
5. Usually I get up at ... 7 o'clock in ... morning.
6. ... Rostov is situated on ... Don.
7. Will you have ... cup of ... tea?
8. Warsaw is ... capital of ... Poland.
9. I shall go to ... cinema with my ... girlfriend.
10. This is ... book, ... book is very interesting.
11. Do you see ... sun in ... sky today?

МНОЖЕСТВЕННОЕ ЧИСЛО СУЩЕСТВИТЕЛЬНЫХ

Множественное число существительных, кроме тех, основа которых оканчивается на **-ch, -s, -ss, -sh, -x**, а также существительных, имеющих окончание **-o**, образуется путем прибавления к основе окончания **-s**:

a boy – boys

a book – books

a pen – pens

a girl – girls

Множественное число существительных, основа которых оканчивается на **-ch, -s, -ss, -sh, -x**, а также имеющих окончание **-o**, образуется путем прибавления окончания **-es**:

a bench скамейка – benches

a bus автобус – buses

a glass стакан – glasses

a box коробка – boxes

a potato картошка – potatoes

Существительные, оканчивающиеся на **-y** (после согласной) во множественном числе имеют окончание **-ies**:

a baby младенец — *babies*

a fly муха — *flies*

a lady леди — *ladies*

Существительные, оканчивающиеся на -у (после гласной) во множественном числе имеют окончание -s:

a boy — *boys*

a toy — *toys*

Если слово оканчивается на **f** (-fe), то во множественном числе **f** меняется на **v** и добавляется **-(es)**

a life жизнь — *lives*

a knife нож — *knives*

a shelf полка — *shelves*

a wife жена — *wives*

(исключение: *roof* крыша — *roofs*).

Как читаются окончания существительных во множественном числе?

-s читается как [s] после глухих согласных: *books*, *cats*

-s читается как [z] после звонких согласных и гласных: *pens*, *boys*

-es читается как [iz] после s, ss, sh, ch, x, z: *boxes*,
у после согласных переходит в i+es: *city* — *cities*, *lady*
— *ladies*

Ряд существительных образует множественное число не по общим правилам:

а) изменяется корневая гласная:

a man мужчина — *men* мужчины

a woman женщина — *women* женщины

a foot нога — *feet* ноги

a tooth зуб — *teeth* зубы

a goose гусь — *geese* гуси

a mouse мышь — *mice* мыши

б) добавляется окончание **-en**:

an ox бык — *oxen* быки

a child ребенок — *children* дети

в) заимствуются формы единственного и множественного числа из латинского и греческого языков:

a formula – *formulae* (*formulas*)

a crisis – *crises*

a criterion – *criteria*

an index – *indices*

a bacterium – *bacteria*

В английском языке есть существительные, которые имеют одну (общую) форму для единственного и множественного числа:

a deer олень – *deer* олени

a sheep овца – *sheep* овцы

a fish рыба – *fish* рыбы

a swine свинья – *swine* свиньи

Некоторые существительные могут употребляться в форме только единственного либо множественного числа.

Употребляются только в единственном числе

money — деньги

sugar — сахар

hair — волосы

business — дело

information — информация, сведения

fruit — фрукты

progress — прогресс, успехи

news — новость, новости

peace — мир

love — любовь

knowledge — знание, знания

advice — советы

furniture — мебель


luggage — багаж

**Только во множественном числе
употребляются слова:**

clothes — одежда
goods — товары
riches — богатства
thanks — благодарности
manners — манеры
money — деньги

**Только во множественном числе употребляются
названия предметов,
состоящих из двух и более частей:**


trousers — брюки
glasses — очки
scissors — ножницы
shorts — шорты
pliers — плоскогубцы

 **1.21.** (A) Выберите правильный вариант, обращая внимание на исчисляемые и неисчисляемые существительные.


1. I'm going to buy new sunglass / sunglasses.
2. He's going to buy some new trouser / trousers.
3. They are going to buy some new furniture / furnitures.
4. His hair / hairs is fair.
5. He's got much information / informations about this firm.
6. They gave us some advice / advices.

(B) Перепишите исчисляемые и неисчисляемые существительные в 2 столбика и переведите их.


Time, water, machine, music, snow, word, coffee, money, idea, family, knowledge, sea, hour, tree, silver, meat, happiness, information, speed. book, news, house, friend, milk, student, pen, paper, clothes, picture, air.

 **1.22.** *Напишите следующие существительные во множественном числе.*


Box, sheep, place, library, photo, mouse, lady, glasses, bush, dress, country, bus, party, wife, day, knife, knowledge, month, pen, hero, goose, company, life, deer, tomato, city, man, play, news, child, fruit, shelf, leaf, foot, fish, woman, money, information.

 **1.23.** *Поставьте следующие существительные во множественное число (обратите внимание на артикли: неопределенный артикль во множественном числе опускается, определенный артикль сохраняется).*

The star, a mountain, a tree, a waiter, the queen, a man, the woman, an eye, a shelf, a box, the city, the boy, a goose, a watch, a mouse, a dress, a toy, a sheep, a tooth, a child, an ox, a deer, the life, a tomato.

 **1.24.** *Поставьте следующие словосочетания во множественное число (обратите внимание на изменения в указательных местоимениях).*

This man, that match, this tea-cup, this egg, that wall, that picture, this foot, that mountain, this lady, that window, this knife.

 **1.25.** *Поставьте существительные в следующих предложениях во множественное число (обратите внимание на изменения в указательных и притяжательных местоимениях и формах глаголов to be и to have).*


1. This is my computer. 2. He has a new suit. 3. This metal is very hard. 4. A new house is in our street. 5. This story is very interesting. 6. A man, a woman, a boy and a girl are the room. 7. Put this book on that table. 8.

What is your name? 9. This town is very large. 10. This man works at our office. 11. He has a new suit. 12. The plate was on the table. 13. I heard her voice. 14. Is that girl your sister? 15. I'll give you my book. 16. This story is good. 17. Is this a good match? 18. The student put his book on the desk. 19. That house is new. 20. Is this a good student? 21. The pupil put his book into the bag. 22. Is she coming with us, too? 23. The woman didn't say anything. 24. Does she speak English?

ТРАНСЛИТЕРАЦИЯ

Транслитерация — это передача букв одного языка буквами и буквосочетаниями другого языка. Русские имена пишутся по-английски путем транслитерации, т.е. передачи их буквами и буквосочетаниями английского языка. Ниже приводятся соответствия русских звуков и английских букв:

Русские звуки	Английские буквы	
е, ё	е, уо	Klenov, Klyonov
ж -	zh	Zhilin
з	z или s	Kozlov, Kuz'min
и	i	Silin
й	ei, ai или iy	Leikin, Maikov, Vyazemskiy
х	kh или h	Khokhlov
ц	ts	Tsiolkovsky
ч	ch, tch	Chernov, Tchaikovsky
ш	sh	Shishkin
щ	sch	Schepkin
ы	y	Krylov
ь	'	Mal'kov, Igor'
ю	iu или yu	Yudin
я	ia или ya	Petrosian, Yakovlev

-  1.26. Напишите по-английски свое имя и имена членов вашей семьи.

ИНТЕРНАЦИОНАЛИЗМЫ

В английском языке, как и в других языках, есть довольно большое количество слов, которые имеют, в основном, латинские и греческие корни и понятны без перевода.

Например: radio, telephone, computer и т.д.

Такие слова называются интернационализмами. Они часто используются как термины, т.е. слова, обозначающие определенные понятия в науке, технике, искусстве. Сами названия наук также являются интернационализмами.

Например: Physics, Mathematics, Biology и т.д. Знание интернационализмов облегчает чтение, понимание и перевод текстов. Однако не все интернационализмы имеют одинаковое значение в английском и в русском языках.


Например:

cabinet шкафчик, корпус прибора (и кабинет)

accurate точный


fabric ткань

mixture смесь (мед. микстура) и т.д.

-  1.27. Найдите русские эквиваленты интернационализмов:

- | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. profession [prə'feɪn] | a. медицина |
| 2. medicine ['medsɪn] | b. любимое занятие |
| 3. hobby ['hɒbi] | c. ветеран |
| 4. guitar [gɪ'tɑ:] | d. героизм |
| 5. veteran ['vetərən] | e. медицинский |
| 6. patriotic [ˌpætri'ɒtɪk] | f. инженер |
| 7. heroism ['herəʊɪzəm] | g. технический |

8. pensioner [ˈpenʃənə]	h. лига, союз
9. medical [ˈmedɪkl]	i. больница
10. engineer [ˌendʒɪˈniə]	j. радио
11. student [ˈstjuːdənt]	k. техник
12. technician [tekˈnɪʃn]	l. результат
13. technical [ˈteknɪkl]	m. кухня
14. league [li:g]	n. патриотический
15. radio [ˈreɪdiəʊ]	o. пенсионер
16. result [rɪˈzʌlt]	p. студент
17. cousin [ˈkʌzn]	q. профессия
18. hospital [ˈhɒspɪtl]	r. гитара

 **1.28.** Прочитайте следующие слова, пользуясь знаками транскрипции, и найдите их русские эквиваленты:

music [ˈmjuːzɪk]

sport [spɔ:t]

Academy [əˈkædəmɪ]

economist [ɪˈkɒnəməst]

profession [ˌendʒɪˈniə]

cafe [ˈkæfeɪ]

coffee [ˈkɒfi]

visit [ˈvɪzɪt]


comedy [ˈkɒmədɪ]

park [ˈpɑ:k]

sphere [ˈsfɪə]

experiment [ɪksˈperɪmənt]

diploma [dɪˈpləʊmə]

 **1.29.** Найдите в каждом ряду слово, не подходящее по смыслу.

1. driver, doctor, teacher, corner, engineer


2. train, car, river, tram, bus

3. week, year, yesterday, month, day

4. man, woman, girl, postman, boy
5. student, professor, lecture, hospital, examination
6. wide green, brown, white, black
7. February, November, March, Monday, July
8. winter, summer, year, autumn, spring
9. body, arm, leg, head, hand
10. hand, head, leg, arm, foot, shoe
11. Tuesday, Thursday, Wednesday, August, Sunday
12. Moscow, Tver', Paris, Samara, Novosibirsk

ПРИТЯЖАТЕЛЬНЫЙ ПАДЕЖ СУЩЕСТВИТЕЛЬНЫХ (Possessive Case of Nouns)


Examples: The child's toys – The children's toys
The boy's books – The boys' books

 **1.30.** *Перепишите предложения, используя притяжательный падеж существительных:*

Example:

The poems of Lermontov. (Lermontov's poems).

1. The books of my friends. 2. The teacher of my brother. 3. The wife of my brother. 4. The table of our teacher. 5. The life of businessmen. 6. The voice of this girl. 7. The new tool of the workers. 8. The letter of the President. 9. The car of my parents. 10. The room of my friend. 11. The handbags of these women. 12. The flat of my sister is large. 13. The children of my brother are at home. 14. The room of the boys is large.

 **1.31.** *Переведите на английский.*

1. Это семья моего друга. Отец моего друга – инженер. Мать моего друга – учитель. 2. Она взяла книги

своего брата. 3. Покажите мне его сестру. 4. Вы видели книгу нашего преподавателя английского языка? 5. Вчера дети моего брата ходили в кино. 6. Он показал мне письмо своей сестры. 7. Чья это сумка? — Это сумка Петра. 8. Чьи это словари? — Это словари студентов. 9. Прочтите книгу вашего преподавателя.

LESSON 2

Text 1

MY WORKING DAY

Hi again... As you already know, I am a first-year student of the Faculty of Economics of the State University. My parents live in Sochi and I study in Rostov-on-Don so I need some **housing**. There are two **opportunities** for me: I can live in a **dormitory** (a students **hostel**), or **to rent a flat** (an **apartment**).

I decided to rent a room. To make the rent smaller, I also decided to **share** my room with another girl – Olya Alyokhina. She studies at the University, too, and she is my best friend now.

Now, let me describe my usual working day. My classes begin at 8:30. So on **week-days** I have to **get up** at 7:15. I don't have an **alarm clock** and **usually** my **roommate** wakes me up and my working day begins. I turn on the radio and do my morning exercises while Olya takes a shower. I don't take a bath in the morning because I don't have enough time for it. I take a cool shower (that's when I **completely** wake up), brush my teeth. After that I **go back** to our room and **get dressed**. I brush my hair and put on a light **make-up**. Then we have breakfast. Olya makes breakfast every Monday, Wednesday and Friday. I have to **serve** breakfast on Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays. I love to listen to the latest news on the radio while I am eating and Olya prefers light music.

We leave the house around eight and walk to the nearest bus stop. We live **rather** close to the University and it usually takes us about ten-fifteen minutes to get there by bus. Sometimes when the weather is fine and we have **enough** time we walk to the University. It is very **healthy** to walk much.

Our classes begin at 8.30 in the morning and they end at 6:00 p.m. We have lectures in different subjects. As a rule we have three or four classes a day. Sometimes it is very hard to wait till they end.

Usually I don't **miss** my classes because I want to pass my exams **successfully**. But sometimes I do, especially when the weather is fine and the classes are **boring**.

At one o'clock we have a big break. It lasts for half an hour. That's my favourite time. That is the time to share the latest news and **to gossip**. My friends and I prefer not to go to the canteen and we often have lunch in a small cafe not too far from the University. At one thirty we **have to be back** to our classes. During the working day we also have several short **breaks** that last for fifteen minutes.

Occasionally I have to stay at the University till 6 or even 7 o'clock in the evening because I go to the library to get ready for my practical classes or to write a **report**. As a rule I have no free time on week-days. So by the end of the week I get very **tired**.

When we come home in the evening, we have supper together and share the news.

After supper we wash dishes, drink coffee or tee and watch TV. I prefer old comedies and Olya likes soap-operas or films about travelling. Sometimes Olya and I go for a walk in the park or visit our friends.

At about eleven at night I go to bed. I like to read something before going to bed and Olya likes to listen to some music. Sometimes I fall asleep while I am reading

and Olya gets up and switches off the light and says
Good night!


VOCABULARY:

housing – жилье	to serve [sə:v] – обслужи- вать
opportunity – возможность	while [waɪl] – пока, в то время как
dormitory, students hostel – студенческое общежитие	to prefer [prɪ'fə:] предпочи- тать
to rent a flat (an apartment) – снимать квартиру	healthy ['helθɪ] – здоро- вый, полезный
to share – делить(ся)	to miss – пропускать
week-days – будние дни	successfully [sək'sesfəli] – успешно
alarm clock – будильник	boring ['bɔ:ɪŋ] – неинте- ресный, скучный
usually ['ju:zuəli] обычно	to gossip ['gɒsɪp] – бол- тать, беседовать, сплет- ничать
roommate – сосед по комнате	have to be back – должны вернуться
rather ['rɑ:ðə] довольно	break [breɪk] – перерыв
to turn on – включать	report [rɪ'pɔ:t] – доклад
enough [ɪ'nʌf] – достаточно	
completely [kəm'pli:tli] – полностью, совершенно	
to get dressed – одеваться	
make up – макияж	


ADD TO YOUR ACTIVE VOCABULARY:

tape-recorder – магнитофон	чтобы добраться в Уни- верситет на автобусе
to switch on = to turn on – включать (радио и т.п.)	cloakroom – гардероб
to switch off = to turn off – выключать	upstairs [ʌp'steɪz] наверху, вверх по лестнице
to brush one's hair – приче- сывать волосы	downstairs ['daʊn'steɪz] вни- зу, вниз по лестнице
it takes me ... minutes to get to the University by bus – у меня уходит ... минут,	to miss classes – пропускать занятия
	to pass exams – сдать эк- замены

to do well – делать успехи, хорошо учиться	to wait for – ждать
for the first (second) course – на первое (второе) блюдо	to take pleasure in – полу- чать удовольствие от...
to get ready – подготовиться	to look forward to – ждать с нетерпением
as a rule – как правило	acquaintance [ə'kweɪntəns] – знакомый
to get tired – устать	


 **2.1. Напишите одно предложение с каждым словом:**

1. Usual – usually – as usual – unusual
2. occasion – occasional – occasionally
3. to end – to finish – to be over
4. to start – to begin – to get ready for
5. on Sunday – at five o'clock – in cafeteria ...
6. full time student – part time student
7. freshman – second year student – school graduate

 **2.2. Переведите на английский:**

- быть студентом(студенткой) дневного отделения;
- рассказать вам о...
- в будние дни;
- просыпаться – вставать в 7 часов утра;
- включать магнитофон;
- принимать душ;
- чистить зубы,
- одеваться;
- слушать последние новости;
- У меня уходит час, чтобы добраться до института;
- ездить на автобусе (троллейбусе, трамвае);
- опаздывать на занятия;
- заканчиваться в 15.50 вечера
- пропускать занятия
- сдать экзамены успешно
- время от времени;
- подготовиться к занятиям

- как правило;
- устать;
- приходить домой;
- быть дома;
- иметь свободное время

 2.3. *Расскажите о своем типичном рабочем дне, ответив на следующие вопросы:*

1. Do you get up early?
2. Is it easy for you to get up early?
3. Do you wake up yourself or does your alarm clock wake you up?
4. Do you do your morning exercises?
5. What do you prefer: a hot or cold shower in the morning?
6. How long does it take you to get dressed?
7. What do you usually have for breakfast?
8. Some people look through newspapers or listen to the latest news on the radio while having breakfast. What about you?
9. When do you usually leave your house?
10. Do you work? If yes, where?
11. How long does it take you to get to your University (Institute)?
12. Do you go there by bus/trolley-bus or walk?
13. Where do you usually have lunch (dinner)?
14. What time do you come home?
15. How long does it take you to do your homework?
16. How do you usually spend your evenings?
17. Do you have a lot of free time?
18. Do you play any musical instrument?
19. Are you fond of listening to music?
20. What kind of music do you prefer?
21. Do you collect anything (stamps, records, postcards, coins, matchboxes, etc.)?

22. What time do you usually go to bed?

🗨️ 2.4. *Расскажите о:*

- a) the working-day of your father or mother
- b) the usual weekend at home
- c) the best day of your life
- d) a holiday spent with your friends or relatives (New Year's day, Christmas, 8th of March)
- e) the working day of famous people (writers, artists, politicians – the President, Governor, Head of the Ministry)

Text 2

NICK'S USUAL WORKING DAY

Hi, nice to meet you all!

My name is Nick Price. I am a **freshman** at College of Business at Western Carolina University. It is a very small school situated in the mountain region of North Carolina. I am not from North Carolina myself. I was born in Vermilion, Ohio, in the **suburbs** of Cleveland. But my grandpa and grandma live in North Carolina. And I like mountains more than **plains**.

My family is not very rich that is why I can't afford to live on campus. But it is a rule, that every student must spend his or her freshman year on campus. **To cover some of the expenses** I've got to work part-time on the campus. I work in cafeteria.

Now let me tell you about my usual working day. I wake up at seven in the morning. My alarm clock radio is tuned to my favorite radio station. My roommate Todd Hall is a football player. He jogs every morning at 6:30. He is still out jogging when I get up. First I take a cold shower and brush my teeth. Then I dress

myself up and **rush** to work – to the University cafeteria. I wash dishes and clean the tables. It is not a very interesting job, I know that, but soon I'll be a waiter at the small Italian Restaurant and will earn more. My boss Suzie is a very strict lady but very nice when you do your job **properly**.

My first class starts at 11:15. The professor is never late for his classes. The lecture hall we sit in has about 100 seats. WCU (Western Carolina University), like I said, is a very small school. But I think that it is one of the best schools of business in the North Carolina.

At 2 PM I eat lunch at school cafeteria. The food is free for me because I work there. I am a vegetarian and I don't like drinks with caffeine. I prefer cool filtered water or juice.

Then I have two more classes. I need to go to the library right after the classes to do my homework. There I meet my friends and we talk. Twice a week I play basketball with my friends. I swim once a week. Usually after library we **go out** to the cafe or just sit outside and talk.

I have dinner at 6 PM at the little Chinese restaurant not too far from the **dormitory**. Or I cook myself in the kitchen in my dorm. My favorite food is **pizza** and potato salad.

After dinner I watch TV or play ping-pong with my friends. When it is Friday, we go to see the football game.


I spend most of my weekends visiting my grandmother and my grandfather. They are always glad to see me and take me out for picnics and golf.

I usually read before I go to bed. It **calms me down** after the long day. My favourite author is Stephen King. Well, I guess that's enough for one time.

See you later!

VOCABULARY:

freshman – первокурсник	jogging – пробежка
sophomore – второкурсник	cafeteria – студенческая столовая
junior – третьекурсник	waiter – официант
senior – четверокурсник (выпускник)	to work part-time – работать неполный день
suburbs – пригород	to work full-time – работать полный рабочий день
downtown – центр города	properly – должным образом, правильно
plain – равнина	to go out – гулять, отдыхать
cover some of the expenses – чтобы покрыть часть расходов	dormitory (dorm) – общежитие
to jog – бегать трусцой, делать пробежку	to calm down – успокаивать(ся)
to rush – спешить, торопиться	
campus – студенческий городок	

 2.5. Ответьте на вопросы:

1. Where does Nick Price study?
2. What year of study is he in?
3. Is Nick from North Carolina?
4. Is Nick's family a rich one?
5. What is Nick's job? Do you think he enjoys it?
6. What do we know about Western Carolina University from Nick's story?
7. What is Nick's roommate name? What do we know about him?
8. Where does Nick spend his evenings?
9. What does Nick usually do on Friday nights?

FORMS OF ADDRESS

Формы обращения

В англоязычных странах наиболее часто используются обращения:

Mr ['mɪstə] – к мужчине

Mrs ['mɪsɪz] – к замужней женщине

Miss [mɪs] – к незамужней женщине

Эти формы обращения используются когда человека, с которым говорят, не очень хорошо знают.

Эти обращения следует использовать только вместе с фамилией, иначе это звучит невежливо.

Например:

Mr Howard, Mrs Allen, Miss Turner (как правило, с фамилией).

В последнее время в официальном английском языке появилась новая форма обращения к женщине, не подчеркивающая ее семейное положение: *Ms* ['mɪz] – *Ms Jones*.

Обращения **Sir!** [sə:] **Madam!** ['mædəm] или [mæm] используются обычно обслуживающим персоналом:

Другие обращения:

Ladies and Gentlemen! – формальное начало речи при выступлении.

Mr President! – к президенту.

Officer – к полицейскому любого ранга.

Father – к священнику.

Doctor – к врачу.

Dr. Brown – к ученому со степенью доктора философии.

Professor (без фамилии), или **Professor Brown** – к преподавателю университета.

Waiter / Waitress – к официанту / официантке.

Porter – к носильщику.

Nurse – к медсестре, няне.

Иногда вместо конкретного обращения британцы предпочитают говорить «*Excuse me (please)?*» – (Извините).

Эта же фраза (в американском английском «*Pardon*») используется для того, чтобы привлечь внимание незнакомого человека.

С близко знакомыми людьми:

Daddy (Dad) – папа, папочка.

Old man – старик.

My dear – мой(-я) дорогой (-ая).

Darling – дорогой, любимый, голубчик.

Honey (Hon) – дорогая (обращение к жене).

Attracting someone's attention

(Чтобы привлечь чье-то внимание):

Excuse me... [iks'kju:z mi] – Извините... (Простите...)

Pardon me... ['pa:dn mi] – Извините...

I say... [ai sei] – Послушайте...

Look here! [luk 'hiə] – Послушайте! (Минутку!)

Ответ (Reply):

Yes? – Да? (Я вас слушаю.)

Thanks (Благодарности):

Thank you ['θæŋk ju:] **Thanks** [θæŋks] – Спасибо. (Если кто-то сделал для вас что-нибудь не очень значительное).

Thank you very much ['θæŋk ju: veri 'mʌtʃ] **Thanks very much.** – Большое спасибо. (Если кто-то сделал что-нибудь очень важное для вас).

Thank you for doing it. – Спасибо, что вы это сделали.

Thank you for coming. – Спасибо, что вы пришли.

That is (was) very kind of you. – Это очень мило с вашей стороны. Вы очень любезны.

Replies for thanks

(Ответы на благодарности):

You're welcome [ju: a: welkəm] – Пожалуйста. (Не стоит благодарности).

Dont mention it [dount menʃn it] – Не за что. (Не стоит благодарности. Пожалуйста).

Not at all. [nɒt ət ə:l] – Не за что.

No trouble at all. [nɒu trʌbl ət ə:l] – Да что вы, какое это беспокойство.

That was a pleasure. [ðæt wɒz ə plezə] – Мне было приятно (это сделать).

GREETINGS

Приветствия

Форма приветствия зависит от ситуации, в которой находятся говорящие, от их отношений.

В официальных ситуациях (деловые встречи, официальные приемы, конференции) используются такие приветствия, как:

How do you do? [ˈhau du: ju: ˈdu:] Здравствуйте! Ответом будет: *How do you do?*

Good morning. [gud ˈmɔ:nɪŋ] Доброе утро! (до обеда).

Good afternoon. [gud ˈɑ:ftənʊ:n] Добрый день! (до 5 – 6 часов вечера).

Good evening. [gud ˈi:vnɪŋ] Добрый вечер! (до 10–11 часов вечера).

Приветствуя знакомых или близких людей, можно сказать:

Hello. [helou] (Hallo, Hullo) – Привет! (полуофициальное приветствие).

Hallo, everybody. Здравствуйте! (при обращении ко всем присутствующим)

Morning. / Afternoon. / Evening. – Неофициальное приветствие.

Hello. I haven't seen you for ages. – Привет! Я не видел тебя сто лет.

Hi. [haɪ] – Привет! (американский вариант).



– I'm glad to see you. [aɪm 'glæd tu'si: ju:] Рад вас видеть.

– So am I. [sou æm 'aɪ] Я тоже.



– How are you? [haʊ 'ɑ: ju:] Как вы поживаете?

– I am fine, thank you. [aɪ æm 'faɪn 'θæŋk ju:] – Спасибо, прекрасно.



– How are you getting on? ['haʊ ɑ: ju: 'getɪŋ ɒn] Как дела?

– Not so bad, thank you. [nɒt sou 'bæd 'θæŋk ju:] Спасибо, неплохо.



– How is it going? ['haʊ ɪz ɪt 'ɡoʊɪŋ] Как дела?

– So – so. [sou sou] Так себе.

WHEN PARTING

При прощании

Good-bye. [ɡʊd baɪ] – До свидания.

Bye! [baɪ] (или Bye-Bye!) – До свидания (в неформ. обстановке)

See you later. [si: ju: leɪtə] – Еще увидимся. (Я прощаюсь.)

See you soon. [si: ju: su:n] – До скорой встречи.

All the best. (неформ.) – Всего наилучшего!

I must be going. (I must be off.) – Я должен идти.

I really must (have to) go now. – Сейчас я действительно должен идти.

I have an appointment (a date) in a few minutes (in half an hour, in an hour). – У меня назначена встреча (свидание) через несколько минут (через полчаса, через час).

It's (It has) been nice meeting you. – Приятно было познакомиться с Вами (увидеть Вас).

Hope to see you again. – Надеюсь еще с Вами увидеться.

See you later. (неформ.) – До встречи.

See you tomorrow (next year). – До завтра (следующего года).

Give my love to your parents. – Передайте от меня наилучшие пожелания своим родителям.

Please, remember me to your mother. – Пожалуйста, передай от меня привет своей маме.

Thank you for coming. – Спасибо, что пришли.

Thank you for enjoyable evening. – Спасибо за приятный вечер.

I'm sorry to part with you. – Мне жаль расставаться с вами.

So long. (Разг.) – Пока.

Good luck to you! – Желаю удачи!

INTRODUCING PEOPLE

Представление и знакомство

Британцы, в отличие от русских и американцев, редко жмут руку, приветствуя друг друга. Обычно они это делают, когда встречаются с человеком впервые или если человека долго не видели.

Представление обычно происходит следующим образом :

Хозяин: Mr. Brown, let me introduce you to Mr. White
He is an expert in finance.

Host: М-р Браун, позвольте мне представить вас м-ру Уайту. Он специалист по финансам.

Далее Браун и Уайт приветствуют друг друга:

– Mr. Brown: How do you do? – Здравствуйте.

– Mr. White: How do you do? – Здравствуйте.

– Mr. Brown: (Glad) Pleased to meet you. – Рад познакомиться с вами.

– Mr. White: So am I. (разг. Me too.) – Я тоже.

APOLOGIES

Извинения

Sorry. – Извините! (Если вы причинили кому-либо незначительное неудобство).

I'm (I am) terribly sorry. – Я очень сожалею (Если вы действительно сожалеете о чем-либо).

Excuse me. – Извините (перед тем, как побеспокоить кого-л.)

Sorry?/Pardon? (с восходящим тоном и вопросительной интонацией) используется, чтобы попросить кого-либо повторить сказанное, если вы не слышали или не поняли.

ANSWERS TO APOLOGIES

Ответы на извинения

Not at all. – Нисколько !(Совсем нет).

Don't mention it. – Ничего. (Пустяки).


It's all right. It's OK. – Пожалуйста. (Все в порядке).

That's nothing. – Ничего.

Don't worry. – Не беспокойтесь.

Don't bother. – Не беспокойтесь.

Never mind. – Не беда. Не обращайтесь внимания.

 **2.6. Переведите диалоги:**



– Good morning, Mr Brown, I'm so pleased you could come.

– Good morning! It was very kind of you to invite me.



– Good afternoon, Mr Howard!

– Good afternoon, Mr Jones!

– How's life?

– No complaints. Thank you. How are things with you?

– I am doing fine. Thanks.

– Glad to hear it.



– Hello, everybody.

– Hello, Peter.

– Excuse my being late. I was delayed by the traffic.

– Never mind.



– Hi, Nick.

– Hi, Pete! What a pleasant surprise.

– Never expected to meet you here.

– This is a small world.



ГРАММАТИКА

СТЕПЕНИ СРАВНЕНИЯ ПРИЛАГАТЕЛЬНЫХ И НАРЕЧИЙ

Прилагательные обозначают признаки предметов и отвечают на вопрос *какой?*

A wide road. Широкая дорога.

A tall tree. Высокое дерево.

An interesting book. Интересная книга.

Наречия отвечают на вопрос *как?*

He speaks English well. Он говорит по-английски хорошо.

Прилагательные и наречия имеют три формы степеней сравнения:

- положительную (positive degree),
- сравнительную (comparative degree),
- превосходную (superlative degree).

Формы сравнительной и превосходной степеней образуются двумя способами:

Способ 1. Односложные (и некоторые двусложные с окончаниями **-y, -er, -ow**) прилагательные и наречия образуют степени сравнения с помощью суффиксов **-er** и **-est**.

easy легкий

easier более легкий, легче

the easiest самый легкий, легчайший

clever умный

cleverer более умный, умнее

the cleverest самый умный, умнейший

narrow узкий

narrower более узкий, уже

the narrowest самый узкий

Прилагательные и наречия, оканчивающиеся на -у, меняют окончание на **-ier** и **-iest**.

Конечная согласная у односложных прилагательных и наречий удваивается.

Например: happy – happier – the happiest
hot – hotter – the hottest

Способ 2. У прилагательных состоящих из двух, трех или более слогов и наречий, оканчивающиеся на **-ly**, сравнительная степень образуется при помощи слова **more (less)**, а превосходная степень — при помощи слова **most (least)**.

famous знаменитый

more (less) famous более (менее) знаменитый

the most famous самый знаменитый, знаменитейший

interesting интересный

more (less) interesting более (менее) интересный, интереснее

the most interesting самый интересный, интереснейший

easily легко

more (less) easily более (менее) легко

most (least) easily наиболее (наименее) легко

2. Некоторые прилагательные и наречия образуют степени сравнения не по правилам. Запомните эти исключения:

Положительная степень	Сравнительная степень	Превосходная степень
good хороший (прил.)	better лучше better лучше	the best самый хороший best лучше всего
well хорошо (нар.)		

Положительная степень	Сравнительная степень	Превосходная степень
bad плохой	worse хуже	the worst самый плохой
little маленький (прил.) little мало (нар.)	less меньше less меньше	the least наименьший меньше всего
many много much много	more больше more больше	the most больше всего the most больше всего
far далекий (прил.) far далеко (нар.)	farther дальше further дальше	the farthest самый дальний the furthest дальше всего

Существительное, определяемое прилагательным в превосходной степени, всегда имеет определенный артикль: **the largest building**.

В предложениях со степенями сравнения прилагательных и наречий используются следующие союзы и способы выражения сравнения:

as ... as такой же ... , как

not so ... as не такой ... , как

not such (a) ... as не такой ... , как

twice as much as в два раза больше

three times as long as в три раза длиннее, чем

three times as high as в три раза выше, чем

ten times as much as в десять раз больше

half as much/many вдвое меньше

half the size/the weight в два раза меньше по размеру/по весу

half the length в два раза меньше по длине

much better/worse намного лучше/хуже

much more/less гораздо больше/меньше

the ... the чем ... тем

НАИБОЛЕЕ УПОТРЕБИТЕЛЬНЫЕ НАРЕЧИЯ**Наречия места и направления:**

here – здесь, тут.
there – там
inside – внутри
outside – снаружи
down – вниз
back – сзади, назад
away – вдали, вон, прочь
downward – вниз
upward – вверх

Наречия времени:


now – сейчас, теперь
before – до, перед, прежде
ever – когда-либо
never – никогда
always – всегда
often – часто
usually – обычно
seldom – редко
still – все-еще
already – уже
just – только-что, только
yet – еще, уже
sometimes – иногда
today – сегодня
tomorrow – завтра
yesterday – вчера
recently – недавно
lately – в последнее время
commonly – обычно

Наречия образа действия:

slowly – медленно
quickly – быстро
easily – легко
calmly – спокойно
brightly – ярко
hardly – с трудом, едва


Наречия меры и степени:

much – много, сильно
little – немного, мало
enough – достаточно
too – слишком
almost – уже, почти
very – очень

 **2.7.** *Напишите прилагательные в сравнительной и превосходной степени:*


1. large, tall, long, easy, hot, big, cold, nice, bad, strong, short, wide, good, happy, high, low, busy, well, little, many, far.

2. wonderful, necessary, quickly, interesting, comfortable, popular, active, famous, pleasant, beautiful, slowly, clearly, early.


 **2.8.** *Раскройте скобки:*

1. Winter is (cold) season of the year. 2. Moscow is (large) than Tula. 3. Which is (long) day of the year? 4. The Alps are (high) mountains in Europe. 5. Even (long) day has an end. 6. It is one of (important) questions of our conference. 7. Your English is (good) now. 8. Who knows him (well) than you? 9. We have (little) interest

in this work than you. 10. Health is (good) than wealth. 11. Victor worked (well) of all. 12. Today you worked (slowly) than usually.

 **2.9. Переведите на русский:**

1. This book is not so interesting as that one. 2. The Baltic Sea is not so warm as the Black Sea. 3. The more you read, the more you know. 4. My brother is not as tall as you are. 5. The earlier you get up, the more you can do. 6. Today it is as warm as it was yesterday. 7. Your room is as light as mine. 8. John knows Russian as well as English. 9. Mary is not so lazy as her brother. 10. The longer the night is, the shorter the day. 11. The less people think, the more they talk.

 **2.10. Переведите на английский:**

1. Майкрософт – одна из самых известных фирм в мире.
2. Этот роман интереснее, чем тот.
3. Ваш дом выше нашего? – Нет, он такой же высокий, как и ваш.
4. Это самая прекрасная картина во всей коллекции.
5. Население Российской Федерации примерно в два раза больше населения Великобритании.
6. Он выполнил работу быстрее, чем вы.
7. Австралия – одна из наименее населенных стран.
8. Его работа лучше вашей, но работа Анны – самая лучшая.
9. Россия – самая большая страна в мире.
10. Я живу не так далеко от Университета, как мой друг.
11. Я зарабатываю больше, чем мама, но меньше, чем папа.
12. Хороший мотоцикл быстрее плохой машины.

ПОРЯДОК СЛОВ В АНГЛИЙСКОМ ПРЕДЛОЖЕНИИ

В английском предложении каждый член предложения, как правило, имеет свое определенное место. Так, в простом распространенном повествовательном предложении следующий порядок:

- 1) подлежащее;
- 2) сказуемое;
- 3) дополнение (беспредложное, прямое, предложное)
- 4) обстоятельства (образа действия, места, времени).

Например:

1) I 2) gave 3) my brother 3) a book 4) yesterday.

 2.11. Составьте предложения из следующих слов:

1. is, best, she, friend, my
2. learn, different, students, our, subject
3. the, is, Russia, in, country, the, largest, world
4. in, the, we, city, live, a, flat, in, of, center, the
5. of reading, is fond, my, best, son's, friend
6. computer, better, his, is, than, my
7. two, have, to, I, want, children
8. people, to, Black Sea coast, go, in, people, summer, many

ОСНОВНЫЕ ТИПЫ ВОПРОСОВ, ИСПОЛЬЗУЕМЫЕ В АНГЛИЙСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ

Общий вопрос General Question

Общий вопрос относится ко всему предложению в целом, и ответом на него будут слова **yes** или **no**:

Do you like ice cream? – Yes, I do.

Can you speak English? – Yes, I can.

Are you a schoolboy? — No, I am not.

Have you bought a textbook? — Yes, I have.

Порядок слов в общем вопросе.

- 1) вспомогательный глагол (модальный, глагол-связка),
- 2) подлежащее (существительное или местоимение),
- 3) смысловой глагол (или дополнение).

Специальный вопрос Special Question

Специальный вопрос относится к какому-нибудь члену предложения или их группе и требует конкретного ответа:

What is your name? — My name is Peter.

Where do you live? — I live in Rostov.

Порядок слов в специальном вопросе.

- 1) вопросительное слово (what, where, who, when, how и т. д.),
- 2) вспомогательный глагол (модальный, глагол-связка),
- 3) подлежащее,
- 4) смысловой глагол,
- 5) дополнения,
- 6) обстоятельства (места, времени, образа действия и т.д.).

В специальных вопросах, обращенных к подлежащему в формах Present и Past Indefinite, не употребляется вспомогательный глагол **do (did)** и сохраняется прямой порядок слов: *Who wants to go to the cinema? Who lives in this house?*

Альтернативный вопрос Alternative Question

Альтернативный вопрос предполагает выбор из двух возможностей:

Do you like coffee or tea? – Вы любите кофе или чай?

Альтернативный вопрос начинается как общий вопрос, затем следует разделительный союз *or* и вторая часть вопроса.

Разделительный вопрос Disjunctive (or Tail) Question


Разделительный вопрос состоит из двух частей. Первая часть – это повествовательное предложение (утвердительное или отрицательное), вторая, отделенная запятой от первой – краткий вопрос (*tail* – «хвостик»):

You are a pupil, aren't you? – Вы ученик, не правда ли?

Если в повествовательной части разделительного вопроса содержится *утверждение*, то во второй – *отрицание*. Если в повествовательной части – *отрицание*, то во второй части, как правило, – *утверждение*:

You are a student, aren't you?


You don't go to school every day, do you?

 **2.12.** Составьте три вопроса к каждому предложению:


1. *General* общий
2. *Special* специальный
3. *Disjunctive* разделительный

1. There is a book on the table. 2. He must work hard today. 3. We are leaving for Moscow next week. 4. We were reading the whole evening. 5. They don't go to work on Sunday. 6. It is not cold today. 7. Ann has already begun to read a new book. 8. We learn English at school. 9. They will show you how to get there. 10. They finished


the translation before the end of the lesson. 11. I didn't feel well that evening. 12. It wasn't difficult to do this task.

 **2.13.** *Поставьте общие вопросы к следующим предложениям:*

1. Our family lives in a three-room flat.
2. They went to the same school.
3. He will read this book tomorrow.
4. They are playing chess now.
5. Our friend is working now.
6. Her mother is an accountant.

 **2.14.** *Переведите на английский:*

1. Вам нравится больше английский язык или французский?
2. Он живет в Москве или в Петербурге?
3. Она его младшая или старшая сестра?
4. Студенты уже сдали экзамены или нет?
5. Петровы поедут летом на юг или на север?
6. Ваш друг учится в академии или в университете?

 **2.15.** *Напишите все возможные вопросы к следующим предложениям:*

1. Our teacher knows several foreign languages.
2. He has graduated from our University last year.
3. We shall go to Samara next week.
4. They are working in our garden.
5. I have just read this book.
6. I took this book from my friend.
7. He likes reading books.
8. She has many relatives abroad.
9. They were in many countries.
10. Russia is the largest country in the world.

LESSON 3

Text 1

MY UNIVERSITY

Hello again! This is Vera and this time I'll tell you about my University and my studies.

I am very happy that I study here. It is one of the finest country's higher educational institutions. Many famous people have graduated from my University, and not only economists or scientists, but many outstanding writers, actors, showmen and politicians. Studying at our University gives a **solid background** in all spheres of knowledge and prepares for practical work.

Our University is quite large but not very old, compared to other national institutions. It was founded at the beginning of the 20th century. In 1915, during the World War I the university of Warsaw was evacuated to Rostov-na-Donu. First it had only three faculties, but later it became the largest University in the region and it gave birth to other Institutions in the region. Nowadays it is a large school where more than 9000 students are **currently enrolled**. The majority are full-time students, like me, and the **rest are part time-students**. There are also about 150 graduate students - aspirants and doctorants. They **conduct** independent research work and have pedagogical practice.

The **course of study** at my University lasts five years. There are many faculties at my University. Here are some of them: the faculty of banking and finance and, the

faculty of **management**, the faculty of **business law** and the faculty of **accounting**.

Our University is large and we have several building. One of the buildings is for lectures and seminars only. There are many large halls there so that students of 3–4 groups together can fit in there. And that is more than 100 people. The acoustics in such large halls is very good but sometimes it is very **noisy** when students chat during the lecture.

We have two other buildings for library, **computer center**, **gym**, and other **facilities**. Many students from my group want to do their own **research** work in the future and these facilities will certainly help them.

There are several cafes at the University. My favourite one is situated in a separate **one-storeyed** building and people say that this is the oldest canteen or student's cafe. The food there is **tasty** and very **affordable**.

There are also several dormitories or hostel buildings where students from other cities or countries live. But you know already that I don't live in a dormitory – I rent an apartment.

VOCABULARY:

solid background – солидная база (образования)

currently – в настоящее время

to be enrolled – числиться в списках студентов

full-time students – студенты дневного отделения

part time-students – студенты вечернего отделения

to conduct – проводить

course of study – курс обучения

banking – банковское дело

finance – финансы

management – управление, менеджмент

business law – коммерческое право

accounting – бухгалтерский учет

noisy – шумный


to chat – беседовать,
болтать
computer center – вычис-
лительный центр
gym [dʒɪm] – спортивный
зал
facilities [fə'sɪlɪtɪz] – служ-
бы, помещения, приспособления

research [rɪ'sə:tʃ] work –
исследовательская
работа
one-storeyed – одноэтаж-
ный
tasty ['teɪstɪ] – вкусный
affordable – доступный (to
afford – позволять)

ADD TO YOUR ACTIVE VOCABULARY:

a) classroom – класс, ауди-
тория
lecture hall – лекционный
зал
laboratory – лаборатория
gym (gymnasium) – спорт-
зал
b) semester (term) –
семестр
school year – учебный год
course of studies – курс
обучения
Academy – академия
University – университет
Institute – институт
faculty, college, department
– факультет (напр.
College of physics – фа-
культет физики)
department, chair of... –
кафедра
head of the department,
chief of the department,
chair (man/woman) –
зав. кафедрой
c) Professor – профессор


teaching instructor (TI) –
преподаватель
Dean – декан
Rector – ректор
teaching staff, faculty
members – преподава-
тельский состав
d) full-time student –
студент(ка) дневного
отделения
part-time student – сту-
дент(ка)-«вечерник»
**student of distant (extra-
mural) education** –
студент(ка) «заочник»
student of preparatory
courses – слушатель
подкурсов, «подкурс-
ник»
undergraduate student –
студент 1–4(5) курсов
graduate student – студент
5–6 курсов, аспирант
master student – магист-
рант (магистер)
Ph.D. student – докторант

 3.1. *Дайте описание:*

- a) your secondary school (college)
- b) the faculty of your university
- c) your favourite teacher at school.

 3.2. *Знаете ли вы?*

- 1) When was your Institute or University established?
- 2) Who was its first Rector?
- 3) Were there any famous scientists, engineers, politicians, ministers among the graduates?
- 4) How many people are currently enrolled?
- 5) What is the most popular faculty in your University?

 3.3. *Согласны ли вы, что:*


- a) Larger schools are better than smaller ones.
- b) It is impossible to enter the university if you haven't attended preparatory courses.
- c) The best professors deliver the most interesting lectures.
- d) It is more fun to live in a dormitory or a student hostel than to rent an apartment.
- e) Professors and teaching instructors always know more than students.

 **Text 2****MOSCOW STATE UNIVERSITY**

Moscow State University is the oldest, autonomous, self-governing and state-supported institution of higher learning, founded in 1755 by the scientist Mikhail Vasilyevich Lomonosov. Located in Moscow, the university

is composed of faculties of biology, chemistry, computational mathematics and cybernetics, economics, foreign languages, fundamental medicine, geography, geology, history, journalism, law, mechanics and mathematics, physics, psychology, sociology, and soil sciences, as well as an institute of Asian and African Studies. Several museums, colleges, and a number of institutes are affiliated with Moscow University, and a preparatory faculty teaches the Russian language and other subjects to foreign students.

Except for the science faculties and some of the arts faculties—which are situated in south-western Moscow—the remainder of the faculties are located in the older university buildings in the centre of the city. A diploma in a given field of study is awarded after five or five and a half years of study. After three additional years and the completion of a thesis, the *kandidat nauk* degree is awarded. The highest degree, the Doctor of Sciences, may be attained upon completion of a thesis based on independent research.

 3.4. Ответьте на вопросы.

1. When was Moscow State University founded?
2. What faculties is it composed of?
3. When, according to the article, the degree of *kandidat nauk* is awarded?
4. When of Sciences degree can be attained?



ГРАММАТИКА

БЕЗЛИЧНЫЕ И НЕОПРЕДЕЛЕННО-ЛИЧНЫЕ ПРЕДЛОЖЕНИЯ

Английские предложения отличаются от русских тем, что в них всегда есть подлежащее и сказуемое.

Поэтому в безличных предложениях, когда нет подлежащего, используется в качестве формального подлежащего местоимение *it*.

It is cold today. Сегодня холодно.

Как видим, безличные предложения такого типа состоят из местоимения *it*, которое не переводится, глагола-связки в нужном по смыслу времени и именной части сказуемого, выраженного чаще всего именем прилагательным. Именная часть может быть также выражена именем существительным или именем числительным.

It's nice to meet you. Приятно познакомиться.

It is nine o'clock now. Сейчас девять часов.

Очень часто безличные предложения описывают явление природы, состояние погоды, обозначают время, расстояние.

Вопросительная и отрицательная формы безличных предложений образуются по тем же правилам, что и вопросительные и отрицательные формы предложений с именным составным сказуемым.

Is it cold? – Холодно?

Wasn't it interesting? – Разве это не было интересно?

Частица *not* ставится после первого вспомогательного глагола.

3.5 Переведите на английский.

1. Сегодня холодно. 2. Идет снег. 3. Сейчас утро. 4. Было приятно познакомиться с вами. 5. Поздно. 6. Пора спать. 7. Сейчас уже 10 часов утра. 8. На улице холодно? 9. Сейчас ранняя весна, но уже тепло. 10. Это недалеко отсюда/

Неопределенные местоимения *some*, *any*, отрицательное местоимение *no* и их производные

Употребление *some* и *any*, а также их производных определяется типом предложения.

В утвердительном предложении употребляются, как правило, местоимение *some* и его производные:

Give me something to read, please.

I met him somewhere before.

В вопросительных и отрицательных предложениях обычно используются местоимение *any* и его производные:

Have you seen him anywhere?

Is there anything I can do for you?

В отрицательных предложениях используется либо местоимение *any* и его производные,

I cannot find this book anywhere.

либо отрицательное местоимение *no*:

There is nobody in that room.

There isn't anybody in that room.

Иногда местоимение *any* употребляется и в утвердительных предложениях:

You can find this book anywhere. — Эту книгу вы можете найти где угодно.

 **3.6.** *Образуйте 16 местоимений и переведите их:*

Образец:

some + body = somebody — кто-то, кто-нибудь

some	body
any	one
no	thing
every	where

3.7. Вставьте *somebody*, *anybody*, *nobody* или *everybody*:

1. The question was so difficult that ... could answer it. 2. ... forgot to switch off the light in the classroom yesterday. 3. Has ... got a dictionary? 4. I am afraid there is ... in the office now. It is too late. 5. ... knows that water is necessary for plants. 6. Is there ... here? 7. You must find ... who can help you. 8. ... knew anything about our home task. 9. ... can answer this question. It is very easy. 10. There is ... in the next room. I don't know him. 11. Please tell us the story. ... knows it. 12. Is there ... in my group who lives in the hostel? 13. Has ... here got a red pencil?

3.8. Переведите на английский:

1. Тут есть кто-нибудь? 2. В саду никого нет. 3. В нашей комнате есть кто-нибудь? 4. В классе есть кто-то. 5. Там никого нет. 6. В саду есть кто-нибудь? 7. На столе есть что-нибудь? — Нет, там ничего нет. 8. В сумке что-то есть. 9. В этой книге есть что-нибудь интересное? 10. На стене есть какие-нибудь картины? — Да, там есть несколько. 11. В кабинете директора есть кто-нибудь? — Нет, там никого нет. 12. В нашей библиотеке есть какие-то книги на английском языке. 13. В вашей библиотеке есть какие-нибудь книги на английском языке? 14. Мой друг не хочет мне ничего сказать. 15. Я хочу провести летние каникулы где-нибудь на берегу Черного моря.

LESSON 4

Text 1

SOCHI –MY NATIVE CITY

Hello, everyone! Here is Vera again. This time I'll tell you about my lovely hometown – Sochi. I am sure everyone knows where Sochi is. For those who are not really sure I **remind** that it is situated on the Black Sea coast about 1500 km south from Moscow.

But what makes this city so special? Sochi is called the city of three seasons because there's no winter here. As we usually say, «the golden autumn slowly **turns into** the early spring.» When golden leaves slowly fall down on the earth the first flowers begin to **blossom**. Sochi is the only northern subtropical city in Russia. One can bathe in the Black Sea from May till October because the water of the Black Sea is still warm. The water of the Black Sea contains many **chemical substances** such as iodine, chlorine, bromine, sulphates, carbonates, sodium, **potassium**, etc. All of them react with your body and make you healthier. There are many mineral water springs in Sochi and its area.

Have you heard the name the Big Sochi? Sochi is one of the most **stretched** cities along the sea coast. – it is 148 km long! Small towns and cities Adler, Khosta, Kudepsta, Dagomys and Lazarevskoye belong to Big Sochi.

The history of this area goes back to the **ancient times**. One can call this area «**the Cradle of Mankind**». People

came here from the **Asia Minor** 400-350 thousand years ago. There are more than 150 historical places of interest in the area. Here the **camp**s and **caves** of **pre-historic** people have been found.

The **dolmens** – massive prehistoric grave structures from the 2nd thousand BC are the **features** of the **Bronze era**. The most ancient five-stone dolmens are found in the Sochi area. Travellers of the 19th century called dolmens «the houses of the giants» because each grave stone **weighs** from 500 to 3000 kg. It is still **uncertain** what technical developments made it possible to **construct** such structures.

The rich lands of Caucasus always **attracted invaders**: Greeks, Romans, Arabs, Genuese, and Turks.

In the VIth century B.C. the Black Sea coast attracted Greek colonists, who have based a number of **trade-settlements**, such as Dioscuria (modern city of Sukhumi), Pitiunt (Pitsunda), Triglif (Gagra).

Christian religion was brought over from the **Byzantynne** three centuries earlier than to Russia. In the end of Xth – beginning of the XI centuries A.D. the first known christian constructions were built in Loo, Galitsino and Veseloye.

During XVIII–XIX centuries Russia **conducted** long wars with Turkey for the exit to the Black sea. In 1829, after the end of Russian-Turkish war, by the **peace treaty** the Black Sea coast of Caucasus, from the **mouth of the river** of Kuban up to a fort St.Nicholas (to the south of modern city Poti), has departed to Russia.

Symbol of the victory of the Russian **weapon** in the war of 1829 is the monument near modern hotel «Leningrad» – «**Anchor and Cannon**».

The end of Russian-Turkish war has not solved all the problems of strengthening Russia on the Black Sea coast.

The Black Sea coastal line consisting of 17 forts was created with this **purpose**.

On April 21st, 1838 small wooden **fortress** was established in the Sochi river area to protect this land from local tribes. It was named **Alexandria in honour of emperess Alexandra**. It was renamed one year later, on May 18, 1839 and became Navaginskoye. But in 1854, because of the beginning of the Crimean war, the fortress was destroyed by Russian army. Russians left this area. Only 10 years later, in March 25th, 1864 the new fortress named Dakhovskiy was established on the place of the Navaginskiy fortress.

In 1896 by the decision of the Tsarist government fortress Dakhovskiy was renamed in the settlement of Sochi, after the name of the river Sochi.

In the end of XIX th century the Black Sea coast was intensively **occupied** by the immigrants from central parts of Russia, Moldova, Ukraine, Byelorussia, Georgia and Armenians and Greeks from Turkey. The Sochi district becomes multinational area of Russian empire.

In Soviet times Sochi was the fast developing port, industrial and **resort city** on the Black sea. The fast development of the city and construction of modern houses was due to the Joseph Stalin's sympathy to this place. Many streets in the center of Sochi look like center of Moscow built in 30s and 50s.

Untll now the favourite residence of Russian Presidents is Bocharov creek (ручей). Ski resorts of Krasnaya Polyana, warm blue waters of Black sea, **luxurious** tennis courts create **irresistable** atmosphere around the place.


I guess I took a lot of your attention already. You know yourself what a popular resort Sochi is nowadays. Just buy the ticket and have your suitcases packed!

VOCABULARY:


- to remind** – напоминать
to turn into – превращать-
 ся во что-либо
blossom – цвести
chemical substances –
 химические вещества
iodine [ˈaɪəʊdiːn] – йод
chlorine [ˈklɔːrɪn] – хлор
bromine [ˈbrɔːmiːn] – бром
sulphate [ˈsʌlfet] – сульфат
carbonates [ˈkɑːbəneɪts] –
 карбонаты
sodium [ˈsəʊdiəm] – натрий
potassium [pəˈtæsiəm] –
 калий
to be stretched – быть
 вытянутым
events – события, мероп-
 риятия
«the Cradle of Mankind» –
 «колыбель человечества»
BC (Before Christ) до н.э.
Asia Minor – п-ов Малая
 Азия
camp [kæmp] лагерь
cave [keɪv] пещера
Bronze era – бронзовый век
pre-historic – доисториче-
 ский
grave structures – могиль-
 ники
dolmens – дольмены
feature [ˈfi:tʃə] – особен-
 ность
to weigh [weɪ] – весить,
 взвешивать
uncertain [ʌnˈsɜːtn] –
 неопределенный
to construct – возводить,
 строить
to attract [əˈtrækt] привле-
 кать
invader [ɪnˈveɪdə] захват-
 чик
trade-settlements – торго-
 вые поселения, факто-
 рии
Byzantine [bɪˈzæntaɪn] –
 Византия
A.D. – (Anno Domini) –
 нашей эры (н.э.)
to conduct – проводить
exit [ˈeksɪt] – выход
peace treaty [ˈtriːti] –
 мирный договор
mouth of the river – устье
 реки
weapon [ˈwepən] – оружие
anchor [ˈæŋkə] – якорь
cannon – пушка
purpose [ˈpʊrəs] – цель
fortress [ˈfɔːtrɪs] – форт,
 укрепление, крепость
in honour of emperess's
Alexandra – в честь
 императрицы Александ-
 ры
to be occupied [ˈɔkjupaɪd] –
 быть занятым, заселен-
 ным
due to [djuː] – благодаря
 (кому-либо, чему-либо)
luxurious [lʌgˈzjuəriəs] –
 роскошный
irresistible [ɪrɪˈzɪstəbl] –
 неотразимый

ADD TO YOUR ACTIVE VOCABULARY:

- | | |
|---|---|
| a) village – село, деревня | Dark ages – средние века |
| Cossack's settlement –
станция | Great October revolution –
Великая октябрьская
революция |
| town – небольшой город | Great Patriotic War –
Великая отечественная
война |
| suburbs [ˈsʌbəbz] – приго-
род | WWII (World War II) –
вторая мировая война |
| city – крупный город | Soviet times – советские
времена |
| center of the region –
районный центр | former USSR – бывший
СССР |
| capital of the republic –
столица республики | c) historical center –
исторический центр |
| capital of the federal
district – столица
федерального округа | cultural center – культур-
ный центр |
| b) ancient history [ˈeɪnfənt] –
древняя (античная)
история | trade center – торговый
центр |
| medieval history – средне-
вековая история | transport center – транс-
портный центр |
| Tsarist's Russia – царская
Россия | |

 4.1. Ответьте на вопросы:

1. Do you study in your hometown or you just live here while studying?
2. Do you like the city where you study? Why and why not?
3. Do you know the history of your hometown?
4. Do you know when was your hometown founded?
5. Do you know any famous people who were born in your hometown?
6. What are the places of interest in your hometown?
7. What is your favourite place in your hometown?

 4.2. Образуйте прилагательное от существительного:

- history – historical
- culture –
- science –
- industry –
- agriculture –
- administration –
- politics –
- trade –



ГРАММАТИКА

Местоимения *little* и *few* и местоименные выражения *a little* и *a few*

Местоимение *little* и местоименное выражение *a little* употребляются с неисчисляемыми существительными, местоимение *few* и местоименное выражение *a few* – с исчисляемыми:

Give me a little water, please.

There is little milk in the bottle.

I have a few friends in Minsk.

I've got only few pencils in the box.


Местоимения *few* и *little* означают «мало», а местоименные выражения *a few* и *a little* – «немного».

Much (много) употребляется с неисчисляемыми существительными, *many* (много) – с исчисляемыми.


 4.3. Вставьте *much*, *many*, *little*, *a little*, *few*, *a few*:

1. I'd like to say ... words about my traveling.
2. There was not ... water in the lake because it was shallow.
3. He had ... English books at home, so he had to go to


the library. 4. After the lesson everybody felt ... tired. 5. Let's stay here ... longer. I like it here. 6. There were ... new words in the text and Peter spent ... time learning them. 7. There was ... sugar in the bowl, and we had to put ... sugar there. 8. My mother knows German ... and she can help you with the translation of this text. 10. When we walked ... farther down the street we saw the entrance of the Metro station. 11. Have you got ... time before the lesson?

 4.4. *Переведите на английский:*

Много тетрадей, много молока, много воды, много дней, много газет, много мела, много снега, много лет, много картин, много музыки, много сахара, много чая, много лимонов, много мяса, много комнат, много учителей, много работы, много воздуха, много птиц, много машин.

 4.5. *Вставьте much or many:*

1. Please don't ask me ... questions. 2. How ... money have you got? 3. I never eat ... bread with soup. 4. Why did you eat so ... ice-cream? 5. She wrote us ... letters from the country. 6. ... of these students don't like to look up words in the dictionary. 7. ... in this work was too difficult for me. 8. He spent ... time writing his composition in Literature. 9. There were ... plates on the table. 10. Thank you very ...! 11. ... of my friends are preparing for their entrance examinations now. 12. I don't like ... sugar in my tea.

 4.6. *Переведите на английский:*

1. В стакане есть немного молока. 2. В тетради осталось мало чистых страниц. 3. У тебя много кофе? — Нет, очень мало. 4. Немногие из англичан говорят по-

русски. 5. У них здесь очень мало друзей. 6. У него очень мало времени для чтения. 7. У Пола много русских книг и мало английских книг. 8. У меня есть немного времени вечером, чтобы закончить эту работу. 9. Я провожу много времени в библиотеке, потому что я готовлюсь к экзаменам.

ОБОРОТ *there is / there are*

Оборот *there is / there are* служит для выражения наличия (отсутствия) какого-либо предмета в определенном месте или в определенное время. Формы прошедшего и будущего времени: *there was, there were* и *there will be*.

There are some pictures on the wall. На стене несколько картин.

There was nobody in the room. В комнате никого не было.

Выбор формы глагола **to be** зависит от числа существительного, следующего сразу за оборотом:

There is a chair and two armchairs in the room.

There are two armchairs and a chair in the room.

Вопросительные предложения с оборотом *there is / there are* строятся следующим образом

Общий вопрос: *Is there anything in the bag? Will there be lessons tomorrow?*


Специальный вопрос: *What is there in the bag?*

Разделительный вопрос. *There are some pupils in the classroom, aren't there?*


4.7. Вставьте в нужной форме:

1. There ... a telegram on the table. 2. ... there any telegrams from Moscow? Yes, there ... some. 3. ... there ... a flight for Moscow tomorrow? Yes, there ... 4. There


... much snow last winter. 5. There ... a lot of stars and planets in space. 6. ... there ... a lift in your future house? Yes, there 7. Some years ago there ... many old houses in our street. 8. ... there any lectures yesterday? No, there ... 9. ... there a lamp over the table? Yes, there 10. ... there any interesting stories in this book? 11. ... there a test last lesson? No, there 12. Soon there ... a new film on.

 **4.8.** *Поставьте общие вопросы к следующим предложениям:*

1. There are some new pupils in our group. 2. There is no book on the table. 3. There were many old houses in our street. 4. There are 4 seasons in a year. 5. There will be a conference next week. 6. There are many large cities in our country. 7. There was nobody in the room. 8. There are 7 days in a week. 9. There is something on the shelf. 10. There are many places of interest in London. 11. There are many beautiful flowers in our garden. 12. There was much work last week.

 **4.9.** *Перепишите предложения в прошедшем и будущем временах:*


1. There is much snow in winter. 2. There are 4 theatres in our city. 3. There is no lift in our house. 4. There are many new books in our library. 5. There is little milk in the bottle. 6. There are 3 rooms in our flat. 7. There is a map on the wall.

 **4.10.** *Прочитайте следующие слова, пользуясь знаками транскрипции, и найдите их русские эквиваленты:*

problem [ˈprɒbləm]


information [ˌɪnfəˈmeɪʃən]

planet ['plænit]
 official [ə'fiʃəl]
 colony ['kɒləni]
 technology [tek'nɒlədʒi]
 organisation [ˌɔ:ɡənaɪ'zeɪʃən]
 literature ['lɪtərɪtʃə]
 tourism ['tuərizm]
 process ['prəʊses]
 specialist ['speʃəlist]
 culture ['kʌltʃə]
 certificate [sə'tɪfɪkət]
 gymnasium [dʒɪm'neɪzjəm]
 technical ['teknɪkəl]
 professional [prə'feʃənəl]
 system ['sɪstɪm]
 technician [tek'nɪʃən]
 programme ['prəʊgræm]
 million ['mɪljən]
 equivalent [ɪ'kwɪvələnt]
 stipend ['staɪpend]
 candidate ['kændɪdət]
 dissertation [ˌdɪsə'teɪʃən]
 discipline ['dɪsɪplɪn]

 4.11. Найдите пары слов, имеющих противные значения.

- | | |
|----------------|--------------|
| 1. absent | A. closed |
| 2. cheap | B. cold |
| 3. deep | C. dull |
| 4. difficult | D. easy |
| 5. high | E. expensive |
| 6. hot | F. far |
| 7. interesting | G. huge |
| 8. long | H. last |
| 9. near | I. low |

10. next	J. narrow
11. open	K. old
12. rich	L. poor
13. small	M. present
14. wide	N. shallow
15. young	O. short

 **4.12.** Найдите в каждом ряду слово, общее по смыслу.

1. wall, roof, floor, house, door
2. teacher, lesson, exercise, pupil, school
3. meals, supper, dinner, lunch, breakfast
4. car, bus, tram, vehicle, lorry
5. summer, season, winter, spring, autumn
6. seven, eleven, number, one, eight
7. chair, bed, sofa, table, furniture
8. monitor, mouse, computer, programme, scanner
9. snow, ice, water, rain, fog
10. second, time, minute, hour, day
11. daughter, son, family, father, mother
12. education, school, institute, college, university

LESSON 5

Text 1

THE RUSSIAN FEDERATION

I am a citizen of the Russian Federation or Russia. The Russian Federation is the largest country in the world. It **occupies** about $1/7$ (one seventh) of the Earth surface. The country is situated in Eastern Europe, Northern and Central Asia. Its **total area** is over 17 million square km.

Our land is washed by 12 seas, most of which are the seas of three oceans: the Arctic, the Atlantic and the Pacific. In the south and in the west the country **borders on** fourteen countries. It also has a sea-border with the USA.

There is hardly a country in the world where such a great variety of flora and fauna can be found as in our land. Our country has **numerous** forests, plains and **steppes, taiga** and tundra, **highlands** and **deserts**. The highest mountains in our land are the **Altai, the Urals** and **the Caucasus**. There are over two thousands rivers in the Russian Federation. The longest of them are the Volga, the Ob, the Yenisei, the Lena and the Amur. Our land is also rich in various lakes with the deepest lake in the world, the Baikal, included.

On the Russian territory there are 11 time zones. The **climate conditions** are rather different: from arctic and moderate to continental and subtropical. Our country is

one of the richest in natural resources countries in the world: oil, natural gas, coal, different **ores** of **ferrous** and **non-ferrous** metals and other minerals.

The Russian Federation is a multinational state. It **comprises** many national districts, several autonomous republics and regions. The population of the country is over **140** million people.

Moscow is the capital of our Homeland. It is the largest political scientific, cultural and industrial center of the country and one of the most beautiful cities. Russian is the official language of the state. The national symbols of the Russian Federation are a double headed eagle and a white-blue-red **banner**.

The Russian Federation is a constitutional republic headed by the President, the country government consists of three branches: legislative, executive and judicial. The President controls only the executive branch – the government, but not the Supreme Court and Federal Assembly.

The legislative power belongs to the **Federal Assembly** comprising two chambers: the **Council of Federation** (upper Chamber) and the **State Duma** (lower Chamber). Each chamber is headed by the Speaker. The executive power belongs to the government (the Cabinet of Ministers) headed by the Prime Minister. The judicial power belongs to the system of Courts comprising the Constitutional Court, the **Supreme Court** and federal courts.

Our country has a multiparty system. The **foreign policy** of the Russian Federation is that of international cooperation, peace and friendship with all nations **irrespective** of their political and social systems.

I am proud of being a citizen of Russia.


VOCABULARY:

citizen [ˈsɪtɪzn] гражданин	state государство
to occupy [ˈɔkjupaɪ] занимать	to comprise включать, охватывать
surface [ˈsɜːfɪs] поверхность	banner знамя, флаг
total [ˈtaʊtl] area [ˈɛəriə] общая площадь	legislative [ˈledʒɪslətɪv] законодательная
to border on... граничить с...	executive [ɪgˈzɛkjʊtɪv] исполнительная
numerous [ˈnjuːmərəs] многочисленный	judicial [dʒuːˈdɪʃl] судебная
steppes степи	Federal Assembly Федеральное Собрание
taiga [ˈtaɪgəː] тайга	the Council [ˈkaʊnsl] of Federation Совет Федерации
highlands возвышенности, горная местность	State Duma Государственная дума, нижняя палата парламента Российской Федерации
flora [ˈflɔːrə] флора	Supreme [sjuˈprɪːm] Court [kɔːt] Верховный суд
fauna [ˈfɔːnə] фауна	influential [ˌɪnfluˈenʃəl] влиятельный
the Urals [ˈjuərəlz] Уральские горы	foreign [ˈfɔːrɪn] policy международная политика
the Caucasus [ˈkɔːkəsəs] Кавказ	irrespective of [ˌɪrɪsˈpektɪv] независимо от
climate [ˈklaɪmɪt]	to be proud of [ˈpraʊd] гордиться чем-либо
conditions [kənˈdɪʃənz] климатические условия	
moderate [ˈmɒdərət] умеренный	
ore [ɔː] руда	
non-ferrous metals цветные металлы	
ferrous metals черные металлы	

🧠 5.1. *Ответьте на вопросы:*

1. Is Russia the largest country in the world?
2. What oceans wash the borders of Russian Federation?
3. How many countries have borders with Russia?
4. Are Russian flora and fauna various?

5. What are the highest mountains in Russia?
6. What is lake Baikal famous for?
7. What is the climate in Russia like?
8. What are the national symbols of Russia?
9. What does the Federal Assembly consist of?
10. What do we call the head of each Chamber of the Federal Assembly?

 5.2. *Переведите на английский:*

1. Общая площадь Российской Федерации составляет более 17 миллионов километров.
2. В мире вряд ли есть еще одна страна с такой разнообразной флорой и фауной.
3. Озеро Байкал – самое глубокое озеро на земном шаре.
4. На территории Российской Федерации существует 11 часовых поясов.
5. Россия является конституционной республикой с президентской формой правления.
6. Законодательная власть принадлежит Федеральному Собранию, состоящему из двух палат.
7. Законодательная и судебная власти прямо не подчиняются Президенту.

 5.3. *Знаете ли вы?*

What is/are:

- the biggest Russian lake?
- the longest Russian river (in European and Asian parts of the Russian Federation)?
- a city with subtropical climate?
- cities with arctic climate?
- agricultural regions?
- old historical cities?
- places of recreation and tourism?

 Text 2

MOSCOW – THE CAPITAL OF OUR COUNTRY

Moscow was founded in 1147 by the prince Yuri Dolgoruky. Moscow is the capital and the largest city of Russia. It is also the capital of Moscow region. It stands on the banks of the Moskva River. More than nine million people live in the city. Moscow is the economic, political and cultural centre of Russia. Railways and numerous airlines link the city with all parts of Russia. Moscow Canal, Moskva River, and Volga-Don Canal link Moscow with the Baltic Sea, the White Sea, the Black Sea, the Caspian Sea and the Sea of Azov.

Moscow covers the area of about 880 square kilometres. Concentric boulevards divide the city into several sections. At the centre of the concentric circles are the fortress Kremlin and the Red Square.

The Kremlin has the shape of a triangle with one side along the north bank of the Moskva River. A stone wall, up to 21 m in height with 19 towers, surrounds this triangular complex of former palaces, cathedrals, and other monuments. The Great Kremlin Palace, completed in 1849, is the most impressive structure inside the Kremlin. Other famous Kremlin palaces are the Granovitaya Palace (built in 1491) and the Terem (built in 1636).

Among many cathedrals, now used mainly as museums, are the Cathedral of the Assumption [ə'sʌmpʃn] (Успен-ния) and the Archangel [ˌɑ:k'eɪndʒəl] Cathedral [kə'θi:drəl], each with five gilded domes, and the Cathedral of the Annunciation [ə,nʌnsi'eɪʃən] (Благовещ-нения) (built in 13th–14th century), with nine gilded

domes. The bell tower of Ivan the Great has the height of 98 metres. On a nearby pedestal there is the Tsar Bell (nearly 200 tons), one of the largest in the world. A recent addition to the Kremlin is the Palace of Congresses, completed in 1961.

St Basil's Cathedral, a masterpiece of Russian architecture with coloured domes, stands at one end of Red Square and at the other end there is Historical Museum.

Other points of interest in Moscow include the Central Lenin Stadium, comprising about 130 buildings for various sports and the tall Ostankino TV tower, which contains a revolving restaurant and an observation platform. Moscow has a modern railway underground system (Metro) famous for its marble-walled stations.


Moscow is a scientific and cultural center with a lot of institutes, universities, libraries and museums. The city leads a vast cultural life. It has a lot of cinemas, clubs, concert halls, more than 40 drama and musical theatres, including the Bolshoi Theatre, the Art Theatre, the Maly Theatre, the Vakhtangov Theatre.

Muscovites are proud of their museums: the Tretyakov Art Gallery, the A. S. Pushkin Museum of Fine Arts and the State Historical Museum. Crowds of people visit Tretyakov Gallery admiring beautiful pictures of Russian painters.


There are a lot of big plants and factories in Moscow. Among the products are aircraft, high-quality steel, ball bearings, cars and other motor vehicles, machine tools, electrical equipment, precision instruments, radios, chemicals, textiles, shoes, paper, furniture. Food processing, printing, and the repair of rail equipment are important industries.

VOCABULARY:

airline [ˈeəlaɪn] авиалиния	marble [ˈmɑːbl] мрамор
capital [ˈkæpɪtl] столица	vast [vɑːst] обширный
prince [prɪns] князь	printing [ˈprɪntɪŋ] печатание, печать
bank [bæŋk] берег (реки)	machine tool [məˈʃiːn tuːl] станок
cathedral [kəˈθiːdrəl] кафедральный собор	precision instruments [prɪˈsɪzən] точные приборы
masterpiece [ˈmɑːstəpɪs] шедевр	repair [rɪˈpeə] ремонт
palace [ˈpælɪs] дворец	observation [ˌɒbzəːˈveɪʃən] наблюдение
fortress [ˈfɔːtrɪs] крепость	rail [ˈreɪl] рельс, ж.-д. путь
tsar [zɑː] царь	ball bearing [ˈbɛərɪŋ] шарикоподшипник
bell tower [ˈtauə] колокольня	processing [ˈprəʊsesɪŋ] обработка
dome [ˈdəʊm] купол	furniture [ˈfɜːnɪtʃə] мебель
crowd [ˈkraʊd] толпа	
scientific [ˌsaɪənˈtɪfɪk] научный	

 **3.7. Ответьте на вопросы.**

1. When was Moscow founded?
2. Who founded Moscow?
3. Where is Moscow located?
4. Is Moscow a port city?
5. What is known about Moscow Metro?
6. What are the places of interest in Moscow?
7. Why the Kremlin is the most important place of interest for tourists?
8. What cathedrals are situated inside the Kremlin?
9. What is Palace of Congresses used for at present time?

 **3.8. Где находятся эти достопримечательности?**

- Granovitaya Palace
- Terem

- the Red Square
- the Kremlin
- the Great Kremlin Palace
- the Cathedral of the Assumption
- the Archangel Cathedral
- the Cathedral of the Annunciation
- the Tower of Ivan the Great
- the Tsar's Bell
- the Palace of Congresses
- St Basil's Cathedral



ГРАММАТИКА

ВРЕМЕНА АНГЛИЙСКОГО ГЛАГОЛА

Таблица временных форм глагола

Время	Простое Indefinite (Simple)	Длительное Continuous	Завершенное Perfect
Настоящее Present	I write Я пишу (вообще, обычно)	I am writing Я пишу (сейчас)	I have written Я (уже) написал
Прошедш. Past	I wrote Я (на) писал (вчера)	I was writing Я писал (в тот момент)	I had written Я написал (уже к тому моменту)
Будущее Future	I shall/will write Я напишу, буду писать (завтра)	I shall/will be writing Я буду писать (в тот момент)	I shall/will have written Я напишу (уже к тому моменту)

Группа временных форм Indefinite (Simple)

Формы глагола в Present Indefinite

Число	Утвердительная форма	Вопросительная форма	Отрицательная форма
Ед	I (you) ask He (she, it) asks	Do I (you) ask? Does he (she, it) ask?	I (you) do not ask He (she, it) does not ask
Мн	We (you, they) ask	Do we (you, they) ask?	We (you, they) do not ask

Глаголы в формах Indefinite (Simple) описывают обычные, повторяющиеся действия как факт — безотносительно к их длительности или к результату действия:

I go to school every day. — Я хожу в школу каждый день.

I went to school when I was a boy. — Я ходил в школу, когда был мальчиком.

I shall go to school when I grow up. — Я буду ходить в школу, когда вырасту.

Для указания на повторный характер действия часто употребляются слова

every day / week, month, year (каждый день / каждую неделю, месяц, год), *often* (часто), *seldom* (редко), *always* (всегда), *usually* (обычно), *never* (никогда).

Наречия **often, seldom, always, never, usually** обычно ставятся перед глаголом.

В предложениях с глаголом **to be** эти наречия обычно ставятся после глагола.

He is never late for the lessons. — Он никогда не опаздывает на уроки.

Формы глагола в Past Indefinite

Число	Утвердительная форма	Вопросительная форма	Отрицательная форма
Ед и мн	I (you, he, she, it, we, they) asked	Did I (you, he, she, it, we, they) ask?	I (you, he, she, it, we, they) did not ask .

Отрицательная и вопросительная формы в Indefinite образуются при помощи вспомогательных глаголов **do, does, did** с частицей **not**, краткая форма: **don't, doesn't, didn't**. Порядок слов прямой. Вопросительные предложения образуются, как правило, простой перестановкой подлежащего и вспомогательного глагола. Вопросительные местоимения при этом стоят всегда впереди.

He is a student. – Is he a student?

We do not write much. – Do we write much?

You have a computer. – Have you a computer? – What do you have?

She does not live in Moscow. – Does she live in Moscow?

He didn't like the film. – Did he like the film? – What film he didn't like?

Особую группу составляют разделительные вопросы, которые переводятся как утверждения плюс «не так ли?» Они применимы к любому времени. Например:

You speak English, don't you? Вы говорите по-английски, не так ли?

Но: *Let us speak English, shall we?* Давайте говорить по-английски, хорошо?

— ПРАВИЛЬНЫЕ И НЕПРАВИЛЬНЫЕ ГЛАГОЛЫ — (REGULAR AND IRREGULAR VERBS)

По способу образования прошедшего времени все глаголы в английском языке можно разделить на две группы: правильные и неправильные. У правильных глаголов вторая и третья формы (Past Indefinite Tense и Past Participle — простое прошедшее время и причастие прошедшего времени) совпадают между собой и образуются путем прибавления к основе глагола окончания *-ed (-d)*:

to ask — asked to change — changed
to receive — received to work — worked

При этом существует ряд особенностей:

а) если глагол оканчивается на *-y* с предшествующей согласной, то буква *y* меняется на *i* и добавляется окончание *-ed*

to supply — supplied to apply — applied

если глагол оканчивается на *-y* с предшествующей гласной, то буква *y* не меняется и добавляется окончание *-ed*

to stay — stayed to play — played;

б) если глагол оканчивается на согласную с предшествующим кратким гласным звуком, то согласная на конце удваивается:

to stop — stopped

После звонких согласных и гласных звуков окончание *-ed* или *-d* произносится как [d] *loved, said*, а после глухих согласных как [t] *looked*.

После звуков [d] и [t] на конце слова окончание *-ed (-d)* произносится как [ɪd] *landed, started*.

Неправильные глаголы образуют вторую и третью формы различными способами, без четких правил. Это наиболее часто употребляемые глаголы. В конце книги приведен список часто встречающихся неправильных глаголов.

Формы глагола в Future Indefinite

Число	Утвердительная форма	Вопросительная форма	Отрицательная форма
Ед.	I shall ask. You (he, she, it) will ask.	Shall I ask? Will you (he, she, it) ask?	I shall not ask. You (he, she, it) will not ask.
Мн.	We shall ask. You (they) will ask.	Shall we ask? Will you (they) ask?	We shall not ask. You (they) will not ask.

Группа временных форм Continuous

Формы глагола в Present Continuous

Число	Утвердительная форма	Вопросительная форма	Отрицательная форма
Ед.	I am asking. You are asking. He (she, it) is asking.	Am I asking? Are you asking? Is he (she, it) asking?	I am not asking. You are not asking. He (she, it) is not asking.
Мн.	We (you, they) are asking.	Are we (you, they) asking?	We (you, they) are not asking.

Present Continuous употребляется для выражения действия, длящегося в настоящий момент или период. Указание на время типа **now** (сейчас), **at the moment** (в данный момент) может быть либо выражено, либо подразумеваться.

С глаголами, которые обозначают не действие, а состояние, **Present Continuous** обычно не употребляется:

- to feel (чувствовать)
- to be (быть, находиться)
- to live (жить)
- to stay (оставаться)
- to hear (слышать)
- to see (видеть)
- to know (знать)
- to remember (помнить)
- to think (думать)
- to want (хотеть)
- to like (любить, нравиться)
- to love (любить)

Формы глагола в Past Continuous

Число	Утвердительная форма	Вопросительная форма	Отрицательная форма
Ед.	I (he, she, it) was asking . You were asking.	Was I (he, she, it) asking? Were you asking?	I (he, she, it) was not asking . You were not asking.
Мн.	We (you, they) were asking .	Were we (you, they) asking?	We (you, they) were not asking .

Past Continuous обычно употребляется для выражения конкретного действия, длившегося в точно указанный момент или период в прошлом.

Формы глагола в Future Continuous

Число	Утвердительная форма	Вопросительная форма	Отрицательная форма
Ед.	I shall be asking . You (he, she, it) will be asking .	Shall I be asking? Will you (he, she, it) be asking?	I shall not be asking . You (he, she, it) will not be asking .

Число	Утвердительная форма	Вопросительная форма	Отрицательная форма
Мн.	We shall be asking. You (they) will be asking.	Shall we be asking? Will you (they) be asking?	We shall not be asking. You (they) will not be asking.

Future Continuous употребляется для выражения действия, которое будет длиться в точно указанный момент или период в будущем.

Глаголы в формах Continuous описывают действие как *процесс*, как *длительность* — в определенный момент в прошлом, настоящем или будущем:

I am going to school (now). — Я иду в школу (сейчас, в настоящий момент).

I was reading a book yesterday at 5 o'clock. — Я читал книгу вчера в 5 часов.

I will be watching TV tomorrow at 7 o'clock. — Я буду смотреть телевизор завтра в семь часов.

Помимо этой функции, глаголы в Present Continuous выражают действие, отнесенное в ближайшее будущее:

We are leaving for Moscow in July. — Мы уезжаем в Москву в июле.

Группа временных форм Perfect

Present perfect

Present Perfect образуется при помощи вспомогательного глагола **to have** в настоящем времени (**have, has**) и третьей формы смыслового глагола. В вопросительном предложении вспомогательный глагол ставится перед подлежащим. В отрицательном предложении

после вспомогательного глагола ставится отрицание *not*.

Формы глагола в Present Perfect

Число	Утвердительная форма	Вопросительная форма	Отрицательная форма
Ед.	I (you) have asked . He (she, it) has asked .	Have I (you) asked? Has he (she, it) asked?	I (you) have not asked . He (she, it) has not asked .
Мн.	We (you, they) have asked .	Have we (you, they) asked?	We (you, they) have not asked .

Формы глагола в Past Perfect

Число	Утвердительная форма	Вопросительная форма	Отрицательная форма
Ед. и мн.	I (you, he, she, it, we, they) had asked .	Had I (you, he, she, it, we, they) asked?	I (you, he, she, it, we, they) had not asked .

Past Perfect употребляется:

а) для выражения действия, завершившегося до какого-либо момента или другого действия в прошлом:

He had read the book by 10 o'clock yesterday. Он прочел книгу до десяти часов (к десяти часам) вечера

When we came to the airport the plane had already landed. Когда мы приехали в аэропорт, самолет уже приземлился.

б) в предложениях, в которых одно действие завершилось до другого действия, длящегося в прошлом:

He had read the book and was watching TV when I came. Когда я пришел, он уже прочитал книгу и смотрел телевизор.

Формы глагола в Future Perfect

Число	Утвердительная форма	Вопросительная форма	Отрицательная форма
Ед.	I shall have asked. You (he, she, it) will have asked.	Shall I have asked? Will you (he, she, it) have asked?	I shall not have asked. You (he, she, it) will not have asked.
Мн.	We shall have asked. You (they) will have asked.	Shall we have asked? Will you (they) have asked?	We shall not have asked. You (they) will not have asked.


Future Perfect употребляется для выражения действия, которое будет происходить до определенного момента или другого действия в будущем и завершится или прекратится до него.

Глаголы в формах **Perfect** выражают действие *завершенное*, приведшее к определенному *результату* (или к отсутствию результата).

I have written the letter. (Present Perfect) – Я (только что) написал письмо (передо мной письмо как результат).


I had written the letter when he came. (Past Perfect) – Я написал письмо, когда он пришел. (2 действия, одно завершилось раньше другого)

I will have written the letter by 10 o'clock tomorrow. (Future Perfect) – Я напишу письмо к 10 часам завтра. (действие завершится к определенному моменту времени в будущем).


 **5.6.** Вставьте *to write* в нужной форме:

1. We often ... letters to our parents.

2. What ... you ... now?
3. Yesterday we ... tests from 10 till 12 o'clock.
4. Who ... this letter?
5. I ... some letters last week.
6. What ... you ... tomorrow at 10?
7. When I came to her, she ... a letter.
8. ... you ... letters tomorrow?
9. I ... not ... this letter now. I ... it in some days.
10. ... he ... his homework now?
11. What ... she ... in the evening yesterday?
12. As a rule, he ... tests well.


 **5.7. Раскройте скобки, укажите время глагола:**

1. He (know) several foreign languages.
2. I (learn) English at school.
3. Usually the lessons (begin) at 9 o'clock.
4. Our grandparents (live) now in Moscow.
5. He often (visit) them last year.
6. As a rule I (go) to my school by bus.
7. She (work) abroad next year.
8. She (not like) loud music.
9. Your children usually (ask) many questions.
10. At present he (work) at school.
11. My brother (like) music.
12. What you (do) yesterday?
13. His sister (go) to the seaside next July.
14. Soon we (leave) the school.
15. Who (take) his book yesterday?


 **5.8. Поставьте глаголы, данные в скобках, в нужную форму:**

1. Peter and Ann (go) away five minutes ago.
2. I (write) the letter but I (not send) it.
3. He just (go) away.

4. She already (answer) the letter. She (answer) it on Tuesday. 5. I just (tell) you the answer. 6. I (read) that book during my summer holidays. 7. I (not see) him for three years. I (be) glad to see him again some time. 8. What you (do)? I (copy) the text from the text-book now. 9. He (go) to Moscow next week? 10. He (not smoke) for a month. He is trying to give it up. 11. When he (arrive)? – He (arrive) at 2.00. 12. You (switch off) the light before you left the house? 13. I (read) these books when I was at school. I (like) them very much. 14. I can't go out because I (not finish) my work. 15. I already (tell) you the answer yesterday. 16. What you (do) tomorrow in the morning?

 **5.9.** *Переведите предложения на английский язык, обращая внимание на форму глагола сказуемого:*

1. Я никогда об этом не слышал. 2. Я только-что прочитал ваше письмо. 3. Вы уже купили новую квартиру? 4. Вы сделали много ошибок в диктанте. 5. Вы когда-нибудь видели этого человека? 6. В этом месяце я прочитал две новых книги. 7. Мой друг уехал в Москву неделю назад и еще не писал мне. 8. Я не видел новых фильмов за последнее время (lately). 9. Вы прочитали сегодня в газете о нашем новом театре? 10. Вы были когда-нибудь в Лондоне? – Нет, я поеду туда в этом году. 11. Вы уже прочитали эту книгу? 12. Я хотел посмотреть этот фильм на прошлой неделе, но смог посмотреть его только вчера.


 **5.10.** *Переделайте следующие предложения в вопросительно-отрицательные и дайте краткие ответы:*

Образец:


They are at home. – Aren't they at home? – Yes, they are. – No, they aren't.

Они дома. — Разве они не дома? — Да, они дома. — Нет, они не дома.

1. They left for Moscow.
2. He has finished his work.
3. She will visit us on Sunday.
4. She has many relatives.
5. His father works here.
6. You know his address.
7. We shall go home together.
8. He can play chess.
9. His friends were playing football.
10. You have done the task.


 **5.11. Переведите на английский язык используя Past Continuous:**

1. Он писал письмо, когда я пришел к нему. 2. Он делал свою работу, пока его братья играли в футбол. 3. Я упал, когда играл в футбол. 4. Мы делали уроки, когда пошел дождь. 5. Когда учитель писал на доске, новая ученица вошла в класс. 6. Когда зазвонил телефон, я работал в саду. 7. Я увидел своих одноклассников, когда я шел по улице. 8. Начался дождь, когда мы наблюдали за игрой.


 **5.12. Поставьте глаголы в скобках в одно из прошедших времен:**

1. When I (came) the lecture already (start). 2 They (go) to Moscow some days ago. 3. When I came he (leave), so we only had time for a few words. 4. When we (come) to the airport, the plane already (land). 5. He suddenly (understand) that he (travel) in the wrong direction. 6. Our teacher (speak) many foreign languages. 7. Who (speak) now? 8. Where is Bob? He (play) tennis. 9. I (go)

home when we met. 10. Listen, my son (play) the piano. 11. They already (translate) this text last lesson. 12. You (do) this exercise next week. 13. We (discuss) your plan tomorrow at 10 o'clock. 14. It (rain) when I went for a walk. 15. What you (do) here? 16. I (not, write) at the moment.

 **5.13.** *Определите временную форму глаголов и переведите на английский язык:*

1. Вчера в 9 часов вечера я смотрел телевизор. 2. Она сказала, что еще не выполнила домашнее Задание. 3. Когда пришел мой друг, я еще завтракал. 4. Когда я встретил ее впервые, она работала в школе. 5. Все студенты выполнили задание после того, как преподаватель рассказал им, как его делать. 6. Когда мы вышли на улицу, ярко светило солнце. 7. Мой друг сказал, что его брат уже приехал. 8. Я читал книгу, когда услышал телефонный звонок. 9. После того, как врач осмотрел (to examine) больного, он поговорил с его родственниками, 10. Когда мы пришли на остановку (bus stop), автобус уже ушел. 11. Он смотрел телевизор, когда пришел его друг. 12. Каждый вечер я смотрю телевизор. 14. Служащие (the clerks) заканчивают работу в шесть часов вечера.

 **5.14.** *Приведены способы образования утвердительных и отрицательных форм кратких ответов типа «Я тоже». Переведите предложения.*

1. He doesn't understand anything. – Neither do I.
2. She can swim well. – So, can I.
3. I didn't see this film. – Neither did he.
4. You like to read. – So do I.
5. They haven't had breakfast. – Neither have I.
6. He is lucky. – So am I.
7. I don't work at the office. – Neither does he.

Согласование времен в главном и придаточном предложениях

В английском сложноподчиненном предложении с придаточным дополнительным (вопрос «что?» «кто?», «чего?» и т.д.) соблюдаются *правила согласования времен* в главном и придаточном предложениях. Эти правила сводятся к следующему:

1. Если глагол-сказуемое главного предложения стоит в *настоящем* или *будущем* времени, то глагол-сказуемое придаточного дополнительного предложения может стоять в *любой* временной форме, требуемой смыслом, например:

He says you are right. — Он говорит, что ты прав.

He will tell why he was not at school yesterday. — Он скажет, почему он не был в школе вчера.

2. Если глагол-сказуемое главного предложения стоит в *прошедшем* времени (обычно — в *Past Indefinite*), то и глагол дополнительного придаточного предложения должен стоять в одном из прошедших времен, в том числе — в будущем с точки зрения прошедшего (*Future in the Past*).

He said he would not go to school tomorrow. — Он сказал, что не пойдет в школу завтра.

При этом для обозначения действия, *одновременного* с действием, выраженным сказуемым главного предложения, употребляется *Past Continuous* (в русском языке — настоящее время) или *Past Indefinite*.

He told me he was preparing for his exam. — Он сказал мне, что готовится к экзамену.


Для обозначения действия, *предшествующего* действию, выраженному сказуемым главного предложения, обычно употребляется *Past Perfect*. На русский язык глагол-сказуемое придаточного в данном случае переводится глаголом в прошедшем времени:

I didn't know he had left for Moscow. — Я не знал, что он уехал в Москву.


При указании определенного времени (in 1980, yesterday) предшествующее время выражается при помощи *Past Indefinite*. Например: *I thought you were born in 1980.*

Для выражения будущего времени с точки зрения прошедшего времени употребляется форма *Future-in-the Past* где вспомогательный глагол *will* меняется на *would*, которая на русский язык переводится будущим временем:

He told me that he would meet me at the college. — Он сказал мне, что встретит меня в колледже.

 **5.15.** Составьте предложения, используя слова из колонок:

He thinks	he would go to Moscow tomorrow.
He said that	he will be an economist.
He says	he knows mathematics well.
He thought	he would be a good specialist.
	he has translated the text.
	he had passed his exams.
	he knew English well.

 **5.16.** Поставьте глаголы в нужную временную форму, соблюдая правило согласования времен. Переведите предложения.

1. I did not know that you already (to read) this book
2. He did it better than we (to expect).
3. He said that the bus (to be) here soon.
4. He told us that he (to do) this work himself.
5. They decided that they (to bring) us all the books we need.
6. He said that he (can) not do it without my help.
7. I decided that next year I (to go)

to the Black Sea coast. 8. It was decided that we (to begin) our work at eight o'clock. 9. I told them that I (to leave) for Minsk next day. 10. The boy did not know that he already (to receive) a good mark. 11. The students wanted to know when they (to pass) their examinations. 12. We saw that our teacher just (to go out) and he (to come back) soon. 13. He said we (may) keep the books as long as we (to like). 14. We knew that he not (to be able) to make his work in time and (to decide) to help him. 15. We understood at once that this control work (to be) a difficult one.

🗨️ 5.17. Прочитайте следующие слова, пользуясь знаками транскрипции, и найдите их русские эквиваленты:

address [ə'dres]

association [ə'sousi'eɪʃn]

attack [ə'tæk]

banana [bə'nɑ:nə]

platform ['plætfɔ:m]

tropical ['trɒpɪkəl]

territory ['terɪtəri]

flora ['terɪtəri]

fauna ['fɔ:nə]

zone ['zoun]

climate ['klaɪmɪt]

arctic ['ɑ:ktɪk]

continent ['kɒntɪnənt]

subtropical ['sʌb, trɒpɪkəl]

metal ['metl]

orbit ['ɔ:bit]

autonomous [ˌɔ:tənəməs]

political [pə'lɪtɪkəl]

cultural ['kʌltʃərəl]

official [ə'fɪʃəl]
electrical [ɪ'lektrɪkəl]
constitutional [ˌkɒnstɪ'tʃu:ʃənəl]
national [ˈnæʃənəl]
symbol [ˈsɪmbəl]
federation [ˌfedə'reɪʃən]
cooperation [ˌkəʊ.ɒpə'reɪʃən]
mineral [ˈmɪnərəl]
architecture [ˈɑ:kɪtektʃə]
architect [ˈɑ:kɪtekt]
monument [ˈmɒnjumənt]
ocean [ˈoʊʃən]
textile [tek'staɪl]

LESSON 6

Text 1

THE UNITED KINGDOM

The United Kingdom, officially the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, is an island nation and constitutional monarchy in north-western Europe.

Great Britain is the largest of the British Isles. It comprises, together with **numerous** smaller islands, England and Scotland, and the **principality** of Wales. Northern Ireland, also known as Ulster, occupies the north-eastern part of the island of Ireland.

The United Kingdom is bordered to the south by the **English Channel**, which separates it from continental Europe, to the east by the **North Sea**, and to the west by the Irish Sea and the Atlantic Ocean. The only land border is between Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland. The total area of the United Kingdom is 242,752 sq km. The capital and largest city is London.

The names «United Kingdom», «Great Britain», and «England» are often used **interchangeably**. The use of «Great Britain», often shortened to «Britain», to describe the whole kingdom is common and widely **accepted**, although **strictly speaking** it does not **include** Northern Ireland.

However, the use of «England» to mean the «United Kingdom» is not acceptable to members of the other **constituent** countries, especially the Scots and the Welsh.

England and Wales were united **administratively**, politically, and **legally** by 1543. The crowns of England and Scotland were united in 1603, but the two countries remained separate political **entities** until the 1707 Act of Union, which formed the Kingdom of Great Britain with a **single** legislature. From 1801, when Great Britain and Ireland were united, until the formal establishment of the Irish Free State in 1922, the kingdom was officially designated the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

Hong Kong, which has 200,000 of the 6 million combined population of the **dependencies**, was returned to China in 1997.

The maximum **overall length** of the United Kingdom is 1,264 km: the most northerly point is Out Stack in the Shetland Islands. The most southerly is St Agnes in the Scilly Isles. The kingdom's **maximum width** is 670 km. The mainland of the island of Great Britain is 974 km at its longest and 531 km at its widest; however, the highly **indented** nature of the island's coastline means that nowhere is more than about 120 km from the sea.

Relative to its size, the **scenery** of the United Kingdom is very diverse and can change **dramatically** within short distances. This diversity reflects in part the underlying rocks, which range from the ancient mountains of the Highlands of Scotland to the recent **deposits** in eastern England.

All of the United Kingdom, except the area of England south of the Thames, was covered with ice during the ice age, and **glaciation** shaped its most **spectacular** scenery, including the English Lake District, the loughs of Northern Ireland, the Welsh **valleys**, and most of Scotland, including the lakes.

The climate of the United Kingdom is mild relative to its latitude, which is the same as that of Labrador in

Canada. The mildness is an effect of the warm Gulf Stream. This current brings the **prevailing** south-westerly winds that **moderate** winter temperatures and bring the **depressions** which are the main day-to-day influence on the weather. The western side of the United Kingdom tends to be warmer than the eastern; the south is warmer than the north. The **mean** annual temperature is 6° C in the far north of Scotland; 11° C in the south-west of England. Winter temperatures are seldom below -10° C and summer temperatures rarely higher than 32° C . The sea winds also bring plenty of moisture; **average annual precipitation** is more than 1,000 mm.


Rain tends to fall throughout the year, frequently turning to snow in the winter, especially in Scotland, the mountains of Wales, and northern England. The western side of Britain is much wetter than the eastern: average rainfall varies from more than 5,000 mm in the western Highlands of Scotland, to less than 500 mm in parts of East Anglia in England.

The population of United Kingdom is more than 56 mln people, but it is one of the world's leading commercial and industrialized nations. **In terms of** gross national product (GNP) it ranks fifth in the world, with Italy, after the United States, Japan, Germany, and France.


VOCABULARY:

island nation островное государство	principality княжество
constitutional monarchy конституционная монархия	North Sea Северное море
European Union Европейский союз	interchangeably взаимозаменяемо
to comprise включать	to accept принимать, допускать
numerous многочисленные	strictly speaking строго говоря
	include включать

constituent составляющий	shape форма
administratively административно	spectacular впечатляющий
entities <i>зд.</i> субъекты	valley долина
single <i>зд.</i> единая	latitude [ˈlætɪtjuːd] широта геогр.
dependencies находящийся в зависимости	prevailing преобладающий
overall length [lɔŋθ] общая протяженность	moderate [prɪˈveɪlɪŋ] уме- ренный
maximum width [wɪdθ] максимальная ширина	depressions циклоны
indented <i>зд.</i> изрезанная	mean средний
scenery [ˈsiːnəri] пейзаж	average annual precipita- tion среднегодовое количество осадков
dramatically резко	in terms of говоря о чем- либо
diversity [daɪˈvɜːsɪti] разно- образии	GNP (Gross National Product) валовой националь- ный продукт.
deposits [dɪˈpɒzɪts] отложения	
glaciation обледенение	

 **6.1.** *Переведите на английский.*

1. Официальное название Великобритании – Соединенное Королевство Великобритании и Северной Ирландии.
2. Соединенное королевство является конституционной монархией.
3. Северная Ирландия занимает северо-восточную часть острова Ирландия.
4. Ла-Манш отделяет Соединенное Королевство от континентальной Европы.

 **6.2.** *Используйте следующие выражения для пересказа текста:*

1. As I understood from the text ...
2. According to the text ...
3. According to the author ...

4. As it is described in the text ...
5. As it is said in the text ...
6. As the author puts it ...
7. According to the figures (data, information, opinions) from the text ...

 **Text 2**

THE ECONOMY OF GREAT BRITAIN

The United Kingdom has a developed **mixed private- and public-enterprise economy** and ranks among the top industrial countries in **growth rates**, productivity, and competitiveness. The gross national product (GNP) is growing faster than the population. The **GNP per capita** is among that of most other European countries.

The state sector was reduced during the 1980s and 1990s owing to policies of **privatization, or denationalization**, of **publicly owned corporations**. There was also an improvement in the **standard of living**. Unemployment and **inflation rates** were **gradually reduced** but remained high.

Nowadays, government policies include the close monitoring and frequent **adjustment of interest rates**; a gradual reduction in the level of **direct personal taxation**; a reduction in the levels of power and influence of national trade unions in national labour negotiations; the **encouragement** of wider **home ownership** and of individuals' **share holdings** in companies. Considerable emphasis is placed on increased **exposure of the economy to market forces**. The government controls the production of coal, steel, and ships, it also runs certain **utilities**, the railways, and most civil aviation.

Manufacturing industries account for **one-fifth** of the GNP. Small companies predominate, though

companies with 500 or more employees employ a larger percentage of the work force. Major manufactures include motor vehicles, aerospace equipment, electronic data-processing and telecommunication equipment, metal goods, precision instruments, petrochemicals, and other chemicals. High-technology industries are being developed.

Agriculture accounts for less than 2 percent of the GNP and employs **some 2 percent** of the work force. Farming is highly mechanized, though farms are not extremely large, and is dominated by the raising of sheep and cattle. The United Kingdom is not agriculturally self-sufficient. Chief crops include barley, wheat, sugar beets, and potatoes.

The mineral industry accounts for **approximately 6** percent of the GNP but employs less than 1 percent of the work force. Production from oil fields in the North Sea has allowed the United Kingdom to become **virtually self-sufficient in** petroleum. The United Kingdom's coal industry, despite its **steady decline** since the early 1950s, remains one of the largest and most technologically advanced in Europe.

Public **revenues** ordinarily **fall short of expenditures** and are chiefly derived from **income taxes**, which are highly progressive, and **excises**. A single **graduated income tax** was introduced in 1973. **Deficits are offset by public borrowing**. The country (as well as its capital) is a major world financial and **banking centre**.

Chief imports of Great Britain are: metallic ores, except iron ore, food. Chief exports are: china, automobiles and other vehicles, wooden goods, steel, electrical and mechanical machinery, tractors, scientific instruments, chemicals, petroleum.


Just under half of the total population is in the **labour force**. The highest proportion of employees (more than

two-thirds) are in the service sectors, financial services and distribution. Manufacturing, although it has declined, employs more than one-fifth of all workers. Smaller numbers are in construction, energy, agriculture, forestry, and fishing.

VOCABULARY


to account for составлять долю	electronic data processing equipment электронное оборудование для обра- ботки информации
adjustment регулирование	to exceed превышать
approximately приближи- тельно	excise акциз
as much as целый (о большом количестве)	expenditure расход
banking centre банковский центр	exposure <i>зд.</i> непринятие защитных мер от воз- действия чего-л.
barley ячмень	to fall short не хватать
beets (sugar beets) сахар- ная свекла	to fall short of expenditures <i>зд.</i> быть меньше расхо- дов
to borrow занимать, брать в долг	forefront передний край
public borrowing государ- ственный заем	frequent частый, обычный
but <i>зд.</i> кроме, за исключе- нием	gross national product (GNP) (per capita) валовой национальный продукт (ВНП) (на душу населения)
competitiveness конкурен- тоспособность	share holdings акции
considerably значительно	lag <i>зд.</i> меньше
crop культура; урожай	manufacturing industry обрабатывающая про- мышленность
to debilitate ослаблять	marine морской
decline спад (о производ- стве)	merchant торговый
to derive происходить	mixed смешанный
to emerge <i>зд.</i> выйти из	navy флот
to encompass <i>зд.</i> включать в себя	
equipment оборудование	

negotiations переговоры	unemployment and inflation rates уровень безработицы и инфляции
labour negotiations переговоры об условиях труда	revenue доход
to offset <i>зд.</i> покрывать	self-sufficient самостоятельный, независимый экономически
owing to благодаря	share доля, акция
petrochemicals продукты нефтехимии	to shrink (shrank, shrunk) уменьшаться, сокращаться
precision instrument прецизионный (точный) инструмент	significant значительный
to predominate преобладать, господствовать	standard of living уровень жизни
to prevail преобладать, господствовать	steady устойчивый
private-and public-enterprise economy — экономика, основанная на частной и государственной собственности	tax налог
productivity производительность	graduated tax прогрессивный подоходный налог
prosperity процветание, благосостояние	taxation налогообложение
to rank занимать определенное место, быть в одном ряду с	direct personal taxation прямое налогообложение физических лиц
in growth rates по темпам роста	utilities <i>зд.</i> коммунальные услуги, услуги общественного пользования
interest rate процентная ставка	virtually фактически, в сущности
	wheat пшеница


 **6.3. Ответьте на вопросы:**

1. What is the rank of the UK in the world in terms of the GNP?
2. How did the GNP of the UK changed in years 1993-94?

3. What are the major industries in the UK?
4. When did Great Britain become a member of the EU?
5. What are the major economic problems of Great Britain?
6. What is the British government economic policy since 1979?
7. What is said in the text about the unemployment in the UK?

 **6.4.** *Используя информацию из текста докажите, что:*

1. The United Kingdom is an attractive country for foreign investors.
2. UK has many natural resources for its developed industry.
3. UK is a large market for national producers.
4. UK is a perfect place for international trade.

 **6.5.** *Согласны ли Вы со следующими утверждениями?*

1. The economy of Great Britain is among the less developed countries in growth rates and competitiveness.
2. The United Kingdom has a developed mixed private- and public enterprise economy.
3. The state sector increased considerably during the 1980s and 1990s.
4. A gradual reduction in the level of direct personal taxation is one of the actual policies of the British government.
5. Small companies predominate in the economy of the UK.
6. Agriculture accounts for more than 50 per cent of the GNP.
7. The United Kingdom's coal industry remains one of the largest and most technologically advanced in Europe.

6.6. Переведите на английский:

Государственный сектор в Великобритании был уменьшен в течение 1980-х и 1990-х вследствие политики приватизации или денационализации корпораций, находящихся в публичной собственности.

Имелось также улучшение уровня жизни.

Безработица и рост инфляции были постепенно уменьшены, но оставались высокими.

В настоящее время, правительственная политика включает в себя контроль и частое регулирование процентных ставок, постепенное сокращение уровня прямого персонального налогообложения; сокращение уровней власти и влияния национальных профсоюзов, поддержку более широкого владения собственными домами и акциями в компаниях у отдельных лиц.



ГРАММАТИКА

МОДАЛЬНЫЕ ГЛАГОЛЫ И ИХ ЭКВИВАЛЕНТЫ

Модальные глаголы показывают отношение говорящего к действию, выраженному инфинитивом. Например, сравните:

You can speak English. Вы можете (умеете) говорить по-английски.

You must speak English. Вы должны говорить по-английски. *You may speak English.* Вы можете говорить по-английски. (Вас поймут.)

Как видим, в одном и том же предложении изменение модального глагола меняет смысл всего предложения, т.е. меняется отношение к действию, выраженному инфинитивом.

Модальные глаголы не имеют форм во всех временах, для этого употребляются их эквиваленты (заменители).

Вопросительные и отрицательные предложения с модальными глаголами строятся без вспомогательных глаголов: *Can you help me? — Yes, I can. — No, I can't.* Вы можете помочь мне? — Да. — Нет.

К основным модальным глаголам относятся:

Модальный глагол *can*

can — мочь, быть в состоянии,

could — прошедшее время

предполагает наличие физической, умственной и прочих возможностей, позволяющих сделать что-либо:

I can swim. — Я могу (я умею) плавать.

I could translate this text. — (Я мог, был в состоянии) перевести этот текст.

Вежливую просьбу можно начинать с модального глагола **could**:

Could you help me, please! — Не могли бы вы помочь мне, пожалуйста!

В будущем времени у глагола *can* есть заменитель — конструкция **to be able to** (быть в состоянии что-либо сделать): *I shall be able to help you when I am free.* — Я смогу помочь тебе, когда освобожусь.

Модальный глагол *may*

may — иметь возможность, получить разрешение (делать что-либо),

May I help you? — Можно вам помочь? — *Yes, you may.* — Да, можно.

Форма прошедшего времени **might** употребляется для выражения предположения:

He might know about it. — Он, вероятно, знал об этом.

В будущем времени у модального глагола *may* есть заменитель — конструкция **to be allowed to** (получить разрешение сделать что-либо).

He will be allowed to take the book. Ему разрешат взять книгу.

Модальный глагол *must*

must — должен, обязан.

You must write it down now. — Вы должны написать это сейчас.

Заменителями глагола *must* являются глаголы **to have to** и **to be to**, которые имеют некоторые дополнительные оттенки значения. Глагол *have to* означает долженствование, вызванное обстоятельствами, вынужденную необходимость, в то время как глагол **to be to** — долженствование, связанное с расписанием, планом или заранее сделанной договоренностью.

She had to stay at home. — Она вынуждена была (ей пришлось) остаться дома.

The train was to arrive at 8 in the evening. — Поезд должен был прибыть в 8 вечера. (По расписанию).

После модальных глаголов и некоторых их эквивалентов инфинитив употребляется без частицы *to*.

Заменителями модального глагола *must* являются также модальные глаголы **ought to**, **should** (в значении совета, рекомендации, упрёка).

Children ought to obey their parents. — Дети должны слушать своих родителей.

You should enter the Institute. Вам следует поступить в институт (рекомендация, совет),

В сочетании с перфектным инфинитивом глагол **should** выражает сожаление о невыполненном действии и переводится «следовало бы».

You should have helped them. Вам следовало бы помочь им. (Но вы не сделали этого).

Модальный глагол *should*

Модальный глагол **should** в сочетании с перфектным инфинитивом **should have done** выражает действия, которые должны были произойти в прошлом, но по каким-то причинам не произошли, переводится на русский язык «следовало», «нужно было».

You should have helped them.

Вам следовало помочь им.

You should have done this.

Вам следовало это сделать. (упрек)

This work should have been done yesterday.

Эту работу нужно было сделать вчера.

Модальный глагол *would*

Модальный глагол **would** может иметь следующие значения:

1) Вежливая просьба. *Would you help me?* Не можете ли вы мне?

2) Повторяемость действия в прошлом. *He would often help me.* Он, бывало, часто помогал мне.


3) Стойкое нежелание совершать какие-либо действия. *He wouldn't listen to me.* Он никак не хотел слушать меня.

Модальный глагол *need*


Модальный глагол **need** — «нужно, надо» употребляется, в основном, в отрицательных предложениях. *You needn't do it now.* Вам не нужно делать это сейчас.

Модальный глагол *shall*


Модальный глагол **shall** употребляется в тех случаях, когда испрашивается разрешение на совершение какого-либо действия, и является иногда заменителем модального глагола *must*. *Shall I help you?* Вам помочь? *Shall we translate the text?* Нам переводить текст?

 **6.7.** *Переведите предложения. Проанализируйте употребление модальных глаголов в следующих предложениях:*

1. Who is to answer my question?
2. Nobody could translate this text.
3. He has to do this task at once.
4. Must I attend this meeting? - No, you needn't.
5. You should have shown your notes to the teacher.
6. I asked him, but he wouldn't listen to me.
7. They should have visited her, she was in the hospital.
8. Last summer we would often go to the country.
9. He could do this work himself.
10. Would you tell me the way to the station?
11. Your friend might have informed us.
12. May I leave for a while? - Yes, you may.
13. She should be more attentive to her parents.
14. You needn't come so early.


 **6.8.** *Переведите предложения на русский язык:*

1. We have to stay at home. 2. He was allowed to take this book. 3. Who is able to do this work? 4. He had to leave for Moscow earlier. 5. We are to take exams in June. 6. Are they allowed to visit you? 7. They were able to do this work in time. 8. I'll be able to pass my examinations. 9. She'll be allowed to watch TV. 10. I have to come in time. 11. The train is to come soon. 12. Will you be able to drive a car?


 **6.9.** *Замените модальные глаголы соответствующими эквивалентами:*

1. He couldn't explain anything. 2. You must not stay here. 3. Can you swim? 4. You may take these books. 5. They can run quickly. 6. She might work in our room. 7. Who can read this text? 8. They must go there

tomorrow. 9. May I go to the cinema? 10. We must meet at 7 o'clock.


 **6.10.** Вставьте необходимые модальные глаголы: (*must, should, would, ought to, have to, needn't, can, could, may*)

1. I ... not go to the theatre with them last night, I ... revise the grammar rules and the words for the test. 2. My friend lives a long way from his office and ... get up early. 3. All of us ... be in time for classes. 4. When my friend has his English, he ... stay at the office after work. He (not) ... stay at the office on Tuesday, Thursday and Saturday and ... get home early. 5. ... you ... work hard to do well in your English? 6. «... we discuss this question now?» «No, we We ... do it tomorrow afternoon.» 7. I'm glad you ... come. 8. «... you ... come and have dinner with us tomorrow?» «I'd love to.» 9. «Please send them this article.» «Oh, ... I do it now?»


 **6.11.** Заполните пропуски соответствующими модальными глаголами:

(*must, should, would, ought to, have to, needn't, can, could, may*)

1. They ... not do this work themselves
2. You ... take my dictionary.
3. You don't look well, you ... consult the doctor.
4. Why ... I give you my money?
5. She ... not speak any foreign language.
6. He ... to help them, they need his help.
7. ... you tell me the time?
8. ... I go with you? No, you
9. Your daughter ... have told about it.
10. In winter we ... often skate.
11. You ... no. miss your classes.
12. ... you play the piano before?

 **6.12.** *Переведите предложения:*

1. This building should have been constructed a year ago.
2. The letter should have been sent long ago.
3. The preventive measures should have been taken long before.
4. We should not have used that sort of paper for this model of printer.
5. This phenomenon should be explained by economic laws.

 **6.13.** *Переведите предложения:*

1. Письмо нужно было отправить вчера. Но этого сделано не было.
2. Вам следовало упомянуть об этом в вашем ответе.
3. Этот документ следовало направить на подпись вчера.
4. Вам нужно было связаться с фирмой немедленно.
5. Им не следовало отправлять документ на имя управляющего фирмой.



ГРАММАТИКА

ЧИСЛИТЕЛЬНЫЕ (THE NUMERALS)

Числительные обозначают количество предметов или порядок предметов при счете.

Числительные делятся на количественные, отвечающие на вопрос «сколько?» и порядковые, отвечающие на вопрос «который?».

Количественные числительные от 13 до 19 образуются прибавлением суффикса **-teen** к основе.

Числительные, обозначающие десятки, имеют суффикс **-ty**. Порядковые числительные кроме первых трех

(first, second, third) образуются прибавлением суффикса -th или -eth к соответствующим количественным числительным. Существительные с порядковыми числительными всегда употребляются с определенным артиклем.

Количественные СКОЛЬКО?

1	one	—	один
2	two	—	два
3	three	—	три
4	four	—	четыре
5	five		
6	six		
7	seven		
8	eight		
9	nine		
10	ten		
11	eleven		
12	twelve		
13	thirteen		
14	fourteen		
15	fifteen		
16	sixteen		
17	seventeen		
18	eighteen		
19	nineteen		
20	twenty		

Десятки:

20	twenty—the twentieth
30	thirty — the thirtieth
40	forty — the fortieth
50	fifty — the fiftieth
60	sixty — the sixtieth

Порядковые КАКОЙ ПО СЧЕТУ?

the first	первый
the second	второй
the third	третий
the fourth	четвертый
the fifth	
the sixth	
the seventh	
the eighth	
the ninth	
the tenth	
the eleventh	
the twelfth	
the thirteenth	
the fourteenth	
the fifteenth	
the sixteenth	
the seventeenth	
the eighteenth	
the nineteenth	
the twentieth	

Составные числительные:

twenty-one	—
the twenty-first	
twenty-two	—
the twenty-second	
thirty-three	— the thirty-third
forty-four	— the forty-fourth

Как читаются даты?

Числительное, обозначающее год, делится на две части – число сотен, а затем – число десятков и единиц.

1900 – nineteen hundred, in (the year) nineteen hundred

2000 – two thousand, in (the year) two thousand

1905 – nineteen five, in (the year) nineteen five

Даты можно читать так:


April 12, 2001

1) on the twelfth of April, two thousand one


2) on April the twelfth, two thousand one

В английских деловых письмах дата (день, месяц, год) печатается справа. Обычно дата печатается полностью, а не в цифровом выражении, напр. 12 Apr. 2003. Названия месяцев можно писать в сокращении, кроме May.

В американских деловых письмах дата пишется иначе, так как в США обозначается сначала месяц, затем день и год. Например: 2 сентября 2000 года в американском варианте лучше написать September 2, 2000.

 **6.15.** *Напишите цифрами следующие даты:*


- a) The first of March nineteen seventy-six.
- b) The fifth of December two thousand.
- c) The sixteenth of May nineteen five.
- d) The third of July nineteen hundred.

 **6.16.** *Напишите по-английски:*

1) 7 марта 1999 года; 2) 1 сентября 1974 года; 3) 22 апреля 1911 года; 4) 11 марта 1951 года; 5) 12 декабря 2024 года.

Как читаются дробные числительные?

Простые	Десятичные
1/2 – a (one) half;	0.1 -O[ou] point one
1/4 – a (one) quarter	2.45 – two point four five
2/3 – two thirds	35.25 – three five (или thirty- five) point two five
	1.5 – one and a half

 6.17. Напишите цифрами дробные числа:
Простые:

1) A (one) half 2) two thirds 3) a (one) quarter 4) three fourths 5) two and a (one) half 6) five and one sixth 7) a (one) fifth.

Десятичные:

1) Zero (zero /ou) point two 2) two point four five 3) four point five 4) three four (thirty four) point one zero two 5) zero point zero one 6) six point three five 7) fifty eight point three zero five.

Обозначения времени:

Если минутная стрелка находится в правой части циферблата – используется предлог **past**,

It's ten **past** eleven. 10 минут двенадцатого.

It's a quarter **past** eleven. Четверть двенадцатого.

It's half **past** eleven. Половина двенадцатого.

Если минутная стрелка находится в левой части циферблата, то используется предлог **to**

It's ten **to** twelve. Без десяти двенадцать.

It's a quarter **to** twelve. Без четверти двенадцать.

It's twenty minutes Без двадцати минут

to twelve.

двенадцать.

It is eleven sharp.

Ровно одиннадцать.

Время до полудня обозначается **a.m.** (от лат. ante meridiem), а после полудня **p.m.** (от лат. post meridiem).

Например:

10 a.m. – Десять часов утра.

6 p.m. – Шесть часов вечера.

☛ 6.18. Скажите по-английски время:

A)

8.05, 8.10, 8.15, 8.20, 8.25, 8.30

8.35, 8.45, 8.50, 8.55, 9.00

B)

1. Без двадцати двенадцать.

2. Без четверти три.

3. Половина пятого.

4. Четверть седьмого.

5. Десять минут второго.

6. Ровно двенадцать часов.

Дни недели (употребляются с предлогом on)

Monday [ˈmʌndɪ] – понедельник

Tuesday [ˈtju:zdi] – вторник

Wednesday [ˈwenzdi] – среда

Thursday [ˈθə:zdi] – четверг

Friday [ˈfraɪdi] – пятница

Saturday [ˈsætədi] – суббота

Sunday [ˈsʌndi] – воскресенье

Месяцы (употребляются с предлогом in)

January [ˈdʒenjuəri]

February [ˈfebruəri]

March [ma:tʃ]

April [eɪprɪl]

May [meɪ]

June [dʒu:n]

July [dʒuˈlaɪ]

August [ɔ:gəst]

September [sepˈtembə]

October [ɒkˈtəʊbə]

November [nəʊˈvembə]

December [dɪˈsembə]

Времена года (употребляются с предлогом in)

spring [sprɪŋ] весна

summer [ˈsʌmə] лето

autumn [ˈɔ:təm] осень

winter [wɪntə] зима

yesterday – вчера

Запомните следующие слова и выражения:

a watch – часы (наручные, карманные)

a clock – часы (стенные, настольные)

My watch is five minutes fast. – Мои часы спешат на 5 минут.

My watch is five minutes slow. – Мои часы отстают на 5 минут.

What day is it today? – Какой сегодня день (недели)?

What date is it today? – Какое сегодня число?

What time is it now? – Который час?

What is the time? – Который час?

Выражения, связанные со временем

yesterday – вчера

the day before yesterday – позавчера

today – сегодня

tonight – сегодня вечером

tomorrow – завтра

the day after tomorrow – послезавтра

a fortnight – две недели

from 10 till 12 – с 10 до 12

half an hour – полчаса

10 days ago – 10 дней назад

It's time to ... – пора (делать что-либо)

in an hour's time – в течение часа

in time – вовремя (не слишком поздно; так, чтобы успеть)


on time – вовремя (точно по плану)

in the middle of ... – в середине

this week (month, year) – на этой неделе (в этом месяце, году)

next week – на следующей неделе


last week – на прошлой неделе

 **6.19.** *Переведите на английский язык.*

A. 220 дней; 1500 человек; 20545 книг; около 100 страниц; почти 300 тетрадей.

B. первый автобус; вторая страница; миллионный посетитель; часть первая; номер десятый.

C. два миллиона человек, миллионы книг, триста восемьдесят пять страниц, двадцать первое декабря 1997 г., двенадцатое марта 2003 г., одна четвертая, три пятых, ноль целых двадцать пять сотых, четыре целых и пять шестых, две целых и сто пять тысячных.

 **6.20.** *Read and translate the text:*

Numerals

Numerals are signs or symbols for graphic representation of numbers. The earliest forms of numerical nota-

tion were simply groups of straight lines, either vertical or horizontal, each line corresponding to the number 1. Such a system was inconvenient when dealing with large numbers.

Roman Numerals

The system of number symbols created by the Romans expresses all numbers from 1 to 1,000,000 with the help of seven symbols:

$$I = 1$$

$$V = 5$$

$$X = 10$$

$$L = 50$$

$$C = 100$$

$$D = 500$$

$$M = 1,000$$

Roman numerals are read from left to right. The symbols are usually added together. For example:

$$IV = 4$$

$$VI = 6$$

$$LX = 60$$

$$XL = 40$$

$$MMII = 2002$$

$$MCMLVII = 1957$$

A small bar placed over the numeral multiplies the numeral by 1,000.

Thus, theoretically, it is possible, by using an infinite number of bars, to express the numbers from 1 to infinity. In practice, however, one bar is usually used; two are rarely used, and more than two are almost never used. Roman numerals are still used today, more than 2,000 years after their introduction. The Roman system's only drawback is that it is not suitable for rapid written calculations.

Arabic Numerals

The Arabic system of numerical notation is used in most parts of the world today. This system was first developed in India in the 3rd century BC. At that time the numerals 1, 4, and 6 were written in the same form as today. The important innovation in the Arabic system was the use of positional notation, in which individual number symbols assume different values according to their position in the written numeral. Positional notation is made possible by the use of a symbol for zero. The symbol 0 makes it possible to differentiate between 11, 101, and 1,001 without the use of additional symbols, and all numbers can be expressed in terms of ten symbols, the numerals from 1 to 9 plus 0.

Binary System of Numerals


The binary system plays an important role in computer technology. For example, the first 20 numbers in the binary notation are 1, 10, 11, 100, 101, 110, 111, 1000, 1001, 1010, 1011, 1100, 1101, 1110, 1111, 10000, 10001, 10010, 10011, 10100.

Arithmetic operations in the binary system are extremely simple. The basic rules are: $1 + 1 = 10$, and $1 \times 1 = 1$. Zero plays its usual role: $1 \times 0 = 0$, and $1 + 0 = 1$.

Because only two digits (or bits) are involved, the binary system is used in computers, since any binary number can be represented by, for example, the positions of a series of on-off switches. The *on* position corresponds to 1, and the *off* position corresponds to 0. Instead of switches, magnetized dots on a magnetic disk or small dots on a laser CD-ROM disk also can be used to represent binary numbers: a dot stands for the digit 1, and the absence of a dot is the digit 0.

ДОПОЛНИТЕЛЬНЫЙ СЛОВАРЬ:

sign [ˈsaɪn] знак	to assume [əˈsjʊ:m] принимать
numerical notation [njuˈmerɪkəl nouˈteɪʃən]	мать
Roman [ˈroʊmən] римский	binary system [ˈbaɪnəri] двоичная система
bar [bɑ:] черта	decimal system [ˈdesɪməl] десятичная система
infinite [ˈɪnfɪtɪ] бесконечный	binary number двоичное число
positional notation позиционное представление	bit бит
	dot точка

 **6.21.** Ответьте на вопросы:

1. Are Roman numerals still used today?
2. What is the only drawback of Roman system of numerical notation?
3. Who developed the Arabic system of numerical notation?
4. How many symbols are necessary to express all numbers in the Arabic system of numerical notation?
5. How can any number be expressed in the binary system?
6. Where is the binary system used?

How to Read Mathematical Expressions

- (×) — multiply, times
- (:) — divide, divided by
- (+) — add, sum up, plus
- (−) — subtract, minus
- (=) — equals, is equal, makes
- 2² — two in the second power

Addition [əˈdɪʃn] сложение

12 + 15 = 27 Twelve plus fifteen is (makes, equals) twenty-seven.

addend [«xdend] слагаемое
sum [sAm] сумма

Subtraction [səb'trækʃn] вычитание

41 - 24 = 17 Forty-one minus twenty-four is (equals, seventeen.

minuend [ˈmɪnju:ənd] уменьшаемое

subtrahend [ˈsʌbtrəhend] вычитаемое

remainder, difference [rɪˈmeɪndə] разность

to do subtraction вычитать

Multiplication [ˌmʌltɪplɪˈkeɪʃən] умножение

7 × 4 = 28 Seven times four is twenty-eight (seven multiplied by four is twenty-eight)

multiplicand [ˌmʌltɪplɪˈkænd] множимое

multiplier [ˈmʌltɪplaiə] (factor) множитель

product [ˈprɒdʌkt] произведение

multiplication table таблица умножения

Division [dɪˈvɪʒn] деление

60 : 10 = 6 Sixty divided by ten is six.

dividend [ˈdɪvɪdənd] делимое

divisor [dɪˈvaɪzə] делитель

quotient [ˈkwɔʃənt] частное

division with remainder деление с остатком

without remainder без остатка

PRACTICAL WORK

Write in words and solve:

a) $-3 + 4 =$

c) $0,05 \times 1,5 =$

e) $78 : 0,23 \times -5 = 10; x = ?$

b) $-5 : 2 =$

d) $3/8 \times 5 =$

f) $X^2 \times X^4 =$

LESSON 7

Text 1

USA

The United States of America is the 4th largest country in the world after Russia, Canada and China. It occupies the central part of the North American continent.

The United States of America is a federal republic, consisting of 50 states including the states of Alaska and Hawaii. **Outlying areas** include Puerto Rico, American Samoa, Guam, and the US Virgin Islands.

The northern boundary is partly formed by the Great Lakes and the St Lawrence River; the southern boundary is partly formed by the Rio Grande. United States also has a sea-border with Russia.

The total area of the United States (including the **District of Columbia**) is 9,809,155 sq km, of which 1,700,139 sq km are in Alaska and 28,313 sq. km are in Hawaii. **Inland waters** cover 507,788 sq km of the total area.

The country is washed by 3 oceans: the Arctic, the Atlantic and the Pacific. The country has many lakes, with the **Great Lakes included**. There are also many rivers on the US territory. The longest of them are the Mississippi, the Missouri, the Columbia, the Rio Grande and some others. On the US territory there are mountains and lowlands. The highest mountains are the Rocky Mountains, the Cordillera and the Sierra Nevada. The highest peak, Mount McKinley, is located in Alaska.

The climate conditions are rather different. The country is rich in natural and mineral resources: oil, gas, iron ore, coal and various metals.

The USA is a highly developed industrial and agricultural country. The main industrial branches are **aircraft**, rocket, automobile, electronics, radio-engineering and others.

Americans are **made up** from nearly all races and nations. The country population is over 250 mln. The national symbol of the USA is its national flag «Stars and **Stripes**», having 50 white stars and 13 white and red stripes on its field, **symbolising** the number of the original and present day states.

Officially the country comprises 50 states and one District of Columbia. The states differ in size, population and economic development. Each state has its own capital. The capital of the USA is Washington. It is situated in the District of Columbia on the banks of the Potomac river and is named after the 1st US President - George Washington. There are many large cities in the country: New York, Los Angeles, Chicago, Philadelphia, Detroit, San-Francisco, Cleveland and some others.

The United States of America is a federal state, headed by the President. According to the US Constitution the powers of the Government are divided into 3 branches: legislative, executive and judicial.

The **legislative power** belongs to the Congress consisting of the Senate and the House of Representatives. The Senate **represents** the states while the House of Representatives – the population. The executive power belongs to the President and his Administration (Vice-President and Cabinet of Ministers). The judicial power **belongs** to the Supreme Court and the system of Federal, state and district courts.


There are several political parties in the USA, the largest of them are the Republican (symbolised by a donkey) and the Democratic (symbolised by an elephant).

VOCABULARY:

outlying areas внешние территории	to be located располагаться
District of Columbia округ Колумбия	aircraft воздушное судно
inland waters внутренние водоемы	to be made up from быть составленным, состоять из
to pass проходить через	stripe полоса
frontier граница	to symbolize символизировать
to include включать	to represent представлять
lowlands низины	to belong принадлежать
peak вершина, пик	donkey осел

ADD TO YOUR VOCABULARY:

a) Great Plains Великие равнины	c) shopping-mall торговый центр
Appalachian mountains Аппалачские горы	shopping plaza открытая торговая площадь, торговый ряд
Rocky mountains Скалистые горы	free delivery бесплатная доставка
b) driveway проезд, выезд	telephone order телефонный заказ
sidewalk тротуар	sale распродажа
drive-thru shop магазин, покупки в котором производятся через окно автомобиля	discount скидка
toll-road платная дорога (магистраль)	seasons sale сезонная распродажа
toll-free road бесплатная дорога	clearance ['kliəɹəns] sale распродажа залежей товаров
highway, parkway, thruway автомагистраль	discount coupon ['ku:pən] купон на скидку
turnpike ['tɜ:npaɪk] главная магистраль	free gift бесплатный подарок

 7.1. *Переведите на английский:*

1. США – четвертая по размеру страна после России, Канады и Китая.
2. Внешние границы включают в себя Пуэрто Рико, Американское Самоа и Виргинские острова.
3. 48 Штатов граничат на севере с Канадой, а на юге с Мексикой.
4. США имеет морскую границу с Российской Федерацией.
5. Поверхность внутренних вод США составляет около 507 тысяч квадратных километров.
6. США омывается тремя океанами: Северным Ледовитым, Атлантическим и Тихим.
7. США – высокоразвитое промышленное государство со множеством отраслей.
8. Аэрокосмическая и электронные отрасли промышленности США занимают особое место в экономике США.
9. Каждый штат имеет свою столицу.

 **Text 2**

ECONOMY OF THE USA

The United States has been the world's leading industrial nation since early in the 20th century. Until the second half of the 19th century, agriculture remained the dominant US economic activity. After the Civil War, great advances were made in the production of basic industrial goods. By World War I, exports of manufactured goods had become more important than the export of raw materials; as manufacturing grew, agriculture became increasingly mechanized and efficient, employing fewer and fewer workers. The most important development in the economy since World War II has been the

tremendous growth of service industries, such as government services, professional services, trade, and financial activities. Today, service industries are the most important sector of the economy, employing almost three-quarters of the workforce. Manufacturing employs approximately 17 per cent of the labour force and agriculture less than 3 per cent of the workers.

Beginning in the 1930s, the government of the United States played an increasingly active role in the economy. Even though the US economy in the 1990s was based on free enterprise, the government regulated business in various ways. Some government regulations were drawn up to protect consumers from unsafe products and workers from unsafe working conditions; others were designed to reduce environmental pollution.

The federal budget for fiscal year 1993-1994 included estimated expenditures of \$1.48 trillion, or about one-quarter of the nation's gross national product (GNP). Revenue in 1991-1992 was estimated at \$1.08 trillion. The United States has consistently recorded annual budget deficits of \$100 billion or more since the early 1980s.

In 1993 the United State's annual GNP was more than \$6.4 trillion. With a per-capita GNP of nearly \$24,700, the people of the United States had one of the highest standards of living. The GDP in 1994 was over \$6.7 trillion.

The US economy consists of three main sectors-the primary, secondary, and tertiary.

Primary economic activities are those directly involving the natural environment, including agriculture, forestry, fishing, and mining, and usually contribute about 4 per cent of the yearly GDP.

Secondary economic activities involve processing or combining materials into new products, and include manufacturing and construction, this sector accounts for approximately 23 per cent of the GDP.

Tertiary economic activities involve the output of services rather than goods. Examples of tertiary activities include wholesale and retail trade, banking, government, and transport. The tertiary is the most important sector by far and accounts for almost 73 per cent of the annual GDP.

7.2. Ответьте на вопросы:

1. When, according to the author, the US became a world's leading industrial nation?
2. What tendency took place by the end of the Civil War?
3. What is said in the text about the development of the service industry?
4. What is said about the size of the manufacturing sector of the economy?
5. What role does the government play in the modern economy of the USA?
6. What was the US GNP in 1993?
7. What, according to the text, are the three major sectors of American economy?
8. What are the examples of tertiary activities?



ГРАММАТИКА

Согласование времен в главном и придаточном предложениях

В английском сложноподчиненном предложении с придаточным дополнительным (вопрос «что?», «кто?», «чего?» и т.д.) соблюдаются *правила согласования времен* в главном и придаточном предложениях. Эти правила сводятся к следующему:

1. Если глагол-сказуемое главного предложения стоит в *настоящем* или *будущем* времени, то глагол-сказуемое придаточного дополнительного предложения может стоять в *любой* временной форме, требуемой смыслом, например:

He says you are right. — Он говорит, что ты прав.

He will tell why he was not at school yesterday. — Он скажет, почему он не был в школе вчера.

2. Если глагол-сказуемое главного предложения стоит в *прошедшем* времени (обычно — в *Past Indefinite*), то и глагол дополнительного придаточного предложения должен стоять в одном из прошедших времен, в том числе — в будущем с точки зрения прошедшего (*Future in the Past*).

He said he would not go to school tomorrow. — Он сказал, что не пойдет в школу завтра.

При этом для обозначения действия, *одновременного* с действием, выраженным сказуемым главного предложения, употребляется *Past Continuous* (в русском языке — настоящее время) или *Past Indefinite*.

He told me he was preparing for his exam. — Он сказал мне, что готовится к экзамену.

Для обозначения действия, *предшествующего* действию, выраженному сказуемым главного предложения, обычно употребляется *Past Perfect*. На русский язык глагол-сказуемое придаточного в данном случае переводится глаголом в прошедшем времени:


I didn't know he had left for Moscow. — Я не знал, что он уехал в Москву.

При указании определенного времени (*in 1980, yesterday*) предшествующее время выражается при помощи *Past Indefinite*. Например: *I thought you were born in 1980.*

Для выражения будущего времени с точки зрения прошедшего времени употребляется форма *Future in*

the Past где вспомогательный глагол *will* меняется на *would*, которая на русский язык переводится будущим временем:

He told me that he would meet me at the Institute. — Он сказал мне, что встретит меня в институте.

 7.3. *Раскройте скобки. переведите предложения.*

1. I did not know that you already (to read) this book 2. He did it better than I (to expect). 3. He said that the bus (to be) here soon. 4. I think it all happened soon after the meeting (to end). 5. They decided that they (to bring) us all the necessary books. 6. He said that he (can) not do it without my help. 7. He asked the students whether they ever (to see) such a book. 8. It was decided that we (to start) our work at eight o'clock. 9. I told you that I (to leave) for Minsk on the following day. 10. The boy did not know that he already (receive) a good mark. 11. He wanted to know what (to become) of the books. 12. The visitors were told that the secretary just (to go out) and (to come back) in half an hour. 13. He said we (may) keep the books as long as we (to like). 14. We thought that he not (to be able) to make his work in time and therefore (to offer) to help her. 15. When I came they (to tell) me that he (to leave) half an hour before. 16. It was soon clear to the teacher that the control work (to be) a difficult one. 17. I decided that next year I (to go) to see my old friend again. I not (to see) him since he (to go) to Moscow.

СТРАДАТЕЛЬНЫЙ ЗАЛОГ (Passive Voice)

Формы страдательного залога английских глаголов образуются с помощью вспомогательного глагола **to be**

в соответствующем времени, лице и числе и **Причастия II (Participle II)** смыслового глагола:

Present Indefinite: The letter is written.
Past Indefinite: The letter was written.
Future Indefinite: The letter will be written.

Present Continuous: The letter is being written.
Past Continuous: The letter was being written.
Future Continuous: The letter will be being written.

Present Perfect: The letter has been written.
Past Perfect: The letter had been written.
Future Perfect: The letter will have been written.

Глагол-сказуемое в страдательном залоге показывает, что подлежащее предложения является объектом действия со стороны другого лица или предмета.

Сравните:

I bought a book. — Я купил книгу.

The book was bought (by me). — Книга была куплена (мною).

Глаголы в страдательном залоге на русский язык переводятся

1. глаголом быть + краткая форма причастия страдательного залога:

The letter was sent yesterday. Письмо было послано вчера.

1. глаголом с частицей **-ся (-сь)**:


This problem was discussed last week. Эта проблема обсуждалась на прошлой неделе.

3. неопределенно-личным оборотом, т.е. глаголом в действительном залоге 3 лица множественного числа, типа «говорят», «сказали»:


English is spoken in many countries. На английском языке говорят во многих странах.

4. глаголом в действительном залоге (при наличии исполнителя действия):

Pupils are taught at school by teachers. Учеников учат в школе учителя.


 **7.4.** *Переведите предложения. Укажите место и залог глагола:*

1. He left for Moscow. 2. The news will be of great interest. 3. They were speaking to him. 4. She studied many subjects. 5. He was much spoken of. 6. New subjects will be studied next term. 7. I am working now. 8. The text has already been written by them. 9. He studies at our school. 10. You are playing chess, aren't you? 11. The text is being translated at the moment. 12. Do you work at this lab? 13. When I saw him, he was going home. 14. They will have passed their exams by 3 o'clock. 15. This book was written by our teacher. 16. We shall be writing our tests at 10 o'clock. 17. The work will have been done when he comes. 18. We translated this text. 19. The letter had been written before we came. 20. We shall inform you. 21. These toys are made in Japan. 22. Does he work here? 23. Is he working now? 24. The conference will be held in May. 25. Rostov was named after archbishop Dmitry Rostovsky. 26. What are you doing here? 27. This work must be done at once. 28. You may take my book. 29. I am often asked at the lessons. 30. This article was being translated when I came.


 **7.5.** *Переведите предложения. Укажите место и залог глагола:*

1. They can be seen in our library every day. 2. The delegation is headed by the Prime Minister. 3. The child was often left home alone. 4. These houses were built last year. 5. All letters had been written when we came.

6. This film is much spoken about. 7. The machine is being tested now. 8. His work has been already finished. 9. I was told to wait for him. 10. Your letter will have been answered by Monday. 11. The experiment was being carried out from ten till twelve o'clock. 12. Children under sixteen will not be admitted here.

 7.6. Раскройте скобки:

1. These books (return) to the library yesterday. 2. The books must (return) to the library till the end of this month. 3. Why your home task (not do)? 4. The patient was taken to the hospital today, and (operate) tomorrow morning. 5. This room (use) only on special occasions. 6. Litter must not (leave) here. 7. The children (take) to the circus this afternoon. 8. Dictionaries may not (use) at the examination. 9. Usually this street (sweep) every day, but it (not sweep) yesterday. 10. This book (leave) in the classroom yesterday; it (find) by me. 11. Thousands of new houses (build) every year. 12. This room (not use) for a long time.

 7.7. Переведите на английский:

1. Эта книга была прочитана всеми. 2. Письмо будет отправлено завтра. 3. Ее часто спрашивают? 4. На ваш вопрос ответят завтра. 5. Текст переводился вчера с двух до трех. 6. Работа только что завершена нами. 7. Эти книги уже будут опубликованы к концу года. 8. Наша контрольная работа сейчас проверяется? 9. О новой книге будут много говорить. 10. В нашем городе сейчас строится много новых зданий. 11. Ключи были утеряны вчера. 12. Нам показали прекрасный фильм. 13. Вам сказали об этом? 14. Телеграмма уже получена? 15. Работа будет закончена в срок. 16. Делегацию нужно встретить завтра в 9 часов утра в аэропорту.

17. Мне предложили очень интересную работу. 18. Вам объяснят, как добраться до железнодорожного вокзала. 19. Вам зададут несколько вопросов на экзамене. 20. Сотни новых домов будут построены к концу этого года.

☛ 7.8. Прочитайте следующие слова, пользуясь знаками транскрипции, и найдите их русские эквиваленты:

monarchy [ˈmɒnəki]

automatic [ˌɔ:təˈmætɪk]

temperature [ˈtemprɪtʃə]

cyclone [ˈsaɪkloun]

partner [ˈpɑ:tnə]

equator [ɪˈkwetə]

continent [ˈkɒntɪnənt]

export [ˈeksɔ:t]

import [ˈɪmpɔ:t]

automobile [ˈɔ:təməubi:l]

electronics [ɪlekˈtrɒnɪks]

business [ˈbɪznɪs]

finance [faɪˈnæns]

automatic [ˌɔ:təˈmætɪk]

gas [gæs]

continental [ˌkɒntɪˈnɛntl]

commerce [ˈkɒmə:s]

commercial [kəˈmɜ:ʃəl]

LESSON 8

Text 1

HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UK

Education after 16 is **voluntary** in United Kingdom. Students, who live in England, Wales, and Northern Ireland must take at the age of 16 the examinations for the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE). In Scotland students receive the Scottish Certificate of Education. After this exam students can choose to stay on in school or **attend** colleges of further education.

British universities are **self-governing** and are guaranteed academic independence. **Funding** for education and research is provided by **funding councils set up** by Parliament. The number of universities jumped in 1992 when **polytechnics** and some other higher **education establishments** were given the right to become universities. By the end of 1994, there were some 90 universities, almost half of them former polytechnics, including the Open University.

Many of the colleges of Oxford and Cambridge universities were founded in the 12th and 13th centuries. All other universities in Britain were founded in the 19th and 20th centuries. The Open University, based in Milton Keynes, England, was founded in 1969. It uses **extension techniques** of correspondence courses, television and radio programmes, and videocassettes, supported by local study centres and residential summer

schools, to provide higher education opportunities to a wide variety of people.

During the 1960s there was a significant increase in the number of new universities, **reflecting** a fast growth in student numbers, which was made possible by an expansion in **grant facilities**. During the 1980s, an expansion in higher education places led to another large jump in student numbers. In the 1992–1993 academic year there were more than 1.4 million students in full- or part-time higher education in Great Britain, compared with just under 850,000 a **decade** earlier. About one quarter of young people are in higher education in England, Wales, and Scotland; one third in Northern Ireland. About 90 per cent of students get **state grants** to cover tuition fees and living costs.

The size of the grant is determined by **parents income**. Since the late 1980s, however, grants have been frozen; students can apply for a **student loan**.


VOCABULARY:

voluntary [ˈvɒləntəri]	polytechnics политехнические институты
добровольное	
attend посещать	extension techniques
self-governing самоуправляемый	технологии дистанционного образования
funding финансирование	to reflect отражать
funding councils советы по финансированию	parents income доход родителей
to set up основывать	student loan [lən] студенческий заем
significant значительный	

ADD TO YOUR ACTIVE VOCABULARY:

a) high-school diploma	graduation ceremony
школьный аттестат	выпускной экзамен

Bachelor of Science (B.S.) бакалавр естественных наук	board проживание и питание
Bachelor of Art (B.A.) бакалавр гуманитарных наук	personal expenses личные расходы
Master of Arts (M.A.) магистр гуманитарных наук	books and supplies книги и материалы
Master of Science (M.Sc.) магистр естественных наук	c) to be eligible for admission быть подходящей кандидатурой для поступления
Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) доктор философии	to enrol зачислять
undergraduate student студент 1–4(5) курсов	enrollment зачисление
graduate student студент 5–6 курсов	tuition fee плата за обучение
graduate school of robotics магистратура (аспирантура) по специальности робототехника	admissions office приемная комиссия
b) room (lodging) and	student services office департамент по работе со студентами
	university bursar's [<i>'bɜ:sə</i>] (казначей)
	bursar's office бухгалтерия университета (офис казначея)

 **8.1. Переведите на английский:**

1. В возрасте 16 лет каждый житель Великобритании обязан сдать экзамены на получение Сертификата о среднем образовании.
2. Экзамены продвинутого уровня являются необходимым требованием для поступления в университет.
3. Британские университеты являются полностью самоуправляемыми.
4. В 1992 году Политехническим институтам была предоставлено право стать университетами.

5. Открытый университет, широко известный своими технологиями дистанционного обучения, был основан в 1969 году.
6. В 60-е годы в Соединенном королевстве наметился значительный рост числа университетов.
7. Размер гранта на обучение определяется исходя из дохода родителей.

Questions for discussion:

- 1) Do you think that higher education should be free? Do you think that the quality of education in private universities and institutes is better because professors and teachers are paid more?
- 2) Do you think that the paid higher education with a system of grants is better than entry exams?



ГРАММАТИКА

COMPLEX OBJECT Сложное дополнение

Сложное дополнение – это сочетание существительного или местоимения в объектном падеже (напр. *me, him, us, them*) с инфинитивом или причастием I. Существует в трех основных вариантах:

1. С инфинитивом без частицы *to* или с причастием I после глаголов восприятия:

see *I saw him drive the car. I saw them working in the lab.*

hear *I didn't hear you come into the room. I heard her playing the piano.*

watch *We watched the plane land. We watched the children playing in the yard.*

notice *Nobody noticed him go out. He didn't notice that happen.*

feel

I saw him enter the house. – Я видел, как он вошел в дом.

I saw him entering the house. – Я видел, как он входил в дом.

Если используются (вышеперечисленные глаголы с инфинитивом без частицы **to**), то подчеркивается факт действия, если (эти же глаголы с причастием I) – процесс действия.

2. С инфинитивом с частицей **to** после глаголов
- to believe** верить, считать *I believe her to be a very good teacher.*
 - to know** знать *I know him to be a good student.*
 - to want** хотеть *I want you to help me.*
 - to expect** ожидать *I expect you to come in time.*
 - to advise** советовать *I advise you to enter the institute.*
 - to consider** считать *English climate is considered to be mild.*
 - to order** приказывать *He is ordered not to be late.*
 - to allow** разрешать *They allow to use dictionaries at the exam.*
 - to find** находить *I find your story to be very interesting.*
 - would like** хотеть, желать *I like you to finish your work.*

3. С инфинитивом без частицы **to** после глаголов:

- to let** *Don't let them play in the street.*
- to make** *Don't make me laugh.*

8.2. Раскройте скобки:

1. He made me (do) it all over again. 2. Her father made her (learn) the lessons. 3. If you want us (make) the work quickly you should let us (start) at once. 4. Would you like me (read) now? 5. They won't let us (leave) the classroom till our control work has been checked. 6. He wouldn't let the children (play) in his study. 7. Please let me (know) the results of your exam as soon as possible. 8. He made us (wait) for two hours. 9. I let him (go) early as he had done his task. 10. I'd like him (enter) the university but I can't make him (do) it. 11. I want her (learn) English. 12. I heard the door (open) and saw my friend (come) into the room. 13. I heard her (play) the piano. 14. I saw him (go out) of the house. 15. The teacher advised us (use) dictionaries. 16. Her father doesn't allow her (go) to the cinema alone. 17. We expect our basketball team (win) next game. 18. We don't want you (tell) anything. 19. I saw them (open) the window. 20. That is too difficult for you to do, let me (help) you.

8.3. Переведите на английский:

1. Вы хотели бы, чтобы работа была сделана сегодня? 2. Мы ожидаем, что они хорошо проведут у нас время. 3. Вы ожидаете, что дипломная работа будет сделана скоро? 4. Вы хотите, чтобы мы встретились сегодня? 5. Я хочу, чтобы он закончил эту работу. 6. Мы слышали, что она знает, когда мы сдаем экзамен. 7. Вы хотите, чтобы мы обсудили этот вопрос сегодня? 8. Мы ожидаем, что на этом месте будет построен новый дом. 9. Вы хотите, чтобы дети играли здесь?

COMPLEX SUBJECT

Субъектный инфинитивный оборот

Субъектный инфинитивный оборот (сложное подлежащее) состоит из

1. существительного в общем падеже или местоимения в именительном падеже и

2. глагола (обычно в страдательном залоге) + инфинитив.

Оборот переводится на русский язык придаточными предложениями.

He is known to be a good engineer. Известно, что он хороший инженер.

He is said to have graduated from the University. Говорят, что он закончил университет.

The experiments were reported to be successful. Сообщили, что эксперименты были успешны.

В субъектном инфинитивном обороте могут употребляться глаголы:

to see	видеть
to hear	слышать
to say	сказать
to expect	ожидать, полагать
to think	думать, полагать, считать
to report	сообщать
to suppose	предполагать
to believe	полагать
to consider	считать, полагать
to assume	допускать
to know	знать

которые могут стоять в любом времени в страдательном залоге.

Неопределенно-личным предложениям русского языка в английском языке чаще всего соответствуют пассивные обороты, как например:

It is reported that... Сообщается, что ...

It was supposed that... Предполагали, что ...

Субъектный инфинитивный оборот употребляется также в сочетании с некоторыми глаголами, которые могут стоять в действительном залоге, а именно с глаголами:


to prove, to appear, to seem казаться

to turn out оказаться

to happen случаться

This exercise turned out to be very difficult. Оказалось, что упражнение очень трудное.

The weather appeared to have improved. Казалось, что погода улучшилась.

 8.4. Переведите следующие предложения:

1. Advertising is considered to be the most important marketing tool.
2. Mobile phone appears to be the most universal means of communication.
3. Tungsten is believed to be the most heat resistant metal.
4. He was seen to come to work early.
5. You are supposed to be able to read English texts without a dictionary.
6. The carbon content in steel is assumed not to exceed standard values.



ГРАММАТИКА

Причастие настоящего времени (Participle I)

Причастие I (причастие настоящего времени), образованное при помощи окончания *-ing*, имеет активную и пассивную (страдательную) формы:

	несовершенный вид	совершенный вид
Active активная	asking	having asked
Passive страдательная	being asked	having been asked

Причастие I употребляется в функции:

1. Определения:

The man sitting at the table is our teacher. — Человек, сидящий за столом — наш учитель.

The houses being built in our town are not very high.
- Дома, строящиеся в нашем городе, невысоки.

2. Обстоятельства:

Going home I met an old friend. — Идя домой, я встретил старого друга.

Having finished work I went home. — Закончив работу, я пошел домой.

ПРИЧАСТИЕ ПРОШЕДШЕГО ВРЕМЕНИ

Причастие II (Participle II)

Причастие II (причастие прошедшего времени) всегда *пассивно*. Образуется оно прибавлением суффикса *-ed* к основе правильного глагола или путем чередования звуков в корне неправильного глагола.

Причастие II употребляется в функции:

1. Определения.

The book translated from English is very interesting.
— Книга, переведенная с английского языка, интересная.

2. Обстоятельства (причины и времени):

Given the task he began to work. — Когда ему дали задание, он начал работать.

If mailed, a bank transfer is known as a mail transfer. — Если банковский перевод отправляется почтой, он известен как почтовый перевод.

Если перед причастием прошедшего времени в функции обстоятельства стоят союзы *if, when*, то оно переводится на русский язык обстоятельством придаточным предложением.

Если причастия настоящего и прошедшего времени стоят *перед* определяемыми существительными, то они, утрачивая свое отглагольное значение, выражают качество и имеют значение к обычного прилагательного:

a collecting bank — инкассирующий банк

sold goods — проданный товар

Если причастия настоящего и прошедшего времени стоят *после* определяемого существительного, то они, как правило, не выражают качества, а имеют лишь глагольное значение. При переводе такие причастия могут быть заменены определительным придаточным предложением.

all parties concerned — все заинтересованные стороны (все стороны, которых это касается)

instructions received — полученные инструкции (инструкции, которые были получены)

8.5. Переведите причастия:

writing — written

drawing — drawn

accompanying — accompanied

notifying — notified

signing — signed

8.6. Переведите предложения, обращая внимание на причастные обороты:

1. We enclose the letter received yesterday requesting the details of the above transfer.

2. The letter mentioned above should be sent to us
3. The payment order referred to in your previous letter has been received by the customer.
4. We hope the amount transferred to your bank will be received.

THE GERUND Герундий

Герундий — это неличная форма глагола, которая выражает действие как процесс, и образуется прибавлением окончания **-ing** к основе глагола. Герундий является промежуточной формой между глаголом и существительным и поэтому обладает свойствами и глагола и существительного.

Свойства глагола у герундия

1. Герундий имеет следующие формы времени и залога:

	Active	Passive
Indefinite	writing	being written
Perfect	having written	having been written

Indefinite Gerund выражает процесс в наиболее общем виде и действие, одновременное с действием глагола в личной форме.

We prefer using new methods of work.

Мы предпочитаем использовать новые методы работы.

We prefer new methods of work being used.

Мы предпочитаем, чтобы использовались новые методы работы.

Perfect Gerund выражает действие, которое обычно предшествует действию, выраженному глаголом в личной форме.

*I remember **having given** this instruction.*

Я помню, что дал (давал) это указание.

*I remember **having been given** this instruction.*

Я помню, что мне давали это указание.

Чаще всего формы пассивного герундия на русский язык переводятся придаточными предложениями.

2. Герундий может иметь прямое дополнение:

*We are interested in **improving** working conditions.*

Мы заинтересованы в том, чтобы улучшить условия работы (в улучшении условий работы).

3. Герундий может определяться наречием:

*We have to insist on your **replying promptly**.* Мы вынуждены настаивать, чтобы вы ответили немедленно.

Свойства существительного у герундия

1. Герундий может определяться притяжательным местоимением или существительным в притяжательном падеже:

*I insist on his (the inspector's) **coming** as soon as possible.* Я настаиваю на том, чтобы он (инспектор) приехал как можно скорее.

2. Перед герундием может стоять предлог:

*On **receiving** a letter we shall immediately take action.*
По получении письма мы немедленно примем меры.

Употребление герундия

1. После следующих глаголов без предлогов:

a) **to begin, to start, to finish, to stop, to continue, to keep** (продолжать) и др.

Please keep sending us letters at this address. Пожалуйста, продолжайте посылать нам письма по этому адресу.

b) **to like, to enjoy, to prefer, to mind, to excuse, to remember, to forget, to suggest, to avoid, to need, to want, to require** и др.

The results need being checked. Результаты необходимо проверить.

2. После глагола с предлогами:

to apologize for, to thank for, to look forward to, to congratulate on, to insist on, to depend on, to object to, to be interested in, to be responsible for и др.

We insisted on continuing the experiment. Мы настаивали на продолжении эксперимента.

3. После существительного с предлогом: **way of, programme of, reason for, process of** и др.

The way of using is indicated in the instructions. Способ использования указан в инструкциях.

4. После составных предлогов и словосочетаний:

on account of — ввиду, из-за

because of — из-за

due to — благодаря, из-за

with a view to — с целью (для того чтобы)

despite — несмотря на

We could not continue the work because of no raw materials being supplied.

Мы не смогли продолжать работу из-за отсутствия поставки сырья.

Герундий употребляется:

1. В качестве подлежащего:

Reading is useful. Чтение полезно.

2. Как часть сказуемого после глаголов **to finish, to start, to continue, to go on, to keep** и др.

He started reading the book. Он начал читать книгу.

3. Как предложное дополнение:

I am fond of reading. Я люблю читать

4. Как прямое дополнение:

Do you mind my reading here? Вы не против моего чтения здесь?

5. Как обстоятельство времени:

After reading he closed the book. После чтения он закрыл книгу.

6. Как обстоятельство образа действия:

Instead of reading he went to the movies. Вместо чтения он пошел в кино.

Перевод герундия на русский язык

Герундий может переводиться на русский язык:

1. Существительным

We are interested in buying these goods. Мы заинтересованы в покупке этих товаров.

2. Инфинитивом

Everybody went on working. Все продолжали работать.

3. Деепричастием

On coming to the laboratory he got down to work. Придя в лабораторию, он принялся за работу.


4. Придаточным предложением

We regretted having done it. Мы сожалели о том, что сделали это.

8.7. Переведите предложения с герундием:

1. Would you please stop **writing** to us at this address.
2. What are your reasons for **refusing** to pay this amount?
3. We are grateful to you for **sending** us the books we needed.
4. Please excuse us for **causing** all this trouble.
5. The customer thanked the bank for **giving** him a loan (заем).

6. I like your way of **doing** it.
7. Who is responsible for **keeping** the records?
8. We are interested in **buying** these goods.
9. **We insist on being sent** the documents.

 **8.8.** *Найдите в предложениях герундий и определите время, залог и его функцию. Переведите предложения:*

1. What is the purpose (цель) of going there? What is the purpose of his going there?
2. I am grateful (благодарен) for his helping me. I am grateful for his having helped me.
3. We inform you of the bank's crediting your account with the sum of \$100.
4. We inform you of crediting your account with the sum of \$100.
5. We thank you for sending us your catalogues.
6. We would greatly appreciate your sending us your offer as soon as possible.
7. Our hotel looks forward to being of service to you.
8. I cannot remember ever taking this book from you.
9. We look forward to hearing from you in the future.
10. We authorize you to make payment by sending us a signed cheque.
11. We would appreciate your considering the matter urgently.

LESSON 9

Text 1

MY PLANS FOR FUTURE

Hi, there! Here is Vera again. I am afraid this will be my last meeting with you because I need to get ready for my trip home. I am leaving for Sochi tonight. Not only to enjoy our warm southern sun and to swim in blue waters of the Black Sea, but to see my family. **Besides**, I have nothing to do here anymore: I have passed all the exams **successfully** and I'm free till the 1st of September.

As I have already told you, my father works at the bank. He makes good money, but I never wanted to have a job like his. I think it is so boring and **unhealthy** to sit all day at the desk. It takes so much of nerves, because it is a great responsibility to work with **large amounts of money**. Especially when this money is not yours and belongs to thousands of other people. Sometimes my father spends a whole night at work, preparing his reports.

But anyway, I want to talk about my plans for future and not about my father. I would really want to work with people **rather than** with **figures** and numbers. I want to travel much and see other places and meet different people. One of the opportunities for this is to work for a foreign **enterprise** in Russia or to work abroad for a big company. You also travel much if you work for the travel agency. And, as far as I know, this kind of job is well paid.

Of course, it is quite difficult to **qualify for** such a job. You need to have a very good educational **level** and a good **command** of spoken and written foreign language, computer skills, and, finally, some experience.

As I said before, my school gives a very good background knowledge of subject. But this knowledge is too **general**. Most graduates are prepared for work only theoretically. We didn't have much practice. The only opportunity to work somewhere is that during the summer vacation. But of course one wants to rest a little after a whole year of studies and a hard exam session. But in my opinion, practice is the only opportunity to **gain** practical knowledge of subject.


I think that it is quite impossible to have a good command of English after finishing secondary school. Two or four hours of English a week is not enough. It is necessary to have classes outside the University. One more factor which really helps to have a good command of English is the communication with **native speakers**, and of course reading much in English. It is especially useful to read books on economics, business, marketing and management in the original. When one knows the special vocabulary or terminology it will be much easier to communicate with your colleagues from other countries. As you know, English is world recognized as an international business language. But, of course, English only is not enough. There are still countries and people who prefer to use their native language. And how many businesses in your city, for instance, have English-speaking **staff**? This situation is the same in many European countries.

I don't think I'll be **unemployed**. Firms need specialists in finance, management and marketing. Employers need young and energetic employees who have computer skills.


Bye for now!

VOCABULARY:

besides кроме того	educational level (level of education) уровень образования
successfully успешно	a command of ... уровень владения чем-либо
unhealthy нездорово, вредно для здоровья	general общий
large amounts of money большие суммы денег	to gain приобретать
to belong принадлежать	sufficient достаточный
but anyway <i>разг.</i> в любом случае, все равно	native speakers носители языка; те для кого язык родной
rather than нежели	staff персонал
figure [ˈfɪgə] цифра, сумма	unemployed безработный(-ая)
enterprise предприятие	employee служащий; работающий по найму
to qualify for годиться для чего-либо, иметь достаточные основания для чего-либо	

 9.1. *Переведите на английский:*

1. Я думаю, что работа банкира скучная и нездоровая.
2. Работа с большими суммами денег — это большая ответственность.
3. Я не хотел(а) бы проводить ночи на работе, как мой отец.
4. Работу в рекламном агентстве найти очень трудно.
5. Трудно соответствовать стандартам, предъявляемым работникам иностранных компаний.
6. Работа менеджера хорошо оплачивается.
7. Практически невозможно иметь хороший уровень английского после окончания средней школы.
8. Знания одного иностранного языка недостаточно для успешной карьеры в туристическом бизнесе.

 9.2. *Какой вы видите свою будущую работу? Ответьте на вопросы:*

- 1) What kind of job are you interested in:

- a) well paid
 - b) interesting
 - c) large and famous company
 - d) quiet
 - e) in an industry which has a future
 - f) prestigious
 - g) not to sit the whole day in the office
 - h) to travel a lot
- 2) What position would you like to have:
- a) to manage people – manager
 - b) to work for someone else – an employee
 - c) to be your own boss – self-employed, businessman
 - d) to be responsible for everything – top manager, director
 - e) to work for the state – state employee

ADD TO YOUR ACTIVE VOCABULARY:

- | | |
|--|---|
| a) accountant бухгалтер | employee наемный рабочий |
| manager управляющий, заведующий; глава, директор, руководитель | employer наймодатель |
| marketer специалист по маркетингу | entrepreneur, businessman предприниматель, бизнесмен, делец |
| P.R. specialist (Public Relations) специалист по связям с общественностью | state-employed государственный служащий |
| sales manager менеджер по продажам | white-collar worker «белый воротничок», работник умственного труда |
| supply manager менеджер по снабжению | blue-collar worker «синий воротничок», работник физического труда |
| b) prestigious job (work) престижная работа | skilled worker квалифицированный рабочий |
| well-paid job высокооплачиваемая работа | unskilled worker неквалифицированный рабочий |
| | experienced worker опытный работник |

c) to be hired for a job быть нанятым на работу	application for a position of заявление о приеме на
to look for a new job (work, position) искать новую работу	какую-либо должность C.V. (curriculum vitae) автобиография
to apply for a new job претендовать на какую- либо должность	to be fired быть уволенным to retire уходить на пенсию
resume резюме	to be unemployed быть безработным

Practical application:

DESIGNING A CURRICULUM VITAE OR RESUME

A resume, sometimes called a Curriculum Vitae or CV, is a summary of your career history, the skills and experiences you have gained during the course of it.

A good resume should:

- attract attention
- create a positive impression
- present your skills and qualities clearly and concisely

The purpose of the resume is to tell an employer why you should be hired. Consider it as your personal marketing instrument. A good resume will help you to open the door to a job interview.

There are two kinds of resume: employment and academic. The employment resume is typically shorter. Academic resume generally includes several additional sections such as:

- Conferences, seminars attended
- Papers given
- Publications
- Professional affiliations (профессиональные объединения)

The academic resume is used when applying to research bodies, international or educational organizations, NGOs (non-governmental organizations), etc.

The resume, as a standard summary of information, may be photocopied and sent off to many employers, changing sections of the contents according to the different needs of the organizations contacted.

Resume writing tips

As you write your resume, keep in mind the following:

- Use concise language
- Minimize or omit everything which is irrelevant
- Select and order the major categories so that the most relevant information is placed near the top of your resume where it will receive the majority of the reader's attention
- Your resume must be free of typographical and grammatical errors
- Have your resume critiqued by an experienced person
- Print your resume on white paper

An example of Curriculum Vitae

Ann Jackson decides to apply for a new job. Study her CV carefully to see how she has presented the information about herself.

1. Personal Details

Ann Jackson
52 Hanover Street
Edinburgh EH2 5LM
Scotland
Phone – 01957487004
E-mail: ann.jackson@mid.net

2. Education

1981–1988 Broadfield School, Brighton.

A levels in German (A), English (B), History (B) and Geography (C).

198–1991 University of London.

BA (Honours) in Journalism and Media Studies
(Class II).

1991–1998 London Chamber of Commerce and
Industry.

Diploma in Public Relations.

3. Professional Experience

1998 – present Public Relations Officer, Scottish
Nature Trust.

Responsible for researching and writing articles on
all aspects of the Trust's
activities and ensuring their distribution to the
press.

Editor of the Trust's monthly journal.

In charge of relations with European environmental
agencies.

1999–2000 Press Officer, Highlands Tourist Board.

Preparation of promotional materials and brochures.

Co-ordination of media coverage.

Summers of The News Herald newspaper.

1990 and 2000 Two three-month training periods as
assistant to the Sports Editor.

Arranging and conducting interviews.

Preparation of articles covering local community
sports events.

4. Skills

Office 2000 and Windows, Excel, Internet, Powerpoint.

Languages – Fluent German and proficient in French.

Additional Driving licence.

5. Activities.

Skiing and swimming.

Ski Instructor (grade II).

6. References.

Herbert Lindsay


Professor of Journalism

London University


Diane Swans

Sports Editor

The News Herald

 9.3. Ответьте на вопросы:

1. What is a resume?
2. What should be mentioned in a good resume?
3. What are the rules of resume-writing?

 9.4. Практическое задание:

Write your own resume for positions of:

- 1) manager, 2) salesperson, 3) accountant:
 - a) A branch of a big foreign corporation in your city with foreign top managers (Coca Cola, Procter & Gamble, McDonalds, etc.)
 - b) A small computer shop.
 - c) A big supermarket.



ГРАММАТИКА

WORDBUILDING Словообразование

В английском языке существуют следующие способы словообразования: словосложение, словопроизводство с помощью суффиксов и префиксов, и конверсия – переход слов из одной части речи в другую без изменения формы слова.

1. Словосложение – это соединение двух слов в одно с образованием нового слова:

Примеры сложных существительных:

schoolchildren школьники

postman почтальон

newspaper газета

Примеры сложных прилагательных:

waterproof водонепроницаемый

red-hot накаленный докрасна

first-class первоклассный

Примеры сложных местоимений:

something что-нибудь

anywhere везде

somehow как-нибудь

2. **Словообразование** – это образование нового слова с помощью суффиксов и префиксов.

Наиболее употребительные суффиксы и префиксы существительных

Суффиксы

- er/or** – teacher преподаватель, writer писатель, actor актер, doctor доктор
- ist** – scientist ученый, artist художник
- ment** – movement движение, development развитие, government правительство
- ance** – distance расстояние importance важность, appearance внешность
- (t)ion** – revolution революция, translation перевод, operation действие
- ity/-ty** – popularity популярность? honesty честность, ability способность
- hood** – childhood детство, neighbourhood окрестность
- ship** – friendship дружба, leadership лидерство
- age** – passage проход, breakage поломка
- ence** – conference конференция, difference различие
- dom** – freedom свобода, wisdom мудрость
- sion/ssion** – revision пересмотр, discussion обсуждение
- ness** – happiness счастье, illness болезнь, darkness темнота

Префиксы

- re** – reconstruction реконструкция
- co** – cooperation сотрудничество, coexistence сосуществование
- dis** – disadvantage неудобство, discomfort дискомфорт
- in** – inaccuracy неточность, independence независимость

- mis** – misunderstanding недоразумение? misinformation дезинформация
im – impossibility невозможность, impatience нетерпение
un – unemployment безработица, unreality недействительность
il – illegality незаконность, illiteracy неграмотность.

Наиболее употребительные суффиксы и префиксы глаголов

Суффиксы

- en** – deepen углубить, lighten осветить, strengthen усилить
-fy – classify классифицировать, electrify электризовать, specify определить
-ize – organize организовать, characterize характеризовать, mechanize механизировать
-ate – indicate указать, activate активизировать

Префиксы

- co** – cooperate сотрудничать
de – decode расшифровать, decompose разложиться
dis – disappear исчезнуть
in – input вводить
inter – interact взаимодействовать, interchange взаимозаменять
over – overheat перегревать, overhear подслушивать
re – reconstruct восстановить, rewrite переписать

Наиболее употребительные суффиксы и префиксы прилагательных

Суффиксы

- able** – comfortable удобный
-al – natural естественный, cultural культурный, territorial территориальный
-ant – distant отдаленный, resistant стойкий

- ent – dependent зависимый, different различный
- ful – careful осторожный, useful полезный, powerful
мощный
- ible – possible возможный, visible видимый
- ic – atomic атомный, historic исторический
- ive – inventive изобретательный, effective эффектив-
ный
- less – hopeless безнадёжный, useless бесполезный,
homeless бездомный
- ous – famous известный, dangerous опасный, various
различный
- y – rainy дождливый, sunny солнечный, dirty грязный

Префиксы

- un – unhappy несчастный, unable неспособный,
uncomfortable неудобный
- in – independent независимый, indirect косвенный,
invisible невидимый
- im – impossible невозможный, imperfect несовершен-
ный
- ir – irregular нерегулярный, irrational иррациональ-
ный
- il – illegal незаконный, illimitable неограниченный
- non – non-ferrous цветной


3. Конверсия

Конверсией называется совпадение формы и произношения слов, относящихся к различным частям речи:

water – вода (существительное) *to water* – поливать (глагол)

limit – предел (существительное) *to limit* – ограничивать (глагол)

hand – рука (существительное) *to hand* – вручать (глагол) и т.д.

 **9.5.** *Образуйте новые слова с помощью суффиксов и префиксов переведите их:*

-er/or

to teach обучать – teacher учитель

to write –

to borrow –

to lend –

-sion/ssion/tion

to produce производить – production производство

to discuss –

to include –

-ment

to move двигать(ся) – movement движение

to develop –

to replace –

-ing

to build строить – building здание

to meet –


to write –

-ness


happy счастливый – happiness счастье

ill –

dark –

 **9.6.** *Прочитайте следующие существительные, укажите, от каких слов они образованы, определите суффиксы.*


pressure, construction, direction, concentration, collection, necessity, agreement, difference, drawing

 **9.7.** *Используя известные вам суффиксы и префиксы, образуйте существительные от следующих слов и переведите их на русский язык.*


1) to sail, to connect, to educate, to build, to create

2) friend, leader, fellow

3) dark, weak, cold, bright, free

 **9.8.** *Образуйте прилагательные от следующих слов, используя суффиксы и префиксы, и переведите их на русский язык.*

hope, truth, beauty, rain, peace, help, colour, power, joy, care, use

 **9.9.** *Сопоставьте префиксы с соответствующими им определениями и составьте с ними новые слова:*

1. inter- 2. post- 3. bi- 4. pre- 5. multi- 6. ex-

a) more than one; many

b) later than; after

c) before; in preparation

d) former and still living

e) between; among a group

f) two; twice; double

1. ...lingual

2. ...date

3. ...arranged

4. ...national

5. ...director

6. ...graduate

7. ...personal

8. ...husband

9. ...annual

10. ...date

Функции и перевод слова ONE

1. Слово **one**, если оно стоит перед личной формой глагола, является формальным подлежащим неопределенно-личного предложения. В таких предложениях **one** на русский язык не переводится:

One must know for certain what to do.

Нужно точно знать, что делать.

2. Слово **one** (мн. ч. **ones**) может употребляться как заменитель ранее упомянутого исчисляемого существительного. В этом случае **one** переводится словом, которое заменяет, или совсем не переводится:

I have lost my pen. I must buy one.

Я потерял ручку. Я должен купить ручку.

Here are some pens. Which ones would you like to buy?

Вот несколько ручек. Какие (ручки) вы хотели бы купить?

Перед **one (ones)** может стоять артикль **the one** или определяющие местоимения **this one, another one, the blue ones**. В этом случае на русский язык **one** обычно не переводится:

I don't like this pen, show me another one.

Мне не нравится эта ручка, покажите мне другую.

What pens will you buy? — The blue ones.

Какие ручки вы купите? — Синие ручки.

Слово **one** в притяжательном падеже переводится на русский язык местоимением **свой, своя, свое**.

One should always keep one's word. Надо всегда держать свое слово,

One часто употребляется в сочетании с модальными глаголами:

One should be attentive when working with financial documents.

Нужно быть внимательным при работе с финансовыми документами.

One may work in this laboratory only observing certain rules.

В этой лаборатории можно работать только при соблюдении определенных правил.

Функции и перевод местоимения *that*

1. **That (those)** является указательным местоимением и переводится *тот, та, то, те* или *этот, эта, это, эти*:

That book was published long ago.

Та книга была опубликована давно.

2. **That** в функции *подлежащего* или *дополнения* переводится это:

That is not right. We understood that.

Это не правильно. Мы поняли это.

3. **That (those)** как *заместитель* ранее упомянутого существительного либо переводится этим существительным, либо совсем не переводится:

The height of this new house is larger than that of the old one.

Высота этого нового дома больше, чем (высота) старого.

4. **That** в качестве *относительного местоимения* присоединяет определительные придаточные предложения, заменяет *which, who, whom* и переводится *который, которая, которое, которые*:

The man that is sitting at the table is our teacher.

Человек, который сидит за столом, наш учитель.

5. **That** в качестве союза присоединяет дополнительные придаточные предложения и переводится что:

He said that he would finish his report tomorrow.

Он сказал, что закончит свой доклад завтра.

6. В качестве союза, присоединяющего придаточные предложения подлежащие и сказуемые, **that** переводится то, что:

That he refused any help didn't surprise anybody.

То, что он отказался от любой помощи, никого не удивило.

7. **That** в качестве союза, вводящего обстоятельственное придаточное предложение цели, обычно в сочетании с *so* или *in order*, переводится для того, чтобы или чтобы:


Enough time was given so that (in order that) everyone could get ready for the examination.

Было дано достаточно времени для того, чтобы все смогли подготовиться к экзамену.

9. **That** в сочетании с наречием *now*, переводится теперь, когда:


Now, that I have passed my examinations, I'm free.

Теперь, когда я сдал экзамены, я свободен.

 **9.10.** Переведите следующие предложения, обращая внимание на значения слов *one (ones)*.

1. These shoes are too large; show me smaller ones, please.
2. One should be very attentive when crossing the street.
3. One never knows the result of the experiment.
4. This computer is less powerful than the one we need.
5. This computer programme allows one to work with financial documents.
6. One can expect better weather in two days.
7. We want to buy a big TV for the sitting room and a smaller one for the kitchen.

8. One must study hard to pass the examinations.
9. That is clear without explanation.
10. The methods they use are not the ones that lead to success.
11. The more one reads, the more one knows.
12. This dictionary is too small; I'll need a bigger one.

 **9.11.** *Переведите следующие предложения, обращая внимание на значения слов **that** (**those**).*

1. They knew that the advertising campaign was a failure.
2. That was the work that they continued to do.
3. That he wanted to stay at his friends a little more wasn't a news.
4. She said that she wouldn't buy the dress that she liked.
5. The problem is that they haven't answered the enquiry.
6. The question that was discussed at the meeting yesterday was very important.
7. Those buildings belong to our University.
8. We didn't expect that all those things were so important.
9. What was that he wanted?
10. The signature on this cheque is different from that in the letter.
11. The advice that you gave me is very important.
12. The requirements for a new party of goods are the same as those of the previous one.

УСЛОВНЫЕ ПРЕДЛОЖЕНИЯ

Условные предложения могут быть следующими:

1. Предложения реального условия;
2. Предложения нереального условия. Использование глагольных форм в этих предложениях зависит от

степени реальности и времени действия, выраженного глаголом.

Придаточные предложения реального условия и времени, действие которых отнесено к будущему

В придаточных предложениях условия и времени с союзами

if (если),

when (когда),

after (после),

before (перед тем, как),

as soon as (как только),

unless (если не),

until (до тех пор, пока не),

будущее время заменяется формой настоящего времени, но на русский язык переводится будущим, например:

If you help me (придаточное предл. условия), *I shall do this work on time* (главное предл.) . — Если ты поможешь мне, я сделаю эту работу вовремя.

As soon as I am free, I'll come to you. — Как только я освобожусь, я приду к тебе.

We shall not begin until you come. — Мы не начнем, пока ты не придешь.

Предложения нереального условия (Сослагательное наклонение)

Сослагательное наклонение выражает возможность, нереальность, предположительность действия.

а) действие относится к настоящему или будущему:

If I knew his address I would write to him.

Если бы я знал его адрес (сейчас), я написал бы ему (сейчас или в ближайшем будущем).

If the weather were fine he would go to the country.

Если бы погода (сейчас) была хорошей, он бы поехал за город.

Глагол в придаточном предложении – в форме *Past Indefinite*, в главном – в форме *Future in the Past*.

б) действие относится к прошлому:

If the weather had been fine yesterday he would have gone to the country.

Если бы погода была вчера хорошей, он бы поехал за город.

В случае, если действие, описываемое сослагательным наклонением, относится к прошедшему времени, в главном предложении используется форма будущего совершенного с точки зрения прошедшего *Future Perfect-in-the Past*, а в придаточном – прошедшее совершенное *Past Perfect*.

If I had known his address I would have written to him.

Если бы я знал его адрес (в прошлом), я написал бы ему (в прошлом же).

Сослагательное наклонение после глагола *wish*

Для выражения сожаления, относящегося к будущему, употребляются сочетания с глаголом **could**; для выражения пожелания на будущее, а также жалобы, просьбы или раздражения, употребляется **would**.

I wish I lived not far from here. (настоящее время).

I wish I could live not far from here. (будущее время).

Жаль, что я не живу поблизости.

I wish I had lived not far from here. (прошедшее время).

I wish I would live not far from here. (будущее время).

Жаль, что я не жил поблизости.

Примеры:


I wish it were not so cold. Мне бы хотелось, чтобы не было так холодно.

I wish I knew their address. Мне бы хотелось знать их адрес.


I wish I had made decision yesterday. Жаль, что я не принял решение вчера.

I wish you could send the answer as soon as possible. Мне бы хотелось, чтобы вы послали ответ как можно скорее.


We wish you would accept our offer. Нам бы хотелось, чтобы вы приняли наше предложение.

 **9.12.** *Переведите на русский язык следующие предложения.*

1. If I came later I would be late for the lesson. 2. If he had known the time-table he wouldn't have missed the train. 3. It would be better if you learned to drive a car. 4. I wish I had known this before. 5. I would have sent a letter to you if I had known your address. 6. If I had met you yesterday I would have told you about it. 7. If I were in your place I wouldn't buy the tickets beforehand. 8. If I had known that you needed help I would have helped you. 9. We wish you would visit us on Saturday.

 **9.13.** *Переведите на русский язык.*

1. I wish the customers were not late as usual.
2. I wish the letter hadn't been so long.
3. I wish you wouldn't be slow.
4. I wish I could go to my work by car.
5. I wish it would stop raining.

 9.14. Раскройте скобки.

He (go) out when the weather (get) warmer. 2. I (wait) for you until you (come) back from school. 3. I'm afraid the train (start) before we (come) to the station. 4. We (go) to the country tomorrow if the weather (to be) fine. 5. We (not pass) the examination next year if we not (work) much harder. 6. If you (not drive) more carefully you (have) an accident. 7. You (be) late if you (not take) a taxi. 8. I (finish) reading this book before I (go) to bed. 9. You must (send) us a telegram as soon as you (arrive). 10. We (have) a picnic tomorrow if it (be) a fine day. 11. We (go) out when it (stop) raining. 12. We (not to have) dinner until you (come). 13. I'm sure they (write) to us when they (know) our new address.

UNIT 1

Text 1

ECONOMICS AS A SCIENCE

Although the content and character of economics cannot be described briefly, **numerous** writers have **attempted** that. An especially useless, though once popular, example is: «Economics is what economists do.»

Similarly, a **notable** economist of the last century Alfred Marshall called economics «a study of mankind in the ordinary business of life.» Lionel Robbins in the 1930s described economics as «the science of choice among **scarce** means to accomplish unlimited ends.»

During much of modern history, especially in the nineteenth century, economics was called simply «the science of wealth.» Less seriously, George Bernard Shaw was credited in the early 1900s with the **witticism** that «economics is the science whose **practitioners**, even if all were laid end to end, would not reach agreement.»

We may make better progress by comparing economics with other subjects. Like every other discipline that attempts to explain observed facts (e.g., physics, astronomy, meteorology), economics **comprises** a **vast** collection of descriptive material organized around a central **core** of theoretical principles. The manner in which theoretical principles are formulated and used in

applications varies greatly from one science to another. Like psychology, economics draws much of its *theoretical core* from intuition, **casual observation**, and «common knowledge about human nature.» Like astronomy, economics is largely nonexperimental. Like meteorology, economics is relatively inexact, as is **weather forecasting**. **Like particle physics and molecular biology, economics deals with an array of closely interrelated phenomena** (as do sociology and social psychology). Like such disciplines as art, fantasy writing, mathematics, metaphysics, cosmology, and the like, economics attracts different people for different reasons: «One person's meat is another person's poison.» Though all disciplines differ, all are remarkably similar in one respect: all are meant to convey an interesting, persuasive, and intellectually satisfying story about selected aspects of experience. As Einstein once put it: «Science is the attempt to make the chaotic diversity of our sense-experience correspond to a logically uniform system of thought.»

Economics deals with data on income, employment, expenditure, interest rates, prices and individual activities of production, consumption, transportation, and trade. Economics deals directly with only a **tiny fraction** of the whole spectrum of human behavior, and so the **range** of problems considered by economists is relatively narrow. Contrary to popular opinion, economics does not normally include such things as personal finance, ways to start a small business, etc.; in relation to everyday life, the economist is more like an astronomer than a weatherforecaster, more like a physical chemist than a **pharmacist**, more like a professor of hydrodynamics than a **plumber**.

In principle almost any **conceivable** problem, from marriage, suicide, capital punishment, and religious

observance to tooth brushing, drug abuse, extramarital affairs, and mall shopping, might serve (and, in the case of each of these examples has served) as an object for some economist's attention. There is, after all, no clear division between «economic» and «noneconomic» phenomena. In practice, however, economists have generally found it expedient to leave the physical and life sciences to those groups that first claimed them, though not always. In *recent* years economists have invaded territory once claimed exclusively by political scientists and sociologists, not to mention territories claimed by physical anthropologists, experimental psychologists, and paleontologists.

VOCABULARY

numerous многочисленный	phenomena явления
to attempt попытаться	to convey передавать
notable примечательный	income доход
scarce скудный, ограничен- ный	employment занятость
witticism [ˈwɪtɪzɪzəm] острота, шутка	expenditure затраты, из- держки, расход(ы)
practitioner [ˈpræktɪʃnə] те- рапевт	interest rate процентная ставка
to comprise включать в себя	range ряд
vast обширный, громадный	pharmacist фармацевт
core ядро	plumber водопроводчик
casual observations зд. по- вседневные наблюдения	conceivable мыслимый, ве- роятный, возможный
weather forecasting прогноз погоды	expedient целесообразный (-о), соответствующий, подходящий, надлежа- щий
agray массив, масса, множе- ство	to claim приписывать себе, претендовать
closely interrelated тесно взаимосвязанные	to invade вторгаться

General understanding

1. Is there a common opinion on the content and character of economics?
2. What definition of economics is referred to as «especially useless»?
3. With what sciences does the author compare economics? Why?
4. What similarities with economics have the following sciences: a) psychology b) astronomy c) meteorology 4) particle physics and molecular biology 5) art, fantasy writing, mathematics, metaphysics, cosmology, and the like
5. What is the scope of economics? What does economics deal with?
6. What does the author refer to as «popular opinion»?
7. According to the text, can such problems as marriage and extramarital affairs be the subject of economists' attention? Is there a division between «economic» and «noneconomic» problems?
8. What fields have economists «invaded» in recent years?

1. Defining economics.

A. Use the text to fill in the spaces:

PERIOD OF TIME	PERSON	DEFINITION
19 th century		«a study of mankind in the ordinary business of life.»
	George Bernard Shaw	
1930s		«the science of choice among scarce means to accomplish unlimited ends.»

B. What other two definitions could be found in the text? How does the author refer to each of them?

2. Similarities and differences:

SCIENCE(ES)	SIMILARITY	DIFFERENCE
psychology		
astronomy		
meteorology		
particle physics and molecular biology		
art, fantasy writing, mathematics, metaphysics, cosmology, «and the like»		

3. Which of the following is not true about economics and economists:

- A. There is no brief description of the content and character of economics.
- B. Alfred Marshall and Lionel Robbins agreed that: «Economics is what economists do.»
- C. In the 19th century economics was called «the science of wealth».
- D. Economics is only a theoretical science.
- E. Einstein once said, «One person's meat is another person's poison».
- F. Economics deals with the problems of income, employment, and interest rates.
- G. Economics also deals with weather forecasting, psychology and fantasy writing.
- H. In recent years economists switched to the new fields, such as political science and sociology.

4. Say in your own words what each of the following outstanding people thought of economics and economists:

- a) George Bernard Show
- b) Alfred Marshall
- c) Lionel Robbins

5. What is the profession of people who work in the field of:

(example): Those working in the field of economics are economists.

- a) physics
- b) astronomy
- c) meteorology
- d) psychology
- e) astronomy
- f) meteorology
- g) sociology
- h) mathematics

UNIT 2

Adam Smith and J.M. Keynes.

Text 1

ADAM SMITH

Economics, like every other intellectual discipline, has its roots in early Greece and Rome; but economics was first considered as a branch of domestic science (home economics) dealing with such matters as the management of slaves and the **allocation of manure** among alternative agricultural uses. In the **revival** of learning that followed the Middle Ages, economics **emerged** as a branch of moral philosophy concerned with such issues as the ethics of loan interest and the «justness» of market-determined wages and prices.

By the beginning of the eighteenth century, the subject had lost most of its theological overtones and had taken shape as an academic discipline, largely as a branch of political theory dealing with problems of government **intervention** in economic affairs.

Then in 1776 the Scottish moral philosopher Adam Smith published the first edition of his monumental «*Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*», and economics soon became an independent science.

The Vision of Adam Smith

Smith lived in an age when the right of rulers to **impose arbitrary** and oppressive **restrictions** on the political and

economic liberties of their subjects was coming under strong attack throughout the civilized world. As other men of that time were **arguing** that democracy could and should replace autocracy in the sphere of politics, so Adam Smith argued that **laissez-faire** could and should replace government direction and regulation in economics. The «should» was so mixed with the «could» portion of Smith's analysis that much of his book seemed almost as much a political tract as a work of science. What gave the book lasting **significance** was the Smith's strong arguments that the economic activities of individuals would be more effectively coordinated through the indirect and impersonal action of natural forces of self-interest and competition than through the direct and frequently **ill-considered** actions of government authorities. Smith opened minds to the existence of a «grand design» in economic affairs similar to that which Newton had earlier shown to exist in the realm of physical phenomena. The impact of Smith's ideas upon his contemporaries was widespread and immediate. As one modern scientist observed: «Before Adam Smith there had been much economic discussion; with him we reach the stage of discussing economics.»

That Smith's vision of the economy should ever have been considered original might seem strange to modern minds, but that would be because we now see economic phenomena in the light of his conception. As two leading scholars recently remarked, «The immediate «common sense» answer to the question, «What will an economy motivated by greed and controlled by a large number of different agents look like?» is probably: There will be chaos.» That is certainly the answer that would have been given by most of Smith's contemporaries — before they read his book. The greatness of Smith's accomplishment lies precisely in the fact that he, unlike his prede-

cessors, was able to think away **extraneous** complications and so **perceive** an order in economic affairs that common sense did not **reveal**.

It is one thing, of course, to say that Smith's conception of economic phenomena is original, another to suggest that it corresponds to contemporary experience. According to Smith, society in its economic aspect is a vast concourse of people held together by the **desire** of each to exchange goods and services with others. Each person is concerned directly only to further his own self-interest, but in pursuing that aim each «is led by an invisible hand» to promote the interests of others. **Forbidden** by law and social custom to **acquire** the property of other people by force, **fraud**, or **stealth**, each person **attempts** to maximize his own **gains** from trade by specializing in the production of goods and services for which he has a comparative advantage, trading part of his produce for the produce of others on the best terms he can **obtain**. As a **consequence**, the «natural forces» of market competition – the result of each person attempting to «buy cheap and sell dear» – come into play to establish equality between demand and supply for each **commodity** at rates of exchange (prices).

The economic system (so Smith and later writers argued) is a self-regulating mechanism that, like the human body, tends naturally toward a state of equilibrium if left to itself.

VOCABULARY

allocation of manure – <i>зд.</i>	to emerge – появляться,
распределение органи-	всплывать
ческих удобрений	loan interest – процентная
revival – возрождение,	ставка по займу
возобновление	intervention – вмешатель-
wages – заработная плата	ство

affair – дело	predecessors – предшественники
impose – налагать, наложить	reveal – обнаруживать, открывать
arbitrary – произвольный	laissez-faire – невмешательство
restrictions – ограничения	forbidden – запрещенный
to argue – спорить	acquire – приобретать
significance – значимость, значительность	fraud – мошенничество
ill considered – необдуман- ный	stealth – кража
realm – область, сфера	to attempt – пытаться
impact – воздействие	obtain – доставать, полу- чать
contemporaries – современники	consequence – последствие
perceive – воспринимать	equilibrium – равновесие
	commodity – товар, продукт

General understanding:

- 1) What was economics first considered to be?
- 2) A branch of what discipline did economics become in the Middle ages?
- 3) What changes had happened by the beginning of the 18th century?
- 4) When did economics, according to the text, become «an independent science»?
- 5) In what «age» did Adam Smith live?
- 6) What was Smith's point of view on the role of government in economics?
- 7) Why does the author refer to Smith's work as a «political tract»?
- 8) What was Smith's great «accomplishment»?
- 9) What, according to the author, gave the book «lasting significance»?
- 10) What was Smith's vision of «society», «each person», «economic system»?

1. Economics through the history. Which of the following statements are true/false?

- A. Economics is an intellectual discipline because it has its roots and branches in early Greece and Rome.
- B. First it was considered as a branch of home economics.
- C. The allocation of manure among alternative agricultural uses once was one of the questions of economics.
- D. The ethics of loan rates and management of slaves were among the most important problems of economics during the Middle Ages.
- E. Scottish moral philosopher Adam Smith published the first edition of his monumental work in 1767.
- F. Adam Smith argued that laissez-faire could and should replace government direction and regulation in economics.
- G. According to the author, Smith and Newton «opened minds» to the existence of a «grand design» in the fields of their studies.
- H. Modern economists don't find Smith's vision of economics revolutionary.
- I. According to Smith, people are motivated by «greed, fraud and stealth».

2. Explain in your own words the following:

- a) home economics
- a) moral philosophy
- b) «justness»
- c) economic affairs
- d) independent science
- e) political and economic liberties
- f) common sense

3. How do you understand Adam Smith's concept of:

- a) laissez-faire
- b) «natural forces of self-interest and competition»

- c) «grand design»
- d) society
- e) rate of exchange (prices)

4. Explain the difference between the following:

- a) branch of science – academic discipline
- b) first edition – first volume
- c) authorities – government
- d) common – frequent
- e) to acquire – to obtain – to gain

5. Give more synonyms and write 1–2 sentences with each to illustrate the differences in lexical meaning.

- a) issue-subject...
- b) vast-widespread...
- c) vision-sight...
- d) immediate-sudden...
- b) shape-form...
- c) obtain-acquire...

6. Do you agree or disagree with the following opinions? Why and why not? Write an essay of 150-200 words to support your opinion.

1. «Before Adam Smith there had been much economic discussion; with him we reach the stage of discussing economics.»
2. «The immediate «common sense» answer to the question, «What will an economy motivated by greed and controlled by a large number of different agents look like?» is: There will be chaos.»



Text 2

THE CHALLENGE OF LORD JOHN MAYNARD KEYNES

Smith's version of the economic system as a naturally **self-organizing** and **self-adjusting** «social mechanism»

– known latterly as classical or neoclassical economic doctrine (or sometimes, more shortly and perhaps satirically, as orthodox or conventional wisdom) – was never **confirmed** by factual evidence, as Newton's **laws of motion** were; all the same, classical doctrine dominated economic thinking and national economic policy in all **advanced** economies for the next 150 years, and it plays a **prominent** role in many countries to this day.

Whether right or wrong, classical theory was first seriously challenged by the great English statesman and economist Lord John Maynard Keynes, who claimed to see in the Great Depression of the 1930s evidence that the economic system was not self-adjusting, and whose followers argued that without continued government intervention the economic system would typically operate at levels of activity substantially lower than required to achieve **full employment** of labor and other resources. Exactly what Keynes said, or what he meant, or what he really meant, has been hotly **disputed** among economists for more than 50 years, **conveying** to many noneconomists the **notion** that economists as a group are uniquely quarrelsome and doubtfully competent. There is no **merit** in this notion. What is true, as the great English economist Joan Robinson once observed, is that «in a subject where there is no agreed procedure for **knocking out** error, doctrine has long life.»

Perhaps time and further study will some day reveal whether the classical or the Keynesian conception of economic life accords more closely with experience.

Meanwhile, the great worry is that, in the absence of professional competence to make **valid** diagnoses, we will treat cases of economic toothache as cases of **lockjaw** and kill our patient: or, no less seriously, we will leave **apparently** minor economic lumps untreated and so, through inaction, fail to cure problems that turn out to

be terminal. On a brighter note we may recall Lord Keynes's wistful observation: «If economists could someday manage to get themselves thought of as humble, competent people, on a level with dentists, that would be splendid!» Perhaps that time will one day come. If it does, and if economists are then able accurately to diagnose and prescribe cures for economic ills, they will have little reason to feel humble.»

VOCABULARY

self-organizing – самоорганизующаяся	required – требуемый
self-adjusting – саморегулирующаяся	full employment – полная занятость
latterly – недавно, в последнее время	to dispute – спорить, оспаривать
to confirm – подтверждать	notion – понятие
laws of motion – законы движения	merit – достоинство
advanced – развитой, прогрессивный	to knock out – выбросить
prominent – выдающийся	valid – действительный
evidence – свидетельство	lockjaw – столбняк
to require – требовать	apparently – по всей видимости
	wistful – тоскливый

General understanding:

1. What is a classical economic doctrine?
2. What does the author say about Newton's and Smith's laws or doctrines?
3. Who first challenged the classical economics? When was that? Under what circumstances?
4. What were Keynes' and his followers' arguments against the self-adjusting market doctrine?
5. How had the noneconomists' opinion changed toward the economist? How does the author comment that common opinion?

6. According to the author, which concept or doctrine accords more closely with experience?
7. What is author's «great worry»?
8. Why should economists feel «humble»?

1. Adam Smith vs. Keynes. What of the following is true:

- A. Smith's version of the economic system was proved to be right for the advanced economies.
- B. Keynes challenged both classical and neoclassical economic doctrines.
- C. Lord John Maynard Keynes was not alone in his beliefs.
- D. The reason why Smith's theory of self-organizing and self-adjusting «social mechanism» had been criticized was the Great Depression of the 1930s.
- E. According to the Keynes and his colleagues, continued government intervention is necessary to achieve required employment of labour and other positive results.
- F. Keynes works were proved to be true and that was the reason why no one disputed them during the following 50 years.
- G. Keynes himself wasn't really sure that economics is an accurate science.
- H. Keynes thought that dentists are more competent economists than Adam Smith followers.

2. Find the equivalents in Russian:

- a) uniquely quarrelsome and doubtfully competent
- b) intellectual discipline
- c) concerned with such issues
- d) government intervention in economic affairs
- e) to impose arbitrary and oppressive restrictions
- f) strong arguments

- g) an economy motivated by greed and controlled by a large number of different agents

3. What did they really mean? Choose the answer and prepare arguments to support your choice.

1. By stating «in a subject where there is no agreed procedure for knocking out error, doctrine has long life» great English economist Joan Robinson meant that:
- there is too little agreement between economists
 - the subject of economics is too widespread
 - economics is too empirical
 - errors happen because humans are imperfect.
2. «If economists could some day manage to get themselves thought of as humble, competent people, on a level with dentists, that would be splendid!» – wrote sir Keynes, implying that:
- economists at Keynes' time were not competent
 - Keynes thought that dentists are very competent people
 - Keynes thought that dentists are humble and economists aren't.
3. «Perhaps that time will one day come.» – continued Lord Keynes, – « If it does, and if economists are then able accurately to diagnose and prescribe cures for economic ills, they will have little reason to feel humble.» He wanted to say that:
- he believed in economics of the future
 - he thought that economics should «learn to cure ills» from medicine
 - he was sure that if future economists would be as skilled as doctors (dentists) they should be proud of themselves.

Questions for discussion. Why and why not:

1. Was the Great Depression the only reason for Keynes' criticism? Do we have to wait till the next crisis to come up with the new theory or it could be proved experimentally?
2. Why did it take 150 years for economists to realize that Smith's theory was not correct?
3. Do you agree with the author that the «great worry» is that there is a lack of professional competence to make valid diagnoses? Is it a problem of economics as a science?

UNIT 3

Theories of economics

Text 1

CLASSICAL LIBERALISM

In the seventeenth century, liberalism emerged as the radical philosophy that attacked **authoritarianism** and paternalism in the political sphere by defending the rights of the individual against the commands of monarchs and other **rulers**. The seventeenth-century philosopher John Locke questioned claims to political authority based on birth, social status, **privilege**, and **divine right**. Political authority either **derived** from the consent of the governed or else was **illegitimate**.

Later in the eighteenth century, liberals added the notion of the «rule of law,» the idea that government in its legislative capacity had to **enact general rules** that apply to all citizens equally. The substitution of the rule of people for the rule of law created a **capricious**, uncertain, and sometimes cruel community life. This early variety of liberalism – often termed «classical liberalism» – stimulated the development of the social sciences by insisting that what holds society together and promotes an orderly commercial economy is the mutual interplay of the passions and interests of ordinary citizens in the market.

A basic principle of liberal thought is that individuals are the best and most accurate judges of their own interests and **can be relied upon** to pursue those interests

with great **dedication** and creativity. The mighty arm of the state with its web of regulations and bureaucratic agents often does more harm than good when trying to substitute administrative methods of organization for impersonal market processes that **spring out** of self-interested individual action.

The philosopher and American revolutionary, Thomas Paine, wrote that «society is created by our wants, government by our **wickedness**.»

Classical liberals are not anarchists and at the very least recommend a minimal state: a state that protects lives, defines property rights, and enforces private contracts. A great many classical liberals (such as Adam Smith and the later classical school of economists) went somewhat further and requested that the state build and maintain certain public works (bridges, canals, highways, **harbors, recreational parks**, and so on), maintain standing armies, provide basic education, promote invention and innovation, and **intervene** in the market on a limited scale for specific humane purposes such as the enactment and **enforcement** of child labor laws.

Generally, the classical liberal believes in the general rule of laissez-faire and wants to preserve self-regulating market processes as much as possible. The classical liberal is **confident** that with the enactment of strict constitutional safeguards and the elimination of monopoly and the never-ending varieties of special-interest legislation, peace and material progress are within the reach of all societies and all social classes.

The leading works of classical liberalism include Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations* (1776), Herbert Spencer's *The Man versus the State* (1892), Friedrich A. Hayek's *Constitution of Liberty* (1960), Ludwig von Mises's *Liberalism: A Socio-Economic Exposition* (1962), and Milton Friedman's *Capitalism and Freedom* (1962).

VOCABULARY

authoritarianism – авторитаризм	to rely on (upon) – полагаться на кого-либо (что-либо)
paternalism – патернализм	dedication – посвящение
rulers – правители	spring out – происходить из
privilege – привилегия	wickedness – злобность
divine right – божественное право	harbo(u)r – бухта
derived – производное	recreational parks – парки отдыха
illegitimate – не легитимный	intervene – вмешиваться
to enact – вводить	to enforce – следить за соблюдением
capricious – прихотливый, капризный	confident – уверенный

General understanding:

- 1) When and why did liberalism emerge?
- 2) What did John Locke claim?
- 3) What notion had been added to the liberalism in 18th century?
- 4) What is the basic principle of liberal thought?
- 5) How does the author refer to the state?
- 6) What was Thomas Paine's vision of society and government?

Classical liberals**1. The classical liberal believes in:**

- a) ... the general rule of laissez-faire.
- b) ... Karl Marx.
- c) ... the state that protects rights, defines property rights and enforces private contracts.
- d) ... near end of Capitalism.
- e) ... the leading works of classical liberalism.

2. The classical liberal is confident that:

- a) ... monopolies should be eliminated.

- b) ... material progress is more important than public education.
- c) ... constitution should work properly.
- d) ... everyone can be rich and live in a peace.

3. Classical liberal recommends:

- a) ... a minimal state.
- b) ... invention of new weapons.
- c) ... children to work.
- d) ... maintain bridges, canals, harbours because water is nice.

4. Suggest Russian equivalents for:

- a) liberalism emerged as the radical philosophy that attacked authoritarianism and paternalism in the political sphere
- b) political authority based on birth, social status, privilege, and divine right
- c) derived from the consent of the governed or else was illegitimate
- d) government in its legislative capacity had to enact general rules
- e) to substitute administrative methods of organization
- f) enactment of strict constitutional safeguards and the elimination of monopoly
- g) maintain standing armies, provide basic education, promote invention and innovation
- h) special-interest legislation, peace and material progress

5. Explain the difference in English:

- a) paternalism – pattern
- b) common – ordinary
- c) holy – divine
- d) invention – innovation
- e) human – humanity
- f) confident – sure

6. Summarize the text paying special attention to personality and quotations.

Questions for discussion:

1. Do you think that liberalism is/was «radical» in post-Soviet Russia? Give one or two examples of radicalism.
2. Do you agree that classical liberalism «stimulated the development of the social sciences»?
3. Can you agree with Thomas Paine that: «society is created by our wants»?



Text 2

NEOCLASSICAL ECONOMICS

The most **remarkable feature** of neoclassical economics is that it reduces many broad categories of market phenomena to considerations of individual choice and, in this way, **suggests** that the science of economics can be **firmly grounded** on the basic individual act of subjectively choosing among alternatives.

Neoclassical economics began with the so-called **marginalist revolution** in value theory that emerged toward the end of the nineteenth century. Strictly speaking, neoclassical economics is not a school of thought (in the sense of a well-defined group of economists following a single great master) but more a **loose amalgam** of subschools of thought, each revolving around such **acknowledged** masters as Alfred Marshall in England, Leon Walras in France, and Carl Menger in Austria. What these subschools **have in common** is the importance they **attach** to explaining the coordinating features of market processes in terms of plans and subjective **evaluations** carried out by individuals in the market subject to the constraints of technological

knowledge, social custom and practice, and scarcity of resources.

The Subschools

In England, Marshall's **appointment** to the chair of political economy at Cambridge University in 1885 marked the start of the Cambridge school – a variant of neoclassical economics that stressed **continuity** with the past achievements of the classical school, especially the economics of David Ricardo and John Stuart Mill. In 1890 Marshall published his *Principles of Economics*, which demonstrated how the forces that determine the normal prices of commodities can be explained by means of supply and demand in the context of firms **struggling to survive** within industries. Marshall's disciples included A. C. Pigou, D. H. Robertson, Ralph Hawtrey, and to some extent the **controversial** John Maynard Keynes. (During the 1930s, Keynes turned against his old master by explaining how subjective evaluations can lead to discoordinating market processes and the unemployment of labor and disuse of capital.)

In France, Walras founded the general equilibrium school with the publication of his *Elements of Pure Economics* (1874). This school would eventually take root in Lausanne, Switzerland, through the contributions of Vilfredo Pareto, especially in his *Cours d'économie politique* (1896–1897). Some of Walras's teaching reached England by way of A. L. Bowley's *Mathematical Groundwork of Economics* (1924). Like Marshall, Walras and his followers were concerned with a supply and demand account of market pricing, but Walras went somewhat **beyond** Marshall and investigated the mathematical conditions under which all markets could be in equilibrium **simultaneously**.

In Austria, Carl Menger founded the Austrian school with the publication of his *Principles of Economics* (1871).

Subsequent professors at the University of Vienna, such as Friedrich von Wieser, Eugen von Bohm-Bawerk, and later Ludwig von Mises and Friedrich A. von Hayek, focused on the essential problems of economic organization by starting with Monger's insights about the importance of **economizing action** in shaping economic institutions in the market. Among Austrians, the important task of economic reasoning is **to disaggregate economic phenomena** so that the events can be made intelligible in terms of basic market forces of supply and demand operating through the decisions of individuals.

VOCABULARY

remarkable feature – отличительная черта	ба за выживание (существование)
to suggest – предлагать, предполагать	controversial – противоречивый
to be firmly grounded – твердо основываться на чем-либо	beyond – сверх, больше, дальше
to revolve – вращаться	simultaneously – одновременно
to acknowledge – подтверждать, признавать	subsequent – последующий
attach – прикреплять, прилагать	to disaggregate economic phenomena – расчленять (нить) экономические явления
struggling to survive – борьба	

General understanding:

1. What is the most remarkable feature of the neoclassical economics?
2. When did neoclassical economics begin?
3. How does the author refer to the neoclassical economics and neoclassical economists?
4. What subschools and names are mentioned in the text?
5. What economists worked in:
 - a) England
 - b) France
 - c) Austria

1. Complete the table:

COUNTRY	PERSONALITY	TITLE OF WORK	YEAR
Austria	Carl Menger	«Principles of economics»	1871

2. What is not true about the neoclassical economics and economists:

- A. Neoclassical economists simplified many broad categories of market phenomena.
- B. Neoclassical economics began when Adam Smith died.
- C. Neoclassical economics is not a school of thought.
- D. Marshall's appointment to the chair of political economy at Oxford University was the beginning of the neoclassical economics.
- E. A.C.Pigou, D.H. Robertson and Ralph Hawtrey were followers of Alfred Marshall.
- F. Vilfredo Pareto took root in Lausanne, in France.
- G. «Principles of economics» was written in 1871 by Carl Menger.
- H. Ideas of Sir Walras were promoted in England by A.L. Bowley.

3. Translate into Russian:

- a) reduces many broad categories of market phenomena
- b) the importance they attach to explaining the coordinating features of market processes
- c) appointment to the chair of political economy at Cambridge University
- d) firms struggling to survive within industries

- e) general equilibrium school
- f) his followers were concerned with a supply and demand account of market pricing
- g) importance of basic market forces of supply and demand operating through the decisions of individuals.
- h) economizing action in shaping economic institutions in the market

4. Write one sentence with each word:

- a) attach – attachment
- b) evaluate – evaluation
- c) appoint – appointment
- d) achieve – achievement

Questions for discussion:

1. Do you agree with the author that «the most remarkable feature of neoclassical economics is that it reduces many broad categories of market phenomena to considerations of individual choice»? Why and why not?
2. Do you think that neoclassical economics is a «loose amalgam of subschools of thought»?
3. Whose works are of the most importance for the development of economics?



Text 3

CRITICISM OF NEOCLASSICAL ECONOMICS

In the 1970s neoclassical economics came under attack for a variety of reasons. Reform liberals **contend** that the efficiency criterion ignores considerations of equity because market prices already imply a particular underlying **distribution of wealth** which the neoclassical writers **take as a given**. A complete policy analysis must start with an analysis of who ought to own wealth and for what **purposes**.

Another group of critics, the neo-Ricardian school, claims that neoclassical economics has **betrayed** the mission of the older classical school because of the neoclassical school's insistence on the supply and demand model. According to Piero Sraffa and his disciples, relative demand or utility plays **virtually** no role in defining relative commodity prices in long-run equilibrium and, therefore, plays little part in determining the social distribution of wealth. Here the technological conditions that surround the production of certain types of goods, especially those consumed by the working class, affect the distribution of income, and, therefore, the task of economic theory is to explain how surplus value is extracted from the working class and used by others. According to the Sraffa group, neoclassical economics represents an aberration from the more **profound** analysis **allegedly** offered by David Ricardo and further developed by Karl Marx. The Sraffa-neo-Ricardian school is quite content to do away with individual valuation in the marketplace and concentrate instead on the objective or technological conditions of long-run equilibrium. The attempt is to show that the distribution of income after some basic subsistence **allotment** to the workers is politically determined and therefore plays no part in the reproduction of annual output within the framework of capitalist social institutions.

Among neoclassical writers, the modern Austrian school **adherents** such as Israel Kirzner, Murray N. Rothbard, and Ludwig Lachmann are less concerned with the details of equilibrium positions such as described at length in Paul Samuelson's *Foundations of Economic Analysis* (1948) and more concerned with the process by which markets **adjust** or fail to adjust to change. Modern Austrians challenge attempts to measure opportunity costs by claiming that it is illegitimate to assume that market

prices are equilibrium prices. They therefore **reject** the methodological basis of cost-benefit analysis.

In summary, the neoclassical school offers a remarkably **diverse body of concepts** to explain the operation of the market in terms of the **twin forces** of supply and demand. In terms of its **admittedly** limited concept of economic efficiency (estimated in econometric studies by assuming that market prices are indexes of costs and benefits), neoclassical economics offers a basis for criticizing the most wasteful of government policies by showing that less expensive alternatives exist. Their expanding needs and wants against the limited resources available to satisfy them.

The peoples of the nations of the world continually seek to supplement and maximize their welfare by a wide variety of interactions and exchanges **across boundaries**. Differences in **aspirations** (human, natural) and capital resources; technology; culture; social and political systems; and other factors are always **apparent** and lay the foundation for mutually advantageous economic relationships and conflicts.

VOCABULARY

contend – утверждать
distribution of wealth – распределение богатств
to take as a given – принимать за должное
purposes – цели
to betray – предавать
virtually – практически, фактически
profound – глубокий
allegedly – якобы

to be content – быть довольным чем-либо
to do away with – расстаться с чем-либо
subsistence – существование, пропитание
allotment – доля
adherents – приверженцы
to adjust – приспособляться
to reject – отвергать, отклонять

diverse body of concepts – across boundaries – через
 разнообразие концепций границы
 to admit – допускать aspirations – устремления
 mutually – взаимно

General understanding:

1. When did neoclassical economics come under attack?
2. What were the reasons for the criticism?
3. What did neo-Ricardian group claim?
4. What were visions of Kirzner, Murray and Lachmann?
5. Who was the author of «Foundation of Economic Analysis»?
6. What does neoclassical school pretend to do?

1. Complete the table:

SUBSCHOOL	PERSONALITIES	CRITICISM OF NEOCLASSICAL ECONOMICS	VISIONS

2. Translate into Russian:

- a) Neoclassical economics came under attack for a variety of reasons.
- b) Neo-Ricardian school, claims that neoclassical economics has betrayed the mission of the older classical school.
- c) Relative demand or utility plays virtually no role in defining relative commodity prices in long-run equilibrium.
- d) Neoclassical economics represents an aberration from the more profound analysis
- e) The attempt is to show that the distribution of income to the workers is politically determined.

- f) Some scientists were more concerned with the process by which markets adjust or fail to adjust to change
- g) The peoples of the nations of the world continually seek to supplement and maximize their welfare

3. Find equivalents in Russian for:

- a) the efficiency criterion ignores considerations of equity
- b) surplus value
- c) distribution of wealth
- d) supply and demand model
- e) profound analysis
- f) long-run equilibrium
- g) the reproduction of annual output
- h) opportunity costs
- i) a wide variety of interactions and exchanges

4. Explain the difference between the following words. Write one sentence with each to illustrate it:

- a) disciples – followers
- b) theory – concept
- c) adjust – reject
- d) attempt – attain
- e) dear – expensive
- f) needs – wants
- g) illegal – illegitimate

Questions for discussion:

1. Do you agree that new economic theories emerge in the periods of stagnation and decline?
2. It has been not mentioned in the text any Russian economists. Why? Are there any modern prominent Russian economists?
3. Do you think that complicated economic processes could be explained in terms of «the twin forces of supply and demand»?

UNIT 4

Levels of economics

Text 1

MACROECONOMICS

The word macroeconomics means economics in the large. The macroeconomist's concerns are with such global questions as **total production, total employment, the rate of change of overall prices, the rate of economic growth, and so on**. The questions asked by the macroeconomist are in terms of **broad aggregates** – what determines the spending of all **consumers** as opposed to the microeconomic question of how the spending decisions of **individual households** are made; what determines the capital spending of all firms combined as opposed to the decision to build a new factory by a single firm; what determines total unemployment in the economy as opposed to why there have been **layoffs** in a specific industry.

Macroeconomists measure overall **economic activity**; analyze the **determinants** of such activity by the use of macroeconomic theory; forecast future economic activity; and attempt to formulate policy responses designed to **reconcile** forecasts with target values of production, employment, and prices.

An important task of macroeconomics is to develop ways of aggregating the **values** of the economic activities of individuals and firms into **meaningful totals**. To this end such concepts as **gross domestic product (GDP), national income, personal income, and personal disposable income** have been developed.

Macroeconomic analysis attempts to explain how the magnitudes of the principal macroeconomic variables are determined and how they interact. And through the development of theories of the **business cycle** and **economic growth**, macroeconomics helps to explain the dynamics of how these aggregates move over time.

Macroeconomics is concerned with such major policy issues as the **attainment** and **maintenance** of full employment and **price stability**. Considerable effort must first be expended to determine what goals could be achieved. Experience teaches that it would not be possible to **eliminate** inflation entirely without inducing a major recession combined with high unemployment. Similarly, an overambitious employment target would produce **labor shortages** and wage inflation.

During the 1960s it was believed that unemployment could be reduced to 4 percent of the labor force without causing inflation. More recent experience suggests that **reduction** of unemployment to 5.5 percent of the labour force is about as well as we can do.

VOCABULARY

total production – общая производительность	individual households – индивидуальные хозяйства
total employment – общая занятость	layoff – увольнение
the rate of change of overall prices – коэффициент изменений предельных цен	economic activity – экономическая активность
rate of economic growth – темпы экономического роста	determinants – показатели, определители
broad aggregates – масштабные совокупности	values – ценности
	meaningful totals – значимые итоги
	gross domestic product (GDP) – валовой внутренний продукт (ВВП)

national income – национальный доход
personal income – личный доход
personal disposable income – личный доход после уплаты налогов
business cycle – экономический цикл
economic growth – экономический рост

attainment – достижения
maintenance – поддержание, содержание
price stability – стабильность цен
eliminate – ликвидировать, исключать
labor shortage – нехватка рабочей силы
reduction – уменьшение

General understanding

1. What does the word macroeconomics mean?
2. What are the concerns of a macroeconomist?
3. What is the difference between the questions asked by macroeconomists and microeconomics?
4. What is, according to the text, the important task of macroeconomist?
5. What does macroeconomic analysis attempt to explain?
6. What are the concepts of macroeconomics?
7. What are the most important theories of macroeconomics?
8. What is said about the correlation between the inflation and unemployment?

1. Macroeconomics vs. microeconomics. Fill in the table to show the difference between:

MACROECONOMICS	MICROECONOMICS

2. Which of the following statements are true about macroeconomics and macroeconomists:

- A. Macroeconomics deals with global questions only.

- B. Macroeconomics means economics in the large because it asks more questions than microeconomics.
- C. Macroeconomist analyzes activities of families and large firms.
- D. Such concepts as gross domestic product, national income and personal disposable income serve as meaningful totals.
- E. Macroeconomic analysis shows the development of the economic theory.
- F. Theory of business cycles concerns business. That is why this is a microeconomic theory.
- G. Inflation could not be eliminated without some negative changes in economics.
- H. More recent experience proves that macroeconomists of 60s were wrong.

3. Translate into Russian:

- A. The questions asked by the macroeconomist are in terms of *broad aggregates*.
- B. What determines the capital spending of all firms combined as opposed to the decision to build a new factory by a single firm?
- C. Macroeconomists measure overall *economic activity*; analyze the *determinants* of such activity by the use of macroeconomic theory.
- D. Macroeconomic analysis attempts to explain how the magnitudes of the principal macroeconomic variables are determined.
- E. Considerable effort must first be expended to determine what goals could be achieved.
- F. More recent experience suggests the *reduction* of unemployment to 5.5 percent of the labor force.
- G. Experience teaches that it would not be possible to *eliminate* inflation entirely.

4. Explain in your own words the importance and practical applications of the following concepts. (Give Russian equivalents):

- a) total production
- b) total employment
- c) the rate of change of overall prices
- d) GDP
- e) national income
- f) personal income
- g) personal disposable income

5. Are you able to answer the following macroeconomic questions (If not, explain why it is impossible):

1. What determines the spending of all consumers?
2. What determines the capital spending?
3. What determines the capital spending of all firms?

Questions for discussion:

1. Was there a difference between macroeconomics and microeconomics in the Soviet economics? In 18th century? In 19th century?
2. What is more important for economy in general – microeconomics or macroeconomics?
3. Is there a difference in analyzing macroeconomic and microeconomic problems?

 **Text 2**

MICROECONOMICS

The word «micro» means small, and microeconomics means economics in the small. The optimizing behavior of individual units such as households and firms provides the foundation for microeconomics.

Microeconomists may **investigate** individual markets or even the economy as a whole, but their analyses are derived from the aggregation of the behavior of individual units. Microeconomic theory is used extensively in many areas of **applied economics**. For example, it is used in industrial organization, labor economics, international trade, cost-benefit analysis, and many other economic subfields. The tools and analyses of microeconomics provide a common ground, and even a language, for economists interested in a wide range of problems.

At one time there was a sharp **distinction** in both methodology and **subject matter** between microeconomics and macroeconomics.

The methodological distinction became somewhat **blurred** during the 1970s as more and more macroeconomic analyses were built upon microeconomic foundations. Nonetheless, major distinctions remain between the two major branches of economics. For example, the microeconomist is interested in the determination of individual prices and relative prices (i.e., **exchange ratios** between goods), whereas the macroeconomist is interested more in the **general price level** and its change over time.

Optimization plays a key role in microeconomics. The consumer is assumed to maximize **utility** or **satisfaction** subject to the **constraints** imposed by income or income earning power. The producer is assumed to maximize profit or minimize cost subject to the technological constraints under which the firm operates. Optimization of social welfare sometimes is the criterion for the determination of public policy.

Opportunity cost is an important concept in microeconomics. Many courses of action are valued in terms of what is **sacrificed** so that they might be **undertaken**. For example, the opportunity cost of a public

project is the value of the additional goods that the private sector would have produced with the resources used for the public project.

Theory of the Consumer

The individual consumer or household is assumed to possess a **utility** function, which specifies the satisfaction, which is gained from the consumption of alternative bundles of goods. The consumer's income or income-earning power determines which bundles are available to the consumer. The consumer then selects a bundle that gives the highest possible level of utility. With few exceptions, the consumer is treated as a price taker — that is, the consumer is free to choose whatever quantities income **allows** but has no **influence** over prevailing market prices. In order to **maximize** utility the consumer purchases goods so that the subjective rate of substitution for each pair of goods as indicated by the consumer's utility function equals the objective rate of substitution given by the ratio of their market prices. This basic utility-maximization analysis has been modified and expanded in many different ways.

Theory of the Producer

The individual producer or firm is assumed to possess a production function, which specifies the quantity of output produced as a function of the quantities of the inputs used in production. The producer's **revenue** equals the quantity of output produced and sold times its price, and the cost to the producer equals the sum of the quantities of inputs purchased and used times their prices. Profit is the difference between revenue and cost. The producer is assumed to maximize profits subject to the technology given by the production function. Profit maximization requires that the producer use each factor to a point at which its marginal contribution to revenue equals its marginal contribution to cost.

Under pure competition, the producer is a price taker who may sell at the going market price whatever has been produced. Under monopoly (one seller) the producer recognizes that price declines as sales are expanded, and under monopsony (one buyer) the producer recognizes that the price paid for an input increases as purchases are increased.

A producer's cost function gives production cost as a function of output level on the assumption that the producer combines inputs to minimize production cost. Profit maximization using revenue and cost functions requires that the producer equate the decrement in revenue from producing one less unit (called marginal revenue) to the corresponding decrement in cost (called marginal cost). Under pure competition, marginal revenue equals price. Consequently, the producer equates marginal cost of production to the going market price.

VOCABULARY

behavior — поведение	constraints — ограничение, стеснение
to investigate — исследовать	monopsony — монополия (рынок, на котором выступает лишь один покупатель товара, услуги или ресурса)
applied economics — прикладная экономика	opportunity cost — альтернативные издержки
distinction — отличие	to sacrifice — пожертвовать, приносить в жертву
subject — предмет, субъект	to undertake — взять на себя
matter — вопрос, материал	to allow — позволять, разрешать
to blur — затушевывать, размывать	to influence — влиять
to remain — оставаться	to maximize — максимально увеличивать
exchange ratio — ставка (соотношение) обмена	revenue — доходы
optimization — оптимизация	
utility — полезность	
utility function — функция полезности	
satisfaction — удовлетворение	

General understanding:

1. What is, according to the text, microeconomics?
2. What is meant by «economics in the small»?
3. What economic phenomena are of microeconomists attention?
4. Where is microeconomic theory used?
5. What is «optimization»?
6. What is the concept of the theory of consumer?
7. What is the major difference between the theory of consumer and the theory of producer?

1. Find equivalents in Russian:

- a) optimizing behavior of individual units
- b) industrial organization
- c) labor economics
- d) international trade
- e) cost-benefit analysis
- f) sharp distinction in both methodology and subject matter
- g) subjective rate of substitution

2. Translate into Russian:

- A. Microeconomic theory is used extensively in many areas of applied economics.
- B. Their analyses are derived from the aggregation of the behavior of individual units.
- C. The consumer then selects a bundle that gives the highest possible level of utility.
- D. The consumer is free to choose whatever quantities income allows but has no influence over prevailing market prices.
- E. The producer equates marginal cost of production to the going market price.
- F. The producer recognizes that price declines as sales are expanded.

g) Under pure competition, the producer is a price taker who may sell at the going market price whatever has been produced.

3. Give definition to the following:

- a) microeconomics
- b) applied economics
- c) optimization
- d) opportunity action
- e) utility maximization

Questions for discussion:

1. What areas of applied economics are of the most importance?
2. What distinction in methodology between macro- and microeconomics is the most distinctive?
3. Does the author's concept of theories of consumer and producer comply with your own?

UNIT 5

The laws of economics

Text A

THE LAW OF DEMAND

Demand is a **key concept** in both macroeconomics and microeconomics. **In the former**, consumption is mainly a function of income; whereas in the latter, consumption or demand is primarily, but not exclusively, a function of price. This analysis of demand relates to microeconomic theory.

The theory of demand was mostly **implicit** in the writings of classical economists before the late nineteenth century. Current theory rests on the foundations laid by Marshall (1890), Edgeworth (1881), and Pareto (1896). Marshall viewed demand in a **cardinal** context, in which utility could be quantified. Most contemporary economists **hold the approach** taken by Edgeworth and Pareto, in which demand has only ordinal characteristics and in which indifference or preferences become central to the analysis.

Much economic analysis focuses on the relation between prices and quantities demanded, the other variables being **provisionally** held constant. At the various prices that could prevail in a market during some period of time, different quantities of a good or service would be bought. Demand, then, is considered as a list of prices and quantities, with one quantity for each possible price. With price on the vertical axis and quantity on the horizontal

axis, the demand curve **slopes downward** from left to right, signifying that smaller quantities are bought at higher prices and larger quantities are bought at lower prices. The inverse relation between price and quantity is usually called the law of demand. The law rests on two foundations. One is the theory of the consumer, the logic of which shows that the consumer responds to lower prices by buying more. The other foundation is empirical, with innumerable studies of demand in actual markets having demonstrated the existence of downward-sloping demand curves.

Exceptions to the law of demand are the **curiosa** of theorists. The best-known exception is the Giffen effect — a consumer buys more, not less of a commodity at higher prices when a negative income effect dominates over the **substitution effect**.

Another is the **Vehien effect** — some commodities are theoretically wanted solely for their higher prices. The higher these prices are, the more the use of such commodities fulfills the requirements of **conspicuous consumption**, and thus the stronger the demand for them.

VOCABULARY

in the former — в прошлом	demand curve — кривая
implicit — подразумеваю-	спроса
щийся	to slope down — спускаться
hold the approach — придержи-	to signify — означать, выра-
живаться взглядов	жать
approach — подход	substitution effect — эффект
provisionally — временно	замещения
list — список, перечень	conspicuous consumption —
vertical — вертикальный	потребление заметное

General understanding:

1. What is «demand»?
2. What is the current theory of demand based on?
3. What prominent economists contributed to the development of the theory of demand?
4. How is it possible to show the interrelation of price and quantities consumed?
5. What is «Giffen effect»?
6. What is Veblen effect?

1. Find equivalents in Russian and write two sentences with each:

- a) key concept
- b) consumption
- c) empirical foundation
- d) curiosa of theorists
- e) of a commodity at higher prices
- f) strong demand
- g) quantities of a goods
- h) ordinal characteristics
- i) conspicuous consumption

2. Complete the table:

PERSONALITY	YEAR	IDEAS

3. Which is not true about the law of demand:

- A. Consumption is the key concept of microeconomics.
- B. Classical economists contributed a lot to the development of the theory of demand.

3. Translate into Russian:

- A. Much economic analysis focuses on the relation between prices and quantities demanded.

- B. Marshall viewed demand in a cardinal context, in which utility could be quantified.
- C. Consumption or demand is primarily, but not exclusively, a function of price.
- D. With price on the vertical axis and quantity on the horizontal axis, the demand curve slopes downward from left to right.
- E. A consumer buys more, not less of a commodity at higher prices when a negative income effect dominates over the substitution effect.
- F. Innumerable studies of demand in actual markets having demonstrated the existence of downward-sloping demand curves.

2. Explain the difference and write one sentence with each:

- a) sign – signify
- b) list – page
- c) quantity – quality
- d) effect – effective
- e) substitute – retribute
- f) conspicuous – curious

3. Find antonyms to the following:

- a) negative –
- b) possible –
- c) numerable –
- d) vertical –

4. Think of examples of exceptions to the Law of Demand in the contemporary Russia. Write an essay of 100–150 words.

Questions for discussion:

- 1) Do you agree that «conspicuous consumption» plays the great role in the economy of Russia?

- 2) Do you think that the economic crisis and instant and immediate raise of prices in September 1998 in Russia was provoked by a) producers b) consumers c) wholesalers d) traders?
- 3) Do you think it is logical that «consumer responds to lower prices by buying more»? Think of an example when consumer believes that prices would go even lower and doesn't react immediately in the expected way.

Text B

CHANGES IN CONSUMER DEMAND

Increases or decreases in demand are changes in the quantities that would be bought at any of the possible **array** of prices. Changes in demand are shifts or movements of the **entire** demand curve. A shift to the right means an increase in demand. It can come from any one or a combination of the following: a change in consumer desire or taste, sometimes **augmented** by **volumes** of advertising; a rise in consumers income; a rise in the prices of **substitutes**; or a fall in the prices of complements. Of course, opposite changes in these factors cause a decrease in demand, i.e.. a leftward shift of the entire demand curve. An exception here applies to **inferior** goods, which are defined as those goods and services bought in smaller **amounts** as consumer incomes rise.

In an uncertain economy, especially an **inflationary** one, price expectation can **affect** demand. For **storable commodities**, when consumers believe that expected future prices will be higher, buyers tend to increase their **current** demand and thus tend to make their expectations **self-fulfilling**.

The demands for durable goods can **fluctuate** widely over time, as consumers' incomes vary. A durable good

has both a **stock demand** and a **flow demand**. The stock demand is for the amount that consumers want to hold over a period of years. The flow demand in a given year consists of replacement demand, i.e., for purchases to maintain the stock at some level, and of expansion demand, i.e., for purchases to increase the stock.

VOCABULARY

array – массив, множество	inflationary – инфляцион- ный
shifts – движение, сдвиг, перемена	to affect – влиять
entire – целый	storable commodities – то- вары длительного хране- ния
to augment – увеличивать	self-fulfilling – самовыпол- няющиеся
volume – объем, количество	to fluctuate – колебаться
to substitute – заменять	stock demand – биржевой спрос
substitutes – заменители	flow demand – текущий спрос
complements – дополнители	
inferior goods – низшие бла- га, товары низкого каче- ства	
amounts – количества	

General understanding:

1. What are increases or decreases in demand?
2. What does the shift to the right of the demand curve mean?
3. What are possible causes of the process?
4. What does the shift to the left of the demand curve mean?
5. Are there exceptions to the general rule?
6. How does price expectation affect demand?
7. What is said about demand fluctuations?

1. Find equivalents in Russian and write two sentences with each:

- a) array of prices

- b) increase in demand
- c) a fall in the prices of complements
- d) price expectation
- e) current demand
- f) replacement demand
- g) flow demand

2. Translate into Russian:

- 1) Changes in demand are shifts or movements of the entire demand curve.
- 2) Inferior goods are those goods and services bought in smaller amounts as consumer incomes rise.
- 3) In an uncertain economy, especially an inflationary one, price expectation can affect demand.
- 4) The stock demand is for the amount that consumers want to hold over a period of years.

3. Explain the difference between the following words. Write one sentence with each to illustrate the lexical meaning:

- a) able – willing
- b) occur – happen
- c) exceed – prevail
- d) affect – effect
- e) dependent – interdependent
- f) relate – relative – relations

4. The following table shows how words are formed around the verb to produce:

	e	r	
produc	t	iv(e)	ity
		ion	

Fill the gaps with the words:

- a) The publishing house's new _____ is a color daily newspaper.

- b) The plant _____ a new model of car every spring.
- c) The _____ of this worker has gone down over the last 5 years.
- d) 486 computer is not as _____ as Pentium III.
- e) The _____ of computers make huge investments in their industries.
- f) The Board of Governors of State of New York has come to a decision to decrease the _____ of cheap products.

Questions for discussion:

1. What products could be referred to as inferior?
2. Do you think that the term inferior goods could be applied to the products of some countries, i.e. China, Turkey, etc.
3. Do you think that it has become traditional in Russia to have a stock of such storable commodities as salt, sugar, soap and matches?

Text C

LAW OF SUPPLY

Supply is a fundamental concept in both macro- and microeconomic analysis. In macroeconomic theory, **aggregate supply** is mainly a function of expected sales to consumers, businesses, and governments. In microanalysis supply is mainly a function of prices and costs of production. A more **complex** view of the supply curve for a commodity is its relation between quantities **forthcoming** and the possible current prices of that commodity, its expected future prices, the prices of alternative goods and services, the costs of the producer, and time.

Opportunity Costs

Incorporated in the supply curve of goods and services are opportunity costs. Economists differ from **accountants** and from the Internal Revenue Service by including **both explicit and implicit** costs, or opportunity costs. Implicit costs are mainly business costs for wages, rents, and interest, whereas opportunity costs are the alternative costs of doing something else. A sole proprietor or the owners of businesses should **calculate** what they forgo in wages, rents, and interest by not working for someone else, or by renting the property they use to others, or by the possibility of converting plant and equipment to alternative investment projects.

The Shape and Position of Supply Curves

(see pp. 324–328)

In competitive markets the **shape**, or elasticity of supply, reflects time in the production process, such as the immediate or market period, the short run, and the long run. Elasticity of supply is the relative change in price that induces a relative change in quantity supplied. The supply curve is a line on a diagram where the vertical axis measures price and the horizontal axis is quantity. Usually the coefficient of elasticity is positive, meaning that a rise in price induces an increase in the quantity supplied. In the immediate or market period, a **given moment**, time is defined as too short to allow for a change in output. The supply curve is vertical, and the coefficient of elasticity is zero.

The short run is defined as a period **sufficiently long to permit the producer to increase variable** inputs, usually labor and materials, but not long enough to permit changes in plant and equipment. The supply curve in the short run is less inelastic or more elastic than in the immediate period. The long run permits sufficient time for the producer to increase plant and

equipment. The longer the time, the greater the elasticity of supply.

Changes in supply are shifts in the position of supply curves. An increase in supply is a **rightward movement** of a supply curve, with more of the commodity being offered for sale at each possible price. **Conversely**, a decrease in supply shifts the supply to the left. An increase in supply can occur because sellers expect lower prices in the future, or, as in the agricultural sector, because of **bountiful crops**. The reverse is true of a decrease in supply. Over periods of time long enough for production processes to change, improvements in technology and changes in input prices and productivities are the main causes of changes in supply.

VOCABULARY

aggregate supply – совокупное предложение	to convert – обращать, преобразовывать
complex – сложный, комплексный	shape – форма
forthcoming – предстоящий, ожидаемый	given moment – данный момент
opportunity costs – альтернативные издержки	sufficiently – достаточно, в достаточной мере
accountant – бухгалтер	to permit – позволять, разрешать
explicit – явный, откровенный	variable – переменный, изменчивый;
implicit – подразумеваемый	a variable – переменная
to calculate – подсчитывать, вычислять, рассчитывать	rightward movement – движение вправо
for(e)go – предшествовать (по времени или в пространстве)	conversely – наоборот
	bountiful crops – обильный урожай

General understanding:

1. What is the difference of the concept of supply in macro- and microeconomics?
2. What are opportunity costs?
3. What are implicit costs?
4. What, according to the text, a sole proprietor or the owners should do?
5. What does the elasticity of supply show?
6. What is the difference between the short-time and long-time supply?
7. Why do changes in the supply affect the position of the supply curve?

1. Which of the following is not true:

- A. Supply is a concept of macroeconomics.
- B. Economists differ from bookkeepers and tax-gatherers because they include also opportunity costs.
- C. The shape of the supply curve provides specialist with the information on elasticity of supply and the reflection of the shareholder.
- D. The supply curve is a line on a diagram where the vertical axis measures price and the horizontal axis is quantity.
- E. Bountiful crops is a cause of increase in supply.
- F. Improvements in technology and changes in input prices and productivities are the main causes of the changes in elastic demand.

2. Find equivalents in Russian:

- a) fundamental concept
- b) current prices
- c) business costs for wages,
- d) sole proprietor
- e) alternative investment projects.
- f) coefficient of elasticity

- g) a decrease in supply
- h) improvements in technology

3. Find antonyms for the following words. Write one sentence with each:

- a) expected –
- b) complex –
- c) possible –
- d) future –
- e) competitive –

4. Find the synonyms of the following:

- a) accountant –
- b) calculate –
- c) permit –
- d) expect –
- e) complex –
- f) opportunity –
- g) businessman –

5. Define the following terms in English:

- a) aggregate supply
- b) opportunity costs
- c) sole proprietor
- d) elasticity of supply
- e) coefficient of elasticity

Questions for discussion:

1. How do you understand: «Economists differ from accountants and from the Internal Revenue Service»?
2. In what sphere can a person with the economic education work?
3. What is a better-paid job for economist: applied economics or theoretical research? Give examples to support your opinion.

UNIT 6

Competitive and monopolistic markets

Text 1

COMPETITIVE MARKET

Competition refers to the nature of the conditions under which individuals may **trade property rights**. It assumes a definition of property rights that individuals may trade among themselves as well as a description of the trading process. A **competitive equilibrium** is the **outcome** of competition. The very existence of such an equilibrium depends on the nature of the property rights. These aspects of competition are especially important in connection with the development of new technology and new products and with the use of low-cost, large-scale methods of production and distribution.

The simplest situation in an analysis of competition is a market where individuals have **initial endowments of commodities** that they own and that they may trade among themselves. All trades occur at the same time and place. The essential characteristics remain valid when trades do not all occur at the same time and place. However, individuals would have incomplete knowledge **relevant** for their decisions. This complication changes the nature of the outcome of competition. Incomplete knowledge is **inevitable** partly because the future is unknown. Even so, it is often less costly to take current actions that will have future consequences without knowing that these will be than to **respond** only to

momentary events of the present. The advantages of planning and the resulting exposure to **hazards** that may occur alter the effects of competition.

These basic considerations help explain the nature of production and why the **quantities of goods offered** will change over time in response to the expectations and information firms have. They also explain why some common notions about competition are inadequate. Among the inadequate notions about competition is the belief that a necessary condition for competition is a lack of power by any firm to affect the prices of its products. Sometimes this is put in another form, that competition can **exist** in an industry only if the demand curves facing the individual firms in that industry are **infinitely elastic** so that changes in the quantities sold by a single firm cannot affect the product price. This condition is not necessary for competition. Nor is it necessary for competition that the number of firms be so large that each one is of negligibly small size relative to the total market for the commodities made by firms in the industry. Finally, it may be consistent with competition that some or all firms in an industry have obtained very high profit rates.

Pure Exchange

Assume there is a market where there are individuals, each of whom starts with given amounts of various commodities. Each one would like to make trades that will result in the **acquisition** of goods preferred to those goods to be exchanged. The theory assumes that for each trader the purpose of trade is to improve the trader's position. **Hence**, the trader would not willingly leave the market with a bundle of goods worth less than his or her initial holdings. The theory also assumes that each trader owns the commodities to be traded, that they can be traded

on terms that are mutually acceptable to the parties directly involved in an exchange, and that each trader may accept or reject the terms offered. Underlying the possibility of exchange is the existence of property rights in the goods. Competition requires **voluntary exchange** so that no trader is **compelled** to accept or reject offers without freely given consent. The very notion of exchange implies, therefore, a voluntary agreement among those who are directly involved in the transaction on the terms that each one willingly accepts.

In pure exchange, although the total quantities of the commodities exchanged among the parties is **constant**, each one must regard the obtained goods as worth more than the exchanged goods. If the parties can reach agreement on mutually beneficial terms of exchange, the result is an allocation of the commodities among the individuals that must make at least one of them better off than before and cannot make anyone worse off than before.

The theory assumes that no individual accepts terms that would leave that individual in a worse position than if no trades at all were made. The existence of a state of competition in pure exchange allows the participants to seek the best terms that they can obtain from the others. Competition does not require the presence of a very large number of traders nor does it require that each of the individual traders in the market must be of such a small relative size that none can affect the terms of trade. Traders can make **tentative** agreements with each other subject to the condition that these agreements become binding only if none can obtain better terms from others. The final outcome is a set of exchanges among the traders such that no individual or group of individuals can obtain better terms. The set of outcomes with these attributes need not be unique. All possible outcomes with these

attributes represent the state of competition. The set of all possible trades that can satisfy these conditions is known as the **core of a market**. Therefore, the set of trades induced by competition in a market is in the core of a market.

VOCABULARY

to trade property rights – обменивать права на собственность	quantities of goods offered – объемы (количество) предлагаемых товаров
competitive equilibrium – равновесие конкуренции	infinitely elastic – бесконечно эластичный
outcome – исход, результат	acquisition – приобретение
initial – начальный	to improve – улучшать
endowment – вклад	hence – следовательно
commodities – 1) предмет потребления 2) часто мн.; экон. товар, продукт для продажи	voluntary exchange – добровольный обмен
relevant – соответствующий, релевантный	to compel – вынуждать
inevitable – неизбежный	constant – постоянный
respond – ответ	to regard as – рассматривать, как (в качестве)
hazard – опасность	tentative – предварительный
exist – существовать	unique – уникальный, исключительный
	core of a market – основа экономики

General understanding:

1. What is competition?
2. What is a competitive equilibrium?
3. What is the simplest situation in the analysis of competition?
4. What, according to the text, are the basic considerations of the competition and what do they explain?
5. What are the «inadequate» notions about competition?
6. What does the competition require?
7. What are the features of pure exchange?

1. Which of the following is true:

- A. Competition refers to both the trade of property rights and the description of the trading process.
- B. A competitive equilibrium is the result of competition.
- C. Goods are infinitely elastic when the demand for them is elastic.
- D. Some or all firms may have high profits under competition.
- E. Competition is only possible when people are willing to exchange commodities.
- F. In pure exchange each participant exchanges bad goods for better ones.
- G. Core market is the set of all possible trades that can satisfy these conditions.

2. Define the following terms in English:

- h) competition
- i) property rights
- j) competitive equilibrium
- k) infinitely elastic demand curves
- l) pure exchange
- m) individual trader
- n) description

3. Translate into Russian:

- A. Competition refers to the nature of the conditions under which individuals may trade property rights.
- B. The very existence of such an equilibrium depends on the nature of the property rights.
- C. The essential characteristics remain valid when trades do not all occur at the same time and place.
- D. The theory assumes that for each trader the purpose of trade is to improve the trader's position.
- E. Underlying the possibility of exchange is the existence of property rights in the goods.
- F. Traders can make tentative agreements with each other.

5. Questions for discussion:

- 1) Under what circumstances competition is impossible?
- 2) Under what circumstances is pure exchange possible?
- 3) Do you think that competition stimulates the production of better goods? What role does advertising play in competition?

 **Text 2****MONOPOLY**

Monopoly is a market structure with only a single seller of a commodity or service dealing with a large number of buyers. When a single seller faces a single buyer, that situation is known as **bilateral monopoly**.

The most important features of market structure are those, which influence the nature of competition and price determination. The key element in this segment of market organization is the **degree** of seller concentration, or the number and size distributions of the sellers. There is monopoly when there is only one seller in an industry, and there is competition when there are many sellers in an industry. In cases of an intermediate number of sellers, that is, something between monopoly and competition, there can be two sellers (duopoly), a few sellers (oligopoly), or many sellers (atomistic competition).

Today the term monopoly is usually extended to include any group of firms, which act together to fix prices or levels of production. Complete control of all output is not necessary to exercise monopoly power. Any combination of firms, which controls at least 80 percent of an industry's production, can dictate the prices of the remaining 20 percent.

Aside from private monopolies, there are public monopolies. One example of a public monopoly in the

United States is the **nonprofit** postal service. There is also the «**natural**» **monopoly**, which exists when it is more **efficient**, technically, to have a single seller.

Although the precise definition of monopoly – a market structure with only a single seller of a commodity or service – cannot be applied directly to a labor union because a union is not a seller of services, labor unions have monopolistic characteristics. For example, when a union **concludes** a wage settlement, which sets wage rates at a level higher than that acceptable to unorganized workers, the union clearly contributes to monopolistic wage results. In effect, the price of labor (wages) is set without regard to the available supply of labor.

Monopolies versus Competition

Pure monopoly is a theoretical market structure where there is only one seller of a commodity or service, where **entry** into the industry is closed to potential competitors, and where the seller has complete control over the quantity of goods offered for sale and the price at which goods are sold. Pure monopoly is one of two **limiting cases** used in the analysis of market structure. The other is pure competition, a situation in which there are many sellers who can influence neither the total quantity of a commodity or service offered for sale nor its selling price. Hence, monopoly is the exact **antithesis** of competition. It is generally agreed that neither of these two limiting cases is to be found among existing market structures.

The monopolist **establishes** market position by ability to control absolutely the supply of a product or service offered for sale and the related ability to set price. Theoretically, profit maximization is the primary objective, and it is often possible to achieve this by restricting output and the quantity of goods offered for sale. Levels of output are held below the quantity that

would be produced in a competitive situation. Hence, monopoly is of interest to **economic policymakers** because it may impede the most efficient possible allocation of a nation's economic resources.

Monopolies held by individuals or organizations may begin by the **granting of** a patent or a copyright, by the possession of a **superior** skill or talent, or by the ownership of strategic capital. The huge capital investment necessary to organize a firm in some industries raises an almost **insurmountable** barrier to entry in these monopolistic fields and, thus, provides established corporations in these industries with potential monopoly power.

The use of such monopoly power may lead to the development of substitute products, to an attempt at entry into monopolistic fields by new firms (if profits are high enough), or to public prosecution or regulation. The antitrust policy of the federal government has prevented the **domination** of an industry by one firm or even a few firms. Moreover, with the growth of international trade and investment, it is no longer possible to determine whether an effective monopoly exists by studying market shares. The recent **competitive pressures** from Japanese sellers of autos and electronic products have resulted in more competition and less monopoly power on the part of U.S. manufacturers. Thus, the trend during the last 40 years or so in the United States has been away from monopolies in many industries and toward oligopolies.

VOCABULARY

bilateral monopoly – двусторонняя монополия	«natural» monopoly – естественная монополия
degree – степень	precise – точный
aside from – помимо	to conclude – заключать
nonprofit – некоммерческий	entry – вход, вступление
efficient – эффективный	to impede – затруднять

limiting cases – ограничи- вающие случаи	to grant – выдавать
antithesis – антитезис, про- тивоположность	superior – превосходящий
to establish – учреждать, устанавливать	insurmountable – непреодо- лимый
economic policymakers – стратеги экономики	domination – преобладание, доминирование
	competitive pressures – кон- курентное давление

General understanding:

1. What is a monopoly, duopoly, oligopoly, atomistic competition?
2. What is a bilateral monopoly?
3. Is full control necessary for the monopoly?
4. What is an example of a public monopoly?
5. What is a «natural» monopoly?
6. What are the two «limiting cases» used in the analysis of market structures?
7. How do the monopolies begin?

1. Which of the following is wrong:

- A. When two buyers meet two sellers it is called bilateral monopoly.
- B. The degree of sellers concentration is the number and size distributions of monopolists.
- C. Any group of firms which act together to fix prices or levels of production is a monopoly.
- D. Monopoly is a 100% different thing than competition.
- E. Economic policymakers are interested in monopolies on markets.

2. Find the equivalents in Russian:

- a) market structure
- b) segment of market
- c) public monopolies

- d) labor unions
- e) entry into the industry
- f) profit maximization
- g) substitute products
- h) antitrust policy

3. Translate into Russian:

- A. Monopoly is a market structure with only a single seller of a commodity or service dealing with a large number of buyers.
- B. The key element in this segment of market organization is the degree of seller concentration.
- C. Complete control of all output is not necessary to exercise monopoly power
- D. Pure monopoly is a theoretical market structure where there is only one seller of a commodity or service.
- E. Monopoly is the exact antithesis of competition.
- F. The use of monopoly power may lead to the development of substitute products.
- G. The trend during the last 40 years or so in the United States has been away from monopolies in many industries and toward oligopolies.

4. Give definitions in English to the following:

- a) monopoly
- b) bilateral monopoly
- c) duopoly
- d) atomistic competition
- e) «natural» monopoly
- f) public monopoly

3. Questions for discussion:

- 1) Are there any examples of bilateral monopolies on the:
 - a) world market b) domestic market c) local market
- 2) Think of an example of a public monopoly. Is postal

service in Russia also a public monopoly as it is in USA?

- 3) What are the criteria for defining a monopoly «natural»? Give an example.

Text 3

WHAT IS OLIGOPOLY

4. An oligopoly exists when a few sellers of a commodity or service **deal with** a large number of buyers. When a few sellers face a few buyers, that situation is known as **bilateral oligopoly**. In the case of oligopoly a small number of companies supply the major **portion** of an industry's output. In effect the industry is **composed** of a few large firms which account for a significant share of the total production. Thus, the actions of the individual firms have an **appreciable** effect on their competitors.

5. However, it does not follow as a consequence of the presence of relatively few firms in an industry that competition is absent. Although there are few firms in an industry, they may still act independently, and the outcome of their actions is **consistent** with competition. With few firms in an industry, each takes into account the likely **repercussions** of its actions. For example, each seller knows that if he or she lowers prices, the few competitors will immediately follow suit and lower their prices, leaving the seller with **roughly the same** share of the total market but lower profits. However, the seller may be **reluctant** to raise prices because competitors might not follow this lead.

6. One feature of markets with few sellers is that prices are often stable, except during periods of very rapid inflation. Also, prices of oligopolistic industries generally fluctuate less widely than in more competitive industries.

VOCABULARY

to exist – существовать	appreciable – значительный
to deal with – иметь дело с кем-либо (кем-либо)	consistent – последовательный
bilateral – двусторонний	repercussions – последствия
portion – часть, доля, порция	roughly the same – практически такой же
to be composed of – состоять из	reluctant – неохотный
	stable – стабильный

General understanding:

- 1) When does oligopoly exist?
- 2) What is bilateral oligopoly?
- 3) Is absent of competition a common phenomenon?
- 4) What is known to happen if one competitor lowers the price?
- 5) What is the feature of the market with few sellers?

1. Translate into Russian:

- a) When a few sellers face a few buyers, this situation is known as bilateral oligopoly.
- b) The actions of the individual firms have an appreciable effect on their competitors.
- c) Although there are few firms in an industry, they may still act independently
- d) One feature of markets with few sellers is that prices are often stable.
- e) Prices of oligopolistic industries generally fluctuate less widely.

2. Compose sentences using the following expressions:

- a) to deal with smth.
- b) to face smth.
- c) to be composed of smth.

- d) to be reluctant to smth.
- e) in case of smth.

3. Write an occupation of a person. Compose one sentence with each word:

- a) produce –
- b) consume –
- c) trade –
- d) purchase –
- e) sell –
- f) observe –

4. Find equivalents in Russian:

- a) act independently
- b) take into account
- f) not follow this lead
- d) fluctuate less widely

Questions for discussion:

- 1) How can policymakers influence the economics via oligopolies?
- 2) Is price stability a good trend in economy? What about the 60s-70s in the history of USSR?
- 3) Why in your opinion there are no such institutions as natural and public oligopolies?

UNIT 7

Philosophy of market

Text 1

DEFINING MARKETING

A prominent economist Philip Kotler defines marketing as «a social and **managerial** process by which individuals and groups obtain what they need and want through creating and exchanging products and values with others.» Marketing research is used to **assess** the market's response to the firm's marketing inputs which include promotional activities such as **price discounting**, **placement** of in-store displays, multimedia advertising, and **couponing**; expanding distribution; and product development and **enhancement**. The goal of marketing research is to assist the firm in determining the most effective, i.e. most profitable, mix of marketing inputs given knowledge of the marketplace.

As a formal scientific discipline marketing research began in the early twentieth century with most analyses being based on **survey data**. In the 1930s, the A. C. Nielsen Company began collecting in-store data using manual **audits**. Today, with the **advent** of scanning technology, the amount of timely data available from stores and household panels has grown exponentially. **Coincident** with this data explosion, the data delivery systems and the techniques used to analyze the data have become increasingly **sophisticated**. Marketing research is an integral part of organizations in both the consumer

durable and nondurable goods sectors, and in recent years the use of marketing principles has become increasing **prevalent** among nonprofit and government sectors.

Marketing research is interdisciplinary requiring the knowledge of economists, operations researchers, psychologists, and statisticians. For the economist, the economic theory of consumer behavior and the theory of the firm provide basic building blocks. Marketing research can be viewed as an operational or tactical activity and as a strategic activity. Although both activities require knowledge of the workings of the marketplace at both the macroeconomic and microeconomic levels, tactical analyses focus on monitoring a product's performance and testing the effectiveness of marketing programs relative to **competitors**. Strategic research involves selecting and optimizing marketing opportunities.

In order to understand the marketplace, the researcher must define the market in terms of both the geographic unit and the product class and collect data. Data on consumer purchases permit an analyst to determine what was sold and how particular brands performed relative to each other. In addition to sales and price information, causal data assist the analyst in understanding the reason that sales took place. Examples of causal data are newspaper advertising, which indicates the **extent** of retailer advertising support, display activity, and coupon ads. Another important source of information for understanding the source of sales is television advertising. Measuring the effects of television advertising is relatively difficult owing to the dynamic effects such advertising has on consumer behavior, however.

Once the data are collected, the analyst may choose to evaluate the information by simply looking at the raw series together over time or compute straightforward measures such as **market share** in order to arrive at a

qualitative assessment of market activity. Statistical models might be estimated in order to address issues such as **temporary price reduction, effectiveness**, the extent of cannibalization due to promotional activity, i.e. the extent to which sales of one specific product decline as a result of promoting another similar product produced by the same manufacturer, the competitive effects of promotions, differences between markets, competitive pricing points, and **long-term price elasticities**.

Forecasting is an activity likely to be undertaken by a business economist working in a marketing research department. Conventionally, business economists have been responsible for producing forecasts for the macroeconomic environment or for activity within industry groups. More recently, forecasting movements **in mature product categories**, in segments within categories, and in brands has increased in importance.

Forecasting the **success or failure** of new product introductions is also important. New product introductions require a considerable amount of a firm's resources, and failure to read the marketplace correctly and early in the development process can lead to costly errors. The development of a new brand begins with the identification of new market opportunities. Consumer survey research directed at identifying the market response to the brand concept and elements of the marketing mix, e.g., pricing, is typically conducted. On the basis of the survey a firm may decide to continue with the development plans for the brand, revise current plans in response to the survey results and **retest, or cancel** development plans completely. Comparisons may also be made between attitudes toward the new concepts and existing products.

VOCABULARY

managerial – управленческий	sophisticated – изощренный
to assess – оценивать	prevalent – преобладающий, превалирующий
promotional activities – действия по продвижению товара	competitors – конкуренты
price discounting – ценовые скидки	extent – зд. масштаб
placement – размещение	source – источник
couponing – использование купонов	market share – доля рынка
enhancement – увеличение, улучшение	temporary price reduction – временное снижение цен
survey data – данные осмотра, оценки	effectiveness – эффективность
audits – проверки	long-term price elasticities – долгосрочная эластичность цен
advent – появление	success – успех
coincidence – совпадение	failure – провал
	to cancel – отменять
	comparison – сравнение

General understanding:

1. How does Philip Kotler define marketing?
2. What is marketing research used for?
3. What is the goal of marketing research?
4. When did marketing research begin as a «formal scientific discipline»?
5. What knowledge does marketing research require?
6. What are basic steps of marketing research?
7. According to the text, how can marketing research be viewed?
8. What are the sources of information of marketing researcher?

1. What is not true about marketing research:

- A. Marketing as a formal scientific discipline has its roots in Greece and Rome.

- B. Philip Kotler, a prominent economist, defined marketing research as «a social and managerial process».
- C. Marketing research began in the early twentieth century.
- D. Marketing research requires the knowledge of economists, operation researchers, psychologists and statisticians.
- E. The research must understand the location and product class of a certain market in order to understand it.
- F. A person working in a marketing research department is a good forecaster.

2. Give definitions to the following:

- a) marketing
- b) promotional activities
- c) couponing
- d) tactical activity
- e) strategic activity
- f) statistical models
- g) business economist
- h) macroeconomic environment

3. Translate into Russian:

- A. Marketing is a social and managerial process by which individuals and groups obtain what they need and want through creating and exchanging products and values with others.
- B. Marketing research is used to assess the market's response to the firm's marketing inputs.
- C. Coincident with this data explosion, the data delivery systems and the techniques used to analyze the data have become increasingly sophisticated.
- D. Marketing research can be viewed as an operational or tactical activity and as a strategic activity.

E. Forecasting the success or failure of new product introductions is very important.

4. Find equivalents in Russian for:

- a) managerial process
- b) promotional
- c) activities
- d) placement of in-store displays
- e) multimedia advertising
- f) durable and nondurable goods sectors
- g) product class

Questions for discussion:

1. Is it reasonable to use independent marketing research in small business?
2. What skills are of the most use for specialist in marketing?
3. How could marketing research be made less expensive?

 **Text 2**

CHANNELS OF MARKETING

Individual consumers and corporate/organizational buyers are aware that thousands of goods and services are available through a very large number of **diverse** channel outlets. What they may not be well aware of is the fact that the **channel structure**, or the set of institutions, agencies, and **establishments** through which the product must move to get to them, can be amazingly complex.

Usually, combinations of institutions specializing in manufacturing, wholesaling, retailing, and many other areas **join** forces in marketing channel arrangements to

make possible the delivery of goods to industrial users or customers and to final consumers. The same is true for the marketing of services. For example, in the case of **health care delivery**, hospitals, ambulance services, **physicians, laboratories, insurance companies, and drugstores** combine efforts in an organized channel arrangement to **ensure** the delivery of a critical service. All these institutions depend on each other to cater effectively to consumer demands.

Therefore, marketing channels can be viewed as sets of **interdependent** organizations involved in the process of making a product or service available for use or consumption. From the outset, it should be recognized that not only do marketing channels satisfy demand by supplying goods and services at the right place, quantity, quality, and price, but they also stimulate demand through the promotional activities of the units (e.g., retailers, manufacturers' representatives, sales offices, and wholesalers) **comprising** them. Therefore, the channel should be viewed as an **orchestrated network** that creates value for the user or consumer through the generation of form, possession, time, and place utilities.

A major focus of marketing channel management is on delivery. It is only through distribution that public and private goods can be made available for consumption. Producers of such goods (including manufacturers of industrial and consumer goods, **legislators** framing laws, educational administrators conceiving new means for achieving quality education, and insurance companies developing unique health insurance coverage) are individually capable of generating only form or structural utility for their «products». They can organize their production capabilities in such a way that the products they have **developed** can, in fact, be seen, analyzed, debated, and, by a select few perhaps, **digested**. But the

actual large-scale delivery of the products to the consuming public demands different types of efforts which create time, place, and possession utilities. In other words, consumers cannot obtain a finished product unless the product is transported to where they can gain access to it, stored until they are ready for it, and digested, exchanged for money or other goods or services so that they can gain possession of it. In fact, the four types of utility (form, time, place, and possession) are inseparable: there can be no «complete» product without incorporating all four into any given object, idea, or service.

VOCABULARY

diverse – разнообразный	insurance companies – страховые компании
to be aware of – остерегаться чего-либо	to ensure – обеспечивать
channel structure – структура канала	can be viewed as – могут быть рассмотрены, как...
establishment – учреждение, учреждение	interdependent – взаимозависимый
to join – (при)соединять(ся)	orchestrated network – слаженная сеть
health care delivery – оказание медицинских услуг	legislators – законодатели
physician – терапевт	to develop – развивать
drugstores – аптеки	to digest – переваривать

General understanding:

1. What are individual consumers and corporate buyers aware of?
2. What combinations of institutions specializing in manufacturing, wholesaling, retailing usually do to maximize their profits?
3. What is an example of health care delivery used for?
4. What is the major focus of marketing channel management concentrated on?
5. What the verb «to digest» is used for in the text?

1. Which of the following is false:

1. Channel structure could be very complex.
2. Many partners coordinate their efforts to make possible the delivery of goods.
3. Channels of marketing are of the most importance and effectiveness in health care delivery.
4. Marketing channels stimulate demand through the promotional activities of the units.
5. Public and private goods could be available for consumption only through distribution.
6. According to the author, legislators also use the channels of marketing to distribute their products – laws.
7. The only way to use marketing channels is to digest them.

1. Define the following in English:

- a) channels of marketing
- b) channel structure
- c) channel outlets
- d) channel arrangement
- e) marketing channel management

2. Find equivalent in Russian for:

- a) consumer demand
- b) ambulance services
- c) interdependent organizations
- d) network
- e) public and private goods
- f) four types of utility

3. Use the following to write sentences on channels of marketing in the sphere which is of interest and importance to you:

- a) can be viewed as. ...

- b) to be well aware of ...
- c) to make smth. possible
- d) it should be recognized as ...
- e) a major focus of ... is on ...

4. Summarize the text in 8–10 sentences. Use the word patterns of the text. Dwell on the strong and weak points of the theory.

Questions for discussion:

1. Does channel structure for individual consumers differ from that of organization? In what way?
2. Do you agree that laws of marketing could be applied to the sphere of politics? Why and why not? Give an example.
3. Do you agree that theory of marketing could be used in the field of medicine? Does it come into contradiction with ethics or morals?

UNIT 8

Management: Six steps to the success

Text 1

FIRST STEPS IN PROBLEM SOLVING

Step 1: Define the Problem

Decisions do not occur in a vacuum. Many come about as part of the firm's planning process. Others are **prompted** by new opportunities or new problems. It is natural to ask: What brought about the need for the decision? What is the decision all about? In all kinds of textbooks examples, the decision problem is stated and is **reasonably** well defined. In practice, however, managerial decisions do not come so neatly packaged; rather, they are messy and poorly defined. Thus, problem definition is a **prerequisite** for problem management.

A key part of problem definition is identifying the **setting** or context.

Identifying the decision context and the decision maker represents a large step toward understanding the choice process. The **particular** setting has a direct bearing on both the decision maker's objectives and the available courses of action. The next two steps consider each of these aspects **in turn**.

Step 2: Determine the Objective

When it comes to economic decisions, it is a **truism** that «you can't always get what you want.» But to make any progress at all in your choice, you have to know

what you want. In most private sector decisions, the principal objective of the firm – and barometer of its performance – is **profit**: the difference between the firm's total revenues and its total costs. Thus, among alternative courses of action, the manager will select the one that will maximize the profit of the firm. **Attainment** of maximum profit worldwide is the natural objective of the multinational steel company, the drug company, and the management and **shareholders** of Disney, Canon, Time Inc., Texaco, and Pennzoil. Sometimes the manager focuses on the narrower goal of minimizing cost. For instance, the firm may seek to produce a given level of output at the least cost or to obtain a targeted increase in sales with minimal expenditure on advertising. In a host of settings, measures that reduce costs directly serve to increase profits.

The objective in a public sector decision, whether it be building an airport or regulating a utility, is broader than the private profit standard. In making its choice, the government decision maker should **weigh** all benefits and costs, not solely those that accrue as revenue or are incurred as expenses. According to this **benefit-cost criterion**, the airport may be worth building even if it fails to generate a profit for the government authority. The optimal **means** of regulating the production decisions of the utility depend on a careful comparison of benefits (mainly in the form of energy conservation) and costs (in material and environmental terms).

In practice, profit maximization and benefit-cost analysis are not always **unambiguous** guides to decision making. One difficulty is posed by the timing of benefits and costs. Should a firm (the drug company, for example) make an investment (sacrifice profits today) for greater profits five or ten years from now? Are the future benefits to air travelers worth the present capital expense of

building the airport? Both private and public investments involve trade-offs between present and future benefits and costs. Thus, in pursuing its profit goal, the firm must establish a comparable measure of value between present and future monetary returns.

Uncertainty poses a second difficulty. In many economic decisions, it is **customary** to treat the outcomes of various actions as certain. For instance, a fast-food chain may know that it can construct a new outlet in 21 days at a cost of \$90 per square foot. The cost and timing of construction are not entirely certain, but the **margin of error** is small enough to have no bearing on the company's decisions and thus can be safely ignored. In contrast, the cost and date of completion of a nuclear power plant are highly uncertain (due to unanticipated design changes, cost overruns, schedule delays, and the like). At best, the utilities that share ownership of the plant may be able to **estimate** a range of cost outcomes and completion dates and assess probabilities for these possible outcomes. (With the benefit of **hindsight**, one now wishes that the utilities had recognized the risks and safety problems of nuclear plants 10 and 20 years ago, when construction on many plants was initiated.)

The presence of risk and uncertainty has a direct bearing on the way the decision maker thinks about his or her objective. The drug company seeks to maximize its profit, but there is no simple way to apply the profit criterion to determine its best R&D choice. The company cannot use the simple rule «choose the method that will **yield** the greater profit,» because the ultimate profit from either method cannot be **pinned down** ahead of time. In each case, there are no profit guarantees; rather, the drug company faces a choice between two risky options. Similarly, public programs and regulatory policies will generate future benefits and costs that cannot be predicted with certainty.

What is the decision maker's goal? What end is he or she pursuing? How should the decision maker value outcomes with respect to this goal? What if he or she is pursuing multiple, conflicting objectives?

VOCABULARY

to prompt — подсказывать, приглашать	target — цель, мишень
to state — констатировать	to weigh — весить
reasonably — разумно, приемлемо	solely — только
neatly packaged — аккуратно упакованный	benefit-cost criterion — критерий издержек и прибылей
messy — неряшливый	means — средства
prerequisite — предпосылка, необходимое условие	unambiguous — недвусмысленный
particular setting — конкретная постановка	trade-off — компромисс
in turn — в свою очередь	customary — обычный, традиционный
truism — банальность	yield — прибыль
hindsight — оценка прошедших событий	to be pinned down — быть просчитанным, определенным
attainment — достижение	to predict — предсказывать
shareholder — акционер, пайщик	

General understanding:

1. What is, according to the author, the difference between the book examples and practice?
2. What role does the problem of definition play for the problem management?
3. What role does context play for problem definition?
4. What is «truism», according to the author?
5. What is the difference between the objective in a public and private sector decision?
6. What are the difficulties of the decision making?

1. Which of the following is not true:

- A. Decisions come as a part of the planning process.
- B. In practice problems are very hard to recognize.
- C. Identifying context is a key part of problem definition.
- D. Profit is the aim of any firm's transaction.
- E. Maximizing profits and minimizing yields is the primary problem of any manager.
- F. Ultimate profit from either method cannot be pinned down ahead of time.

2. Define the following in English:

- a) profit
- b) shareholders
- c) particular setting
- d) attainment of maximum profit
- e) means of regulating the production
- f) objective

3. Give an example of truism. What truisms make it hard to come up with a sound solution in economics?

Questions for discussion:

- 1. Give an example of a «messy and poorly defined» problem which you had to solve. What was your first step?
- 2. Do you agree that problems in textbooks are «neatly packaged»? Is it reasonable to use the examples if one cannot use the solutions in practice?
- 3. Do you agree that the objective of any firm is profit? What about the image and reputation? What is more important for the development of a firm? Give an example of a situation when a) profit is the objective b) reputation and image are the objectives.



Text 2

BE ANALYTICAL

Step 3: Explore the Alternatives

After addressing the question «What do we want?», it is natural to ask, «What are our **options**?» The ideal decision maker, if such a person exists, would **lay out** all the available courses of action and then choose the one that would best achieve his or her objective. Given human limitations, decision makers cannot hope to identify and evaluate all possible options. The cost of doing so simply would be too great. Still, one would hope that attractive options would not be **overlooked** or, if discovered, not mistakenly **dismissed**. No analysis can begin with all the available options in hand. However, a **sound decision framework** should be able to uncover options in the course of the analysis.

Most managerial decisions involve more than a **once-and-for-all** choice from among a set of options. Typically, the manager faces a sequence of decisions from among alternatives.

At the outset, management at Time Inc. had to decide whether or not to develop Picture Week for market testing. The whole point of the development and testing program was to provide information on which management could base its main decision: whether or not to undertake a **full-fledged**, nationwide launch of the magazine. Notice that the company could have launched the magazine without extensive market testing. However, it rejected this riskier strategy in favor of a contingent plan of action: to undertake the testing program and then launch the magazine if and only if the test results and economic forecasts were both favorable.

Sequential decision making also lies at the heart of the negotiation dilemma which many firms face. Each side must formulate its current **negotiation stance** (how aggressive or **conciliatory** an offer to make) in light of current court results and the offers (both its own and its opponent's) made to date. Thus, a commonly **acknowledged** fact about negotiation is that the main **purpose** of an opening offer is not to have the offer accepted (if it were, the offer probably was far too **generous**); rather, the offer should direct the course of the offers to follow.

Step 4: Predict the Consequences

Depending on the situation, the task of predicting the consequences may be **straightforward** or **formidable**. Sometimes elementary arithmetic **suffices**. For instance, the simplest profit calculation requires only subtracting costs from revenues. Or suppose the choice between two safety programs is made according to which saves the greater number of lives per dollar expended. Here the use of arithmetic division is the key to identifying the preferred alternative.

MODELS

In more **complicated** situations, however, the decision maker often must rely on a model to describe how options translate into outcomes. A model is a simplified description of a process, relationship, or other phenomenon. By deliberate intent, a model focuses on a few key features of a problem to examine carefully how they work while ignoring other complicating and less important factors. Of course, the main purposes of models are to explain and to predict – to **account for** past outcomes and to forecast future ones.

The kinds of predictive models are as varied as the decision problems to which they are applied. Many models rest on economic relationships.

Suppose the multinational steel company predicts that a 10 percent price cut will increase unit sales by 15 percent in the foreign market. The basis for this prediction is the most fundamental relationship in economics: the demand curve.

Other models rest on engineering, statistical, legal, and scientific relationships.

So far as prediction is concerned, a key distinction can be drawn between deterministic and probabilistic models. A deterministic model is one in which the outcome is certain (or close enough to a sure thing that it can be taken as certain).

For instance, a soft-drink manufacturer may wish to predict the numbers of individuals in the 10-to-25 age **group** over the next ten years. There are ample demographic statistics with which to make this prediction. **Obviously**, the numbers in this age group five years from now will consist of those who today are between ages 5 and 20, minus a predictable small number of deaths. Thus, a simple deterministic model suffices for the prediction. However, the forecast becomes much less certain when it comes to estimating the total consumption of soft drinks by this age group or the market share of a given product. Obviously, the market share of a particular drink— say, one with ten percent or more real juice — will depend on many unpredictable factors, including the advertising promotion, and price decisions of the firm and its competitors, as well as consumer tastes. As the term suggests, a **probabilistic model** accounts for a range of possible future outcomes, each with a probability attached. For instance, the five-year market-share forecast for the natural-juice soft drink might take the following form: a 30 percent chance of less than a 3 percent share, a 25 percent chance of a 3 to 6 percent share, a 30 percent chance of a 6 to 8 percent share, and a 15 percent chance of an 8 to 15 percent share.

VOCABULARY

options – варианты, опции	acknowledged – признанный, подтвержденный
to lay out – разложить, скомпоновать	purpose – цель
to identify – определять, идентифицировать	generous – щедрый
to evaluate – оценивать	straightforward – простой, прямолинейный
to overlook – упускать из виду	formidable – трудный, грозный
to dismiss – прекращать, отбрасывать	to suffice – хватать (чего-либо)
sound decision framework – система взвешенного управления	complicated – сложный
once-and-for-all – на все случаи жизни, однажды и на всегда	to examine – исследовать
full-fledged – <i>зд.</i> полноценный	account for – брать в расчет, считаться с чем-либо
negotiation stance – позиция на переговорах	legal – юридические
conciliatory – примирительный	outcome – итог, результат
	ample – обильный, достаточный
	obviously – очевидно
	probabilistic model – вероятностная модель

General understanding:

1. What is according to the author natural logic of a manager?
2. What would an ideal decision maker do?
3. What is a sequential decision making?
4. What is, according to the text, a « commonly acknowledged fact about negotiation»?
5. When does elementary arithmetics suffice?
6. When must decision maker rely on models?
7. What is a model in general?
8. What types of predictive models are mentioned in the text?

1. Define the following in English:

- a) human limitations
- b) sound decision
- c) once-and-for all choice
- d) negotiation stance
- e) engineering relationships
- f) legal relationships
- g) scientific relationships
- h) probabilistic model

2. Answer the following questions judging from your own experience:

- A. What are the alternative courses of action?
- B. What are the variables under the decision maker's control?
- C. What constraints limit the choice of options?
- D. What are the consequences of each alternative action?
- E. Should conditions change, how would this affect outcomes?
- F. If outcomes are uncertain, what is the likelihood of each?
- G. Can better information be acquired to predict outcomes?

 **Text 3****MAKE A DECISION****Step 5: Make a Choice**

In the vast majority of decisions we may **encounter**, the objectives and outcomes are directly **quantifiable**. Thus, the private firm, such as the steel-maker, can compute the profit results of alternative price and output plans. **Analogously**, a government decision maker may know the computed net benefits (benefits minus costs) of different

program options. Given enough time, the decision maker could determine a preferred course of action by **enumeration**, that is, testing a number of alternatives and selecting the one that best meets the objective. This is fine for decisions involving a small number of choices, but it is impractical for more complex problems.

For instance, what if the steel firm drew up a list of two dozen different pricing and production plans, computed the profits of each, and **settled on** the best of the lot? How could management be sure this choice is **truly** «optimal,» that is, the best of all possible plans? What if a more profitable plan, say, the twenty-fifth candidate, was **overlooked**? Expanding the **enumerated** list could reduce this risk, but at considerable cost.

Fortunately, the decision maker need not rely on the **painstaking** method of enumeration to solve such problems. A variety of methods can identify and cut directly to the best or **optimal decision**. These methods rely to varying extents on marginal analysis, linear programming, decision trees, and benefit-cost analysis. These approaches are important not only for computing optimal decisions but for checking why they are optimal.

Step 6: Perform Sensitivity Analysis

In **tackling** and solving a decision problem, it is important to understand and be able to explain to others the «why» of your decision. The solution, after all, **did not come out of thin air**. It depended on your stated objectives, the way you structured the problem (including the set of options you considered), and your method of predicting outcomes. Thus, **sensitivity analysis considers how an optimal decision would change if key economic facts or conditions were altered**.

Here is a simple example of the use of sensitivity analysis. Senior management of a consumer products firm is conducting a third-year review of one of its new products.

Two of the firm's business economists have prepared an **extensive report** that projects significant profits from the product over the next two years. These profit **estimates** suggest a clear course of action: continue marketing the product. As a member of senior management, would you accept this recommendation uncritically? Probably not. You naturally would want to determine what is behind the profit projection. After all, you may be well aware that the product has not yet **earned** a profit in its first two years. (Although it sold reasonably well, it also had high advertising and promotion costs and a low introductory price.) What is behind the new profit projection? Larger sales and/or a higher price? A significant cost reduction? The process of tracking down the basic determinants of profit is one aspect of sensitivity analysis.

As one would expect, the product's future revenues and costs may be highly uncertain. As a consequence, management should **recognize** that the revenue and cost projections come with a significant margin of error **attached**.

It is natural to investigate the profit effects if outcomes differ from the report's forecasts. What if sales are 12 percent lower than expected? What if projected cost reductions are not realized? What if the price of a competing product is slashed? By answering these «what-if» questions, management can determine the degree to which its profit projections, and therefore its marketing decision, are sensitive to the uncertain outcomes of key economic variables.

Sensitivity analysis is useful in:

- (1) providing **insight** into the key features of the problem that affect the decision;
- (2) tracing the effects of changes in variables about which the manager may be uncertain; and
- (3) generating solutions in cases of recurring decisions under slightly modified conditions.

After all analysis is done, what is the preferred course of action? For obvious reasons, this step (along with step 4) occupies the lion's share of the analysis and discussion. Once the decision maker has put the problem in context, formalized the objectives, and identified available alternatives, how does he or she go about finding a preferred course of action?

What features of the problem determine the optimal choice of action? How does the optimal decision change if conditions in the problem are altered? Is the choice sensitive to key economic variables about which the decision maker is uncertain?

VOCABULARY

to encounter – встречаться, сталкиваться	to tackle – энергично, с усердием браться, приниматься (за что-л.)
quantifiable – измеримый	sensitivity analysis – анализ чувствительности
analogously – аналогично	to alter – изменять(ся)
enumeration – перечисление	extensive report – развернутый доклад
to settle on smth. – остановиться на чем-либо	estimates – оценки
truly – искренне	to earn – зарабатывать
fortunately – к счастью	recognize – распознавать, различать
painstaking – доскональный, кропотливый, скрупулезный	attached – прикрепленный, присоединенный
optimal decision – оптимальное решение	insight – понимание
did not come out of thin air – не берутся «с потолка»	lion's share – львиная доля

General understanding:

1. Under what circumstances can a private firm compute the profit results?
2. What is, according to the author, impractical for solving complex problems?
3. What are methods of identifying the problems?

- 4) What is important in understanding and explaining the problem?
- 5) What is sensitivity analysis?
- 6) How, according to the author, do the projections of revenue and costs come?
- 7) When is sensitivity analysis useful?

1. Define the following:

- a) net benefits
- b) sensitivity analysis
- c) basic determinants of profit

2. Translate into Russian:

- A. The objectives and outcomes are directly quantifiable
- B. A government decision maker may know the computed net benefits (benefits minus costs) of different program options.
- C. The decision maker need not rely on the painstaking method of enumeration to solve such problems.
- D. Sensitivity analysis considers how an optimal decision would change if key economic facts or conditions were altered.
- E. It is natural to investigate the profit effects if outcomes differ from the report's forecasts.

Questions for discussion:

1. Do you agree that the method of enumeration is ineffective in solving massive problems?
2. In your opinion, should a decision maker rely on the data provided. What sources of information could be referred to as more reliable and less reliable?
3. Could press publications be used as sources of information for making a decision? Give an example of a) international b) federal c) local press which is a) completely reliable b) completely unreliable.

UNIT 9

International economy and economic institutions

Text 1

IMF MEANS INTERNATIONAL MONETARY FUND

The purpose of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) is to promote international monetary cooperation through a **permanent** institution that provides the machinery for consultation and **collaboration** on international monetary problems. Specifically, the function of the IMF is to **facilitate** the expansion and balanced growth of international trade, to promote orderly and stable foreign currency exchange markets, and to contribute to balance of payments adjustment. To further these objectives, the **IMF monitors members'** macroeconomic policies, makes financial resources available to them in times of balance of payments difficulties, and provides them with technical assistance in a number of areas.

Much of the IMF's work is centered on **annual** consultations with each member country to ensure that its national policies in the area of economic growth, price stability, financial conditions, and exchange rates take into account their consequences for the world economy and avoid unfair exchange policies. To ensure compliance with these basic **tenets**, the Fund is empowered to exercise **firm surveillance** over the exchange rate policies of member countries.

History

The IMF's charter, **embodied** in the Articles of Agreement, was agreed upon at the International Monetary and Financial Conference held at Bretton Woods, New Hampshire, in July 1944. In December 1945 the required number of countries had ratified the agreements, and in March 1946 the first meeting of the Board of Governors was held. The IMF **commenced** operations on March 1, 1947, at its headquarters in Washington, D.C. Other **milestones** in the history of the IMF include:

- May 1948. first drawing of foreign exchange by a member country;
- January 1962, adoption of the general agreements to borrow (GAB), which constituted an important supplement to the IMF's financial resources;
- February 1963, establishment of the compensatory financing facility, designed to assist countries that experience a temporary **shortfall** in export earnings;
- June 1969, **inception** of the buffer stock financing facility, which can be used to finance commodity **stockpiles**;
- July 1969, adoption of the first amendment to the Articles of Agreement, providing for the allocation of special drawing rights (SDRs) to member countries, with the first allocation of SDRs made on January 1, 1970;
- September 1974, implementation of the extended fund facility, which provides medium-term assistance to member countries **seeking** to overcome structural balance of payments problems
- April 1975, establishment of an oil facility to help oil-importing countries finance the increase in petroleum prices;
- February 1976, establishment of the Trust Fund, funded by revenues from gold sales, to aid developing countries with low-interest assistance;

– August 1977, establishment of the **supplementary** financing facility to make additional resources available to member countries requiring balance of payments financing in larger amounts and for longer periods;

– April 1978, adoption of the second amendment to the articles providing for liberalized exchange arrangements, the legalization of floating exchange rates, steps designed to eliminate the role of gold in the international monetary system, and **enunciation** of the goal to make the SDR the central international monetary reserve asset;

– March 1986, establishment of a structural adjustment facility to provide balance of payments assistance to qualifying members in support of macroeconomic and structural adjustment programs;

– December 1987, the establishment of the Enhanced Structural Adjustment Trust to provide loans on concessional terms to eligible members to support programs to strengthen substantially and in a sustainable manner their balance of payment position;

– August 1988. expansion of the compensatory financing facility to include a **contingency** financing element under which additional financing may be provided to support adjustment programs that might be thrown off track by adverse **exogenous** developments.

VOCABULARY

permanent – постоянный

machinery – оборудование,
механизм

collaboration – сотрудниче-
ство

to facilitate – способствовать

to monitor – наблюдать,
контролировать

annual – ежегодный

to avoid – избегать, остере-
гаться

tenet – основополагающий
принцип

embodied – воплощенный,
содержащийся в чем-
либо

surveillance – патрулирование	stockpiles – запасы
to ratify – ратифицировать	amendment – поправка
to commence – приступать, начинаться	to seek – искать
milestones – вехи	supplementary – дополни- тельный
shortfall – недостаток	enunciation – изложение
inception – открытие, осно- вание	contingency – возможность
	exogenous – экзогенный

General understanding:

1. What is the function of International Monetary Fund?
2. What do IMF monitor's members do?
3. What are the daily affairs if IMF?
4. When was IMF established?
5. What are the most important milestones in the history of IMF?

1. Translate into Russian:

- A. The IMF's charter was agreed upon at the International Monetary and Financial Conference.
- B. Inception of the buffer stock financing facility, which can be used to finance commodity stockpiles
- C. Adoption of the first amendment to the Articles of Agreement, providing for the allocation of special drawing rights (SDRs) to member countries
- D. Establishment of the supplementary financing facility to make additional resources available to member countries
- E. Expansion of the compensatory financing facility to include a contingency financing element under which additional financing may be provided to support adjustment programs

2. Make some research to make the modern (80s-90s) history of IMF complete (Use Internet as a source of information):

DATE	ACTIVITY	IMPACT ON THE WORLD ECONOMY

3. Complete the table revealing the impact of IMF on Russia.

DATE	DECISION	IMPACT ON THE ECONOMY OF RUSSIA

Questions for discussion:

1. What events in World history took place when IMF had been founded?
2. What events in the latest history of IMF had the greatest impact on Russia's modern history?

Text 2

IMF'S ANATOMY

As of December 1991 the IMF was composed of 156 member countries; in addition, a number of republics of the former U.S.S.R. were in the process of joining the organization. Each member is represented by a governor on the IMF's Board of Governors, most of whom are ministers of finance, presidents of the country's central bank, or persons of similar rank. Virtually all day-to-day policy decisions are delegated to the Executive Board,

which is made up of 22 representatives of the member countries. The Executive Board is **presided** over by the managing director, elected for a 5-year term, who is also chief of staff of the IMF.

Each member has a **quota** which is based on a **complex** formula that takes account of the country's size and its general importance in world trade and finance. The quota determines the amount of financial resources the member has to make available to the IMF (subscription) and its access to the Fund's facilities, its **entitlement** to SDR allocations, as well as its voting power. Part of each member's subscription is paid in reserve assets, and the **remainder** in the member's own currency.

Operations

IMF member countries may utilize the Fund's resources if they find themselves in balance of payments difficulties. Drawings normally will be in the context of policy measures – an adjustment program – intended to correct the balance of payments position and are **linked** to progress under that program. Technically, use of the Fund's resources takes the form of a member using its own currency to purchase other currencies (or SDRs) held by the IMF. Drawings on the Fund's resources that do not exceed 25 percent of the member's quota normally require that the member make a **reasonable effort** to overcome its balance of payments problem. Purchases beyond that amount – i.e. drawings in the so-called upper credit **tranches** – usually are made in the context of an adjustment program. Repayments to the IMF are normally to be made within 3 to 5 years, but under the extended facility the country may have up to 10 years to repay the financing provided by the Fund.

VOCABULARY

rank – ранг	to correct – корректировать, исправлять
to preside – председательствовать	to link – соединять
quota – квота	reasonable effort – разумное усилие
to entitle – давать право кому-нибудь	tranche – транш, порция
remainder – остаток	

General understanding:

1. What countries was IMF composed of on December 1991?
2. Who are the governors of IMF's Board of Governors?
3. Who presides over Executive Board?
4. How is the managing director elected?
5. What importance has «quota» for the members of IMF?
6. What operations could be carried out through IMF?
7. How have the total subscriptions changed over time?

1. Explain the role (meaning) and functions of the following. Write 2 sentences with each one:

- a) member countries
- b) Board of Governors
- c) Executive board
- d) managing director
- e) quota

2. Which of the following is true:

- A. IMF is composed of 22 Governors.
- B. Executive board makes all decisions on the Republics of former USSR.
- C. The quota determines the amount of financial resources the member has to make available to the IMF.
- D. IMF member countries may utilize the Fund's resources.

- e) Borrowing countries have to pay the loans back within 3–5 years.

Questions for discussion:

1. Do you find the structure of IMF reasonable?
2. Do you know how the credits obtained from the IMF are utilized? Is IMF in control of funds utilization?



Text 3

WORLD BANK

The World Bank is the world's foremost **intergovernmental** organization concerned with the external financing of the economic growth of developing countries. The official title of the institution is the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD).

Before recommending a Bank loan, the staff of the Bank must be **reasonably** satisfied that the productivity of the borrowing country will be increased and that the **prospects for repayment** are good. A country must be judged creditworthy. Engineering investigations are frequently **carried out** to determine the probable relation of a proposed project to benefits and costs. Increasingly, however, the Bank has shifted somewhat away from project lending (e.g., for a dam or a highway or a port); it has become concerned with education and other human services, the environment, and, through structural adjustment loans, the modification of governmental policies that are thought to have impeded long-run growth. The Bank has also paid increasing attention to the evaluation of previous lending. Recently, moreover, it has acceded to the requests of the American secretary of the treasury to help to ease the huge, outstanding, largely commercial-bank debt.

Voting power in the Bank (as well as in the Fund) is determined by the size of each member nation's **subscription**. Subscriptions, in turn, are based on a formula that **takes into account** such variables as the value of each nation's foreign trade and its total output. Ultimate power, through weighted voting, rests with the Board of Governors of the Bank (and the Fund). The governors meet annually in September. The **day-to-day affairs** of the Bank are determined, however, by executive directors who live permanently in Washington, D.C. They **hire** a president, who, in turn, hires a staff. By tradition, rather than law, the president of the Bank is an American, usually a banker, proposed by the President of the United States.

Because of the size of their subscriptions, five nations – the United States, Japan, Germany, the United Kingdom, and France – are entitled to appoint executive directors; the remaining seventeen directors are elected by some combination of the votes of the other nations. There are 156 member nations, but, with the independence of the Baltic states and the devolution of the Soviet Union into separate republics, the membership could increase to over 170, thereby including all the independent nations in the world.

The Soviet Union was one of the forty-four governments whose representatives signed the original Bretton Woods agreements, but along with the other members of the Warsaw Pact, it chose not to **join** the Bank or the Fund when these organizations were formally incorporated in 1946. (Poland and Czechoslovakia joined the Bank and the Fund initially but withdrew when the cold war began in earnest and a loan to Poland was blocked by the United States.)

World Bank Group

In 1954, an International Finance Corporation was established to supplement the World Bank by participating

in **equity** financing in member countries, and in 1960, a third organization, the International Development Association (IDA), was created. These three organizations **constitute** the World Bank Group. The IDA has the same officers and staff as the World Bank, but its separate charter enables it to offer loans to low-income member countries **repayable** at 0.75 percent interest over 50 years (including 10 years' **grace**).

Soft or **concessionary** assistance is made possible by contributions to (**replenishments of**) the IDA by the governments of high-income (industrial) countries. The management of the World Bank Group is thus enabled to offer rates of interest and loan maturities which take into account the nature of the projects financed and the presumed ability of borrowing governments to service their debt. The initial capitalization of IDA for the 5 years 1960 to 1964 was less than \$1 billion in hard currencies. By 1992, the ninth **replenishment** for 3 years will be over \$11 billion.

Today, the World Bank Group is **a far cry** from what it was when the World Bank began in 1946 under President Eugene Meyer— with three floors of rented office space at 1818 H Street NW and a few **dozen** employees. Even in the final days of the presidency of George Woods, in 1968, the group had fewer than 1500 employees and four buildings. As of August 31, 1991, however, on the **eve of the accession** to the presidency of Lewis Preston, former chairman of the board of J. P. Morgan & Co., the World Bank Group had 3 senior vice presidents, 14 vice presidents, and 6500 employees **scattered** through 18 separate buildings in Washington, D.C.; 2 large offices in Paris and Tokyo; and 50 regional offices.

The World Bank Group has had a significant positive effect on the flow of capital to the poorer countries of

the world, both directly and indirectly, and knowledge of Third World problems has increased **enormously**. Still, the record of growth is **spotty**. In much of East Asia, per capita income is rising rapidly, but in Africa south of the Sahara, in South Asia, and in much of Latin America, the growth of per capita income has been discouragingly slow.

VOCABULARY

foremost intergovernmental – наиболее межправительственный	to join – присоединять (ся)
prospects for repayment – перспективы выплаты долга	to supplement – добавка, приложение
to be carried out – производиться, осуществляться	equity – справедливость
dam – дамба, плотина	to constitute – являться, составлять
accede – удовлетворять, соглашаться	to grace – удостоивать
subscription – подписка	concessionary – льготный
to take into account – принимать в расчет	replenishments – пополнения
day-to-day affairs – повседневные дела	a far cry – <i>разг.</i> абсолютно другая вещь
to hire – нанимать	dozen – дюжина
to appoint – назначать	eve of the accession – накануне прихода к власти
	to be scattered – быть разбросанным
	enormously – чрезвычайно
	spotty – <i>зд.</i> подпорчен

General understanding:

1. What is World Bank?
2. What is the procedure of getting a loan from the World Bank?
3. What are the latest trends in the policy of the World bank?
4. How is the voting power determined?
5. What are the largest subscribers of the world Bank?

1. Define the following:

- a) intergovernmental organization
- b) borrowing country
- c) prospects for repayment
- d) member's subscription
- e) day-to-day affairs
- f) concessionary assistance
- g) Third World

2. Translate into Russian:

- A. The official title of the institution is the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD).
- B. A country must be judged creditworthy.
- C. They hire a president, who, in turn, hires a staff.
- D. The Soviet Union was one of the forty-four governments whose representatives signed the original Bretton Woods agreements.
- E. The IDA has the same officers and staff as the World Bank.
- F. Today, the World Bank Group is a far cry from what it was when the World Bank began in 1946 under President Eugene Meyer—with three floors of rented office space at 1818 H Street NW and a few dozen employees.

3. Complete the table to show the present (last 10 years) record of the World Bank:

DATE	ACTION	IMPORTANCE

4. Explain the abbreviations. Write two sentences with each:

- a) IBRD
- b) IDA

Questions for discussion:

1. What influence had World Bank on Russian economy?
2. Has the membership of the World Bank increased since the break up of the Soviet Union?
3. Do you think that World Bank is an economic instrument by which it's major subscribers influence the world economy in a whole and economies of poor countries in particular? Why and why not? Give examples.

PART IV

Applied Economics

LESSON 1



Text 1

WHAT IS ECONOMICS?

One of the things that people discover every day is that *you can't have everything*. You are reminded of it every time you shop. Although you may see twenty or thirty items that you would really like to buy, you know that you will have to limit your selection to one or two. Everyone goes through life having to make choices.

Every business, even sports teams, must pick and choose from among the things they would like to have because they cannot have everything. Governments, too, cannot have everything. Every year the most important political debates concern questions about spending taxpayers' money.

Neither individuals nor societies can have all the things they would like to have. There simply is not enough of everything. Economists note that there is no limit to the amount or kinds of things that people want. There is, however, a limit to the *resources*, things used to produce goods and services, available to satisfy those wants. Once that limit is reached, nothing else can be produced. In other words, when nation's resources (all its workers, factories, farms, etc.) are fully employed, the only way it

will be able to increase the production of one thing will be by reducing the production of something else.

To summarize: human wants are *unlimited*, but the resources necessary to satisfy those wants are *limited*. Thus, every society is faced with the identical problem, the problem of *scarcity*.



Text 2

ECONOMICS: THE STUDY OF SCARCITY AND CHOICE

Since there is not enough of everything, everyone—individuals, business firms, and government—needs to make choices from among the things they want. In the process they will try to economize, to get the most from what they have. With this in mind, we can define economics as the social science that describes and analyzes how society chooses from among scarce resources to satisfy its wants.

The need to choose is imposed on us all by our income, wealth and ability to borrow. Individuals and families are limited by the size of their personal income, savings and ability to borrow. Similarly, business firms are limited by their profits, savings and borrowing power, and governments by their ability to tax and borrow.

Income, savings, profits and taxes enable people, institutions and government to purchase goods, products you can see or touch, and services, work performed for pay that benefits others. The problem that each must face, however, is that once the decision has been made to choose one set of alternatives, one loses the opportunity to choose the other. Economists describe these kinds of trade-offs as opportunity costs. The opportunity cost of something is its cost measured in terms of what you have to give up to get it.

Business is also faced with the problem of choices and opportunity costs.

 Text 3

WHAT DO ECONOMISTS DO?

Economics deals with the problems of scarcity and choice that have faced societies and nations throughout history, but the development of modern economics began in the 17th century. Since that time economists have developed methods for studying and explaining how individuals, businesses and nations use their available economic resources. Large corporations use economists to study the ways they do business and to suggest methods for making more efficient use of their employees, equipment, factories, and other resources.


VOCABULARY

to impose – наложить, накладывать

trade-off – з/д. замена

opportunity costs – цена альтернативы, альтернативные издержки

to give up – отказываться

 **Задание 1.1.** *Answer the questions:*

1. What is the problem of scarcity?
2. How can we define economics?
3. What is the opportunity cost of something?
4. What problems are dealt with by economists?
5. What do economists do?

 Text 4

MICROECONOMICS VS. MACROECONOMICS

Economists have two ways of looking at economics and the economy. One is the *macro* approach, and the

other is the *micro*. *Macroeconomics* is the study of the economy as a whole; *microeconomics* is the study of individual consumers and the business firm.

Macroeconomics examines questions such as how fast the economy is running; how much overall output is being generated; how much total income. It also seeks solutions to macro-economic problems such as how employment can be increased, and what can be done to increase the output of goods and services. Microeconomics examines cause-and-effect relationships that influence choices of individuals, business firms and society.

It is concerned with things such as scarcity, choice and opportunity costs, and with production and consumption. Principal emphasis is given by microeconomists to the study of prices and their relationship to units in the economy.

Factors Of Production

The resources that go into the creation of goods and services are called the factors of production. The factors of production include natural resources, human resources, capital and entrepreneurship. Each factor of production has a place in economic system, and each has a particular function. People who own or use a factor of production are expecting a «return or reward.» This generates income which, as it is spent, becomes a kind of fuel that drives the economy.

Natural Resources or «Land»

Natural resources are the things provided by nature that go into the creation of goods and services. They include such things as minerals, wildlife and timber resources. Economists also use the term «*land*» when they speak of natural resources as a factor of production. The price paid for the use of land is called rent. Rent becomes income to the owner of the land.

Human Resources or «Labor»

Economists call the physical and mental effort that people put into the creation of goods and services *labor*. The price paid for the use of labor is called *wages*. Wages represent income to workers, who own their labor.

Capital

To the economist, physical capital (or «capital» as it is commonly called) is something created by people to produce other goods and services. A factory, tools and machines are capital resources because they can be used to produce other goods and services. The term *capital* is often used by business people to refer to money they can use to buy factories, machinery and other similar productive resources. Payment for the use of someone else's money, or capital, is called *interest*.

Entrepreneurship

Closely associated with labor is the concept of entrepreneurship, the managerial or organizational skills needed by most firms to produce goods and services. The entrepreneur brings together the other three factors of production. When they are successful, entrepreneurs earn profits. When they are not successful, they suffer losses. The reward to entrepreneurs for the risks, innovative ideas and efforts that they have put into the business, they obtain the money that remains after the owners of land, labor and capital have received their payments.

Text 5

THE BASIC ECONOMIC PROBLEM

The central problem of economics is to determine the most efficient ways to allocate the factors of production and solve the problem of scarcity created by society's unlimited wants

and limited resources. In doing so, every society must provide answers to the following three questions:

1. What goods and services are to be produced, and in what quantities are they to be produced?
2. How are those goods and services to be produced?
3. Who will receive and consume (get to use) those goods and services?

The solution of these questions depends on the economic system of each particular society.

VOCABULARY

overall output – общий объем производства	ческие ресурсы
cause-and-effect relationships – причинно-следственные связи	capital and entrepreneurship – капитал и предпринимательство
production and consumption – производство и потребление	return or reward – доход или вознаграждение
factors of production – факторы производства	wildlife and timber resources – живая природа и ресурсы древесины
natural resources – природные ресурсы	to allocate the factors of production – размещать факторы производства
human resources – челове-	to postpone – откладывать

Задание 1.2. Answer the questions:

1. What's the difference between macroeconomics and microeconomics? What questions does macroeconomics examine? What questions does microeconomics examine?
2. What are the factors of production?
3. What is the fuel that drives the economy?
4. What are the natural resources?
5. What is called «the price paid for the use of labor»?
6. What is the capital?
7. What is the role of entrepreneurship in production?

LESSON 2

Text 1

ECONOMIC SYSTEMS

An economic system is the way in which a country uses its available resources (land, workers, natural resources, machinery etc.) to satisfy the demands of its inhabitants for goods and services. The more goods and services that can be produced from these limited resources, the higher the standard of living enjoyed by the country's citizens. There are three main economic systems:

1. Planned economies

Planned economies are sometimes called «command economies» because the state commands the use of resources (such as labour and factories) that are used to produce goods and services as it *owns* factories, land and natural resources. Planned economies are economies with a large amount of central planning and direction, when the government takes all the decisions; the government decides production and consumption. Planning of this kind is obviously very difficult, very complicated to do, and the result is that there is no society, which is completely a command economy. The actual system employed varies from state to state, but command or planned economies have a number of common features.

Firstly, the state decides precisely what the nation is to produce. It usually plans five years ahead. It is the intention of the planners that there should be enough goods and services for all.

Secondly, industries are asked to comply with these plans and each industry and factory is set a production target to meet. If each factory and farm meets its target, then the state will meet its targets as set out in the five-year plans. You could think of the factory and farm targets to be objectives, which, if met, allow the nation's overall aim to be reached.

A planned economy is simple to understand but not simple to operate. It does, however, have a number of advantages:

- Everyone in society receives enough goods and services to enjoy a basic standard of living.
- Nations do not waste resources duplicating production.
- The state can use its control of the economy to divert resources to wherever it wants. As a result, it can ensure that everyone receives a good education, proper health care or that transport is available.

Several disadvantages also exist. It is these disadvantages that have led to many nations abandoning planned economies over recent years:


- There is no incentive for individuals to work hard in planned economies.
- Any profits that are made are paid to the government.
- Citizens cannot start their own businesses and so new ideas rarely come forward.
- As a result, industries in planned economies can be very inefficient.

A major problem faced by command or planned economies is that of deciding *what to produce*. Command economies tend to be slow when responding to changes in people's tastes and fashions. Planners are likely to underproduce some items as they cannot predict changes in demand. Equally, some products, which consumers regard as obsolete and unattractive, may be overproduced.

Planners are afraid to produce goods and services unless they are sure substantial amounts will be purchased. This leads to delays and queues for some products.


VOCABULARY

inhabitants — жители, население	to duplicate production — дублировать производство
to own — владеть	to divert — отвлекать (напр., ресурсы на другие цели)
natural resources — природные ресурсы	to abandon — отказываться от чего-либо
a large amount — большой объем	a major problem faced by command or planned economies — основная проблема, стоящая перед командной или плановой экономикой
central planning and direction — центральное планирование и руководство	changes in tastes and fashions — изменения вкусов и моды
consumption — потребление	to underproduce — недопроизводить
obviously — очевидно	to regard smth as — воспринимать что-либо, относиться к чему-либо как...
complicated — сложный	obsolete (syn. out of date) — устарелый, вышедший из употребления
to have a number of common features — иметь ряд общих черт	to overproduce — перепроизводить
intention — намерение	delays and queues — задержки (с товарами) и очереди
to comply with — подчиняться	
a production target to meet — производственная задача (задание), которую надо выполнить	
an objective — цель, задача	
an overall aim — общая цель	
to enjoy a basic standard of living — иметь основной уровень жизни	


 **Задание 2.1.** Answer the questions:

1. What is an economic system?
2. What does a standard of living depend on?
3. What is a planned economy?

4. What are the main features of a planned economy?
5. What are the advantages of a planned economy?
6. What are the disadvantages of a planned economy?
7. What causes delays and queues for some products?
8. What are other advantages and disadvantages of a planned economy?

 **Задание 2.2.** Find Russian equivalents to the following:


1. each factory is set a production target to meet
2. to divert resources to wherever it wants
3. new ideas rarely come forward
4. tend to be slow when responding to changes

 **Задание 2.3.** Find synonyms for the words in italics:

Obsolete products; it can *ensure* that; it can be very *inefficient*.


There is no *incentive* for individuals to work hard in planned economies.

It led to many nations *abandoning* planned economies over recent years.

 **Задание 2.4.** Find in the text English equivalents for the following:

1. имеющиеся в распоряжении ресурсы
2. управлять использованием ресурсов
3. управление экономикой
4. отказываться от плановой экономики
5. иметь высокий жизненный уровень
6. иметь общие черты
7. подчиняться 5-летнему плану
8. значительное количество
9. ставить производственные задачи
10. полученная прибыль

11. стимул к эффективной работе
12. перебои и очереди
13. реагировать на изменения спроса
14. предсказывать изменения спроса
15. основная проблема, стоящая перед...

 **Задание 2.5. Translate into English:**

1. Если хозяйство плановое, то работа промышленности подчиняется плану, в котором государство определяет производственные задачи и планирует развитие на 5 лет вперед.

2. В плановой экономике покупатели лишены возможности влиять на производство товаров.

3. Поскольку значительная доля полученной прибыли должна быть выплачена государству, то в условиях плановой экономики стимулы работать эффективно невелики.

4. Промышленность часто выпускает непривлекательные и старомодные товары, поскольку невозможно предсказать изменения моды на 5 лет вперед.

5. Государство в условиях плановой экономики может гарантировать своим гражданам образование и медицинское обслуживание.

6. Все крупные решения, касающиеся объема используемых ресурсов, структуры и распределения продукции, производства и потребления, принимаются центральным плановым органом.

 **Text 2**

ECONOMIC SYSTEMS

2. Market economies

In a true market economy the government plays no role in the management of the economy, the government does not intervene in it. The system is based on private

enterprise with private ownership of the means of production and private supplies of capital, which can be defined as surplus income available for investment in new business activities. Workers are paid wages by employers according to how skilled they are and how many firms wish to employ them. They spend their wages on the products and services they need. Consumers are willing to spend more on products and services, which are favoured. Firms producing these goods will make more profits and this will persuade more firms to produce these particular goods rather than less favoured ones.

Thus, we can see that in a market economy consumers decide what is to be produced. Consumers will be willing to pay high prices for products they particularly desire. Firms, which are privately owned, see the opportunity of increased profits and produce the new fashionable and favoured products.

Such a system is, at first view, very attractive. The economy adjusts automatically to meet changing demands. No planners have to be employed, which allows more resources to be available for production. Firms tend to be highly competitive in such an environment. New advanced products and low prices are good ways to increase sales and profits. Since all firms are privately owned they try to make the largest profits possible. In a free market individual people are free to pursue their own interests. They can become millionaires, for example. Suppose you invent a new kind of car. You want to make money out of it in your own interests. But when you have that car produced, you are in fact moving the production possibility frontier outwards. You actually make the society better-off by creating new jobs and opportunities, even though you become a millionaire in the process, and you do it without any government help or intervention.

Not surprisingly there are also problems.

Some goods would be underpurchased if the government did not provide free or subsidized supplies. Examples of this type of good and service are health and education. There are other goods and services, such as defence and policing, that are impossible to supply individually in response to consumer spending. Once defence or a police force is supplied to a country then everyone in this country benefits.

A cornerstone of the market system is that production alters swiftly to meet changing demands. These swift changes can, however, have serious consequences. Imagine a firm, which switches from labour-intensive production to the one where new technology is employed in the factory. The resulting unemployment could lead to many social as well as economic problems.

In a market economy there might be minimal control on working conditions and safety standards concerning products and services. It is necessary to have large-scale government intervention to pass laws to protect consumers and workers.


Some firms produce goods and then advertise heavily to gain sufficient sales. Besides wasting resources on advertising, firms may also duplicate one another's services. Rival firms, providing rail services, for example, could mean that two or more systems of rail are laid.

Finally, firms have to have confidence in future sales if they are to produce new goods and services. At certain times they tend to lack confidence and cut back on production and the development of new ideas. This decision, when taken by many firms, can lead to a recession. A recession means less spending, fewer jobs and a decline in the prosperity of the nation.


VOCABULARY

- to own and run (to manage, to operate) businesses** – владеть и управлять бизнесом
- to intervene** – вмешиваться
- private enterprise (entrepreneurship)** – частное предпринимательство
- private ownership (property) of the means of production** – частная собственность на средства производства
- public property, common ownership** – общественная собственность
- personal property** – личная собственность
- state-owned property, state ownership** – государственная собственность
- private supplies of capital** – частный капитал
- surplus income available for investment in new business activities** – дополнительный доход (излишек дохода), который можно вложить (инвестировать) в новое дело (бизнес)
- to employ** – использовать; предоставлять работу, нанимать
- employer** – работодатель
- employee** – служащий
- employment** – занятость
- unemployment** – безработица
- to persuade** – убеждать
- at first view (at first sight)** – на первый взгляд
- to adjust automatically** – автоматически приспособливаться; приводиться в соответствие
- competitive** – конкурентоспособный
- to make the largest profits possible** – получить наибольшую возможную прибыль
- to pursue one's own interests** – преследовать свои интересы
- to make money out of it** – заработать деньги на этом
- to move the production possibility frontier outwards** – продвинуть вперед предел производственных возможностей
- to make the society better-off** – сделать общество более состоятельным
- to create new jobs and opportunities** – создать новые рабочие места, новые возможности
- to underpurchase** – недостаточно раскупать
- to provide free or subsidized supplies** – обеспечить бесплатное или субсидированное (дотированное) предоставление (товаров, услуг)


in response to (in answer to) – в ответ на	large-scale intervention – широкомасштабное вмешательство
a cornerstone – краеугольный камень	to pass laws – принимать законы
to alter swiftly – быстро меняться	to gain sufficient sales – добиться достаточного объема продаж
consequences – последствия	rival firms – фирмы-конкуренты, соперники
labour-intensive production – трудоемкое производство	to have confidence – иметь уверенность
working conditions – условия работы	to lack confidence – не хватать уверенности
safety standards – нормы техники безопасности	

 **Задание 2.6.** *Answer the questions:*


1. What is a market economy?
2. What is the mechanism of producing goods and services in a market economy?
3. In what way do changing demands affect production in a market economy?
4. What is the main difference between a market economy and a planned economy?
5. What are the advantages of a market economy?
6. What are the disadvantages of a market economy?

 **Задание 2.7.** *Find the Russian equivalents to the following:*


1. new advanced products;
2. products which are favoured;
3. they try to make the largest profits possible;
4. provide free or subsidized supplies;
5. produce goods and then advertise heavily;
6. a firm which switches from labour-intensive production to a new one;
7. a decline in the prosperity of the nation

 **Задание 2.8.** *Find the synonyms for the words in italics:*

businesses owned and *run* by the state;
 products and services, which are *favoured*;
 at first *view*;
 production *alters swiftly*.

 **Задание 2.9.** *Find in the text English equivalents for the following:*

1. процветание нации
2. управление экономикой
3. быстро меняться
4. широкомасштабное вмешательство правительства
5. принимать законы
6. конкурирующие фирмы
7. автоматически изменяться (приспосабливаться)
8. быть конкурентоспособным
9. частные фирмы
10. фирмы, принадлежащие государству и управляемые им
11. краугольный камень
12. иметь серьезные последствия для ...
13. трудоемкое производство
14. сокращать производство
15. быть уверенным в ...
16. не хватает уверенности в ...
17. дорого платить за что-либо

 **Задание 2.10.** *Translate into English:*

1. В рыночной экономике невелика или очень мала необходимость в планировании, контроле и широкомасштабном вмешательстве со стороны государства (правительства) в экономический процесс.

2. В условиях рыночной экономики изменения потребительского спроса играют заметную роль в формировании политики фирм.

3. Чтобы быть конкурентоспособными и увеличивать доходы, фирмы должны постоянно изучать спрос и менять свою деятельность в ответ на его изменения.

4. Чем более модный товар, тем более высокую цену надо за него платить.

5. Некоторые виды услуг, например здравоохранение и образование, не могут быть полностью обеспечены только частными фирмами.

6. Рыночная экономика характеризуется частной собственностью на ресурсы и использованием системы рынков и цен для управления экономической деятельностью.

7. В такой системе каждый ее участник волен преследовать свои собственные интересы; каждая экономическая единица стремится получить наибольший возможный доход на основе индивидуального принятия решений.

Text 3

ECONOMIC SYSTEMS

3. Mixed economies

Command and market economies both have significant faults. Partly because of this, an intermediate system has developed, known as mixed economies.

A mixed economy contains elements of both market and planned economies. At one extreme we have a command economy, which does not allow individuals to make economic decisions, at the other extreme we have a free market, where individuals exercise considerable economic freedom of choice without any government restrictions. Between these two extremes lies a mixed economy. In mixed economies some resources are controlled by the government whilst others are used in response to the demands of consumers.


Technically, all the economies of the world are mixed. Some countries are nearer to command economies, while others are closer to free market economies.

The aim of mixed economies is to avoid the disadvantages of both systems while enjoying the benefits that they both offer. So, in a mixed economy the government and the private sector interact in solving economic problems. The state controls the share of the output through taxation and transfer payments and intervenes to supply essential items such as health, education and defence, while private firms produce cars, furniture, electrical items and similar, less essential products.


The UK is a country with mixed economy. Some services are provided by the state (for example, health care and defence) whilst a range of privately owned businesses offer other goods and services.

VOCABULARY


significant faults – значи- тельные недостатки	to avoid disadvantages – избегать недостатков
at one extreme... at the other extreme – на одном полюсе... на другом	to enjoy the benefits – иметь преимущества, пользо- ваться преимуществами
to exercise considerable economic freedom of choice – иметь значи- тельную экономическую свободу выбора	to interact – взаимодейство- вать
restriction – ограничение	to solve economic problems – решать экономические проблемы
whilst [waɪlst] = while – в то время как, пока	a share of the output – доля в объеме производства
state-controlled industry – промышленность, конт- ролируемая государством	essential items – товары и услуги первой необходи- мости
	a range of businesses – зд. ряд компаний, фирм

 **Задание 2.11.** *Answer the questions:*


1. Do really pure examples of planned and market economies exist in the world?
2. What is a mixed economy? What is its aim?
3. What type of economy has the UK?
4. What type of economy is in Russia now?

 **Задание 2.12.** *Find Russian equivalents to the following:*


an intermediate system has developed;
to supply essential items;
the government controls a share of the output

 **Задание 2.13.** *Find synonyms to the words in italics:*

significant faults,
a range of products;
whilst others are used
in response to the demands of consumers

 **Задание 2.14.** *Find in the text English equivalents for the following:*

- 1) избегать недостатков
- 2) частный сектор
- 3) налогообложение
- 4) централизованно принимать экономические решения
- 5) на одном полюсе — на другом ...
- 6) без ограничений
- 7) взаимодействовать в решении проблем
- 8) пользоваться благами
- 9) правительство, возглавляемое ...

 **Задание 2.15.** *Translate into English:*

1. В реальной действительности экономические системы находятся где-то между чисто рыночной и

плановой экономикой. Смешанная экономика – это система, при которой частная собственность и рынок, а также правительство и общественные институты, энергично участвующие в обеспечении экономической стабильности и перераспределении доходов, взаимодействуют в решении экономических проблем.

LESSON 3

MAIN ECONOMIC LAWS

Text 1

SUPPLY, DEMAND AND MARKET PRICE

What? How? Who?

Every society must provide answers to the same three questions:

- What goods and services will be produced?
- How will those goods and services be produced?
- Who will receive them?

Societies and nations have created different economic systems to provide answers to these fundamental questions. Traditional economies look to customs and traditions for their answers while others, known as command economies, rely upon governments to provide the answers. In free enterprise systems, market prices answer most of the What, How and Who questions.

Because market prices play such an important part in free enterprise systems, those systems are often described as «price directed market economies.» Supply and demand are the forces that determine what prices will be.

Prices In A Market Economy

Prices perform two important economic functions: They ration scarce resources, and they motivate production. As a general rule, the more scarce something is, the higher its price will be, and the fewer people will want to buy it. Economists describe this as the rationing effect of prices.

In a market system goods and services are allocated, or distributed, based on their price.

Price increases and decreases also send messages to suppliers and potential suppliers of goods and services. As prices rise, the increase serves to attract additional producers. Similarly, price decreases drive producers out of the market. In this way prices encourage producers to increase or decrease their level of output. Economists refer to this as the production-motivating function of prices. But what causes prices to rise and fall in a market economy? The answer is Demand!

 **Text 2**

THE LAW OF DEMAND

Demand is a consumer's willingness and ability to buy a product or service at a particular time and place.

The law of demand describes the relationship between prices and the quantity of goods and services that would be purchased at each price. It says that all else being equal, more items will be sold at a lower price than at a higher price.

Demand behaves the way it does for some of the following reasons:

More people can afford to buy an item at a lower price than at a higher price.

Let's see the law of demand from the point of ice-cream selling

At a lower price some people will substitute ice-cream for other items (such as candy bars or soft drinks), thereby increasing the demand.

At a higher price some people will substitute other items for ice cream.

How many ice-creams can a man eat? One, two, more? Some people will eat more than one if the price is low

enough. Sooner or later, however, we reach the point where enjoyment decreases with every bite no matter how low is the cost. What is true of ice-cream applies to most everything. After a certain point is reached, the satisfaction from a good or service will begin to diminish. Economists describe this effect as diminishing marginal utility. «Utility» refers to the usefulness of something. Thus «diminishing marginal utility» is the economist's way of describing the point reached when the last item consumed will be less satisfying than the one before.

Diminishing marginal utility helps to explain why lower prices are needed to increase the quantity demanded. Since your desire for a second ice-cream is less than it was for the first, you are not likely to buy more than one, except at a lower price. At even lower prices you might be willing to buy additional ice-creams and give them away.

Text 3

Elasticity Of Demand

The shape and slope of demand curves for different products are often quite different. If, for example, the price of a quart of milk were to triple, from \$.80 to \$2.40 a quart, people would buy less milk. Similarly, if the price of all cola drinks were to jump from \$1 to \$3 a quart (an identical percent increase), people would buy less cola. But even though both prices changed by the same percentage, the decrease in milk sales would probably be far less than the decrease in cola sales. This is because **people can do without cola more easily than they can do without milk.** The quantity of milk purchased is less sensitive to changes in price than is the quantity of cola. Economists would explain this by saying that the demand for cola is more elastic than the demand for milk.

Elasticity describes how much a change in price affects the quantity demanded.

How Elasticity is Measured

When the demand for an item is inelastic, a change in price will have a relatively small effect on the quantity demanded. When the demand for an item is elastic, a small change in price will have a relatively large effect on the quantity demanded.

Elasticity can also be measured by the «revenue test.» Total revenue is equal to the price multiplied by the number of units sold.

If, following a price increase, total revenue falls, the demand would be described as elastic. If total revenue were to increase following a price increase, the demand would be inelastic. Similarly, if total revenue increased following a price decrease, demand would be elastic. If the price decrease led to a decrease in total revenue, the demand for the item would be described as inelastic.

Why the Demand for Some Goods and Services Is Inelastic

The demand for some goods and services will be inelastic for one or more of the following reasons:

- They are necessities.
- It is difficult to find substitutes. Cola drinkers can switch to other soft drinks, but there are few substitutes for milk.
- They are relatively inexpensive. People are less apt to change their buying habits when the price of something that is relatively inexpensive is increased or decreased. If, for example, the price of an item were to double from 10 cents to 20 cents, it would have less of an effect on demand than if the price had gone from \$250 to \$500.
- It is difficult to delay a purchase. When your car is running out of gas you will buy it at the nearest gas station at any price.

Changes in Demand

Until now, we have been describing the relationship between an item's price and the quantity of an item people will purchase. Sometimes things happen that change the demand for an item at each and every price. When this occurs, we have an increase or a decrease in demand.

What are some of the factors that would cause the demand for ice cream, or any other product, to increase or decrease at each and every price?

Substitutes

When two goods satisfy similar needs, they are described as substitutes. A change in the price of one item will result in a shift in the demand for a substitute.

Black and brown shoes are close substitutes. If the price of black shoes goes up, then people will tend to substitute brown shoes for black shoes, and the demand curve for brown shoes will shift out at every price. If the price of black shoes goes down, then people will tend to substitute black shoes for brown shoes, and the demand curve for brown shoes will shift in at every price.

Complementary goods

Goods that are often consumed together, like peanut butter and jelly, are complements.

If the price of peanut butter should increase, the quantity of peanut butter consumed will decrease. Since peanut butter and jelly are consumed together, the quantity of jelly demanded at each and every price will also decline, and the demand curve for jelly will shift in.

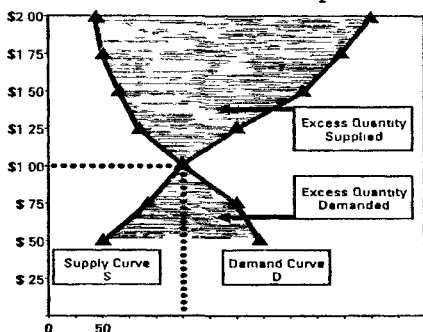
What are some other factors that might cause the demand to increase or decrease? How would these changes be reflected in the demand curve? The following is a brief list of factors that might affect the curve:

- Change in the environment.
- Change in the item's usefulness.

- Change in income.
- Change in the price of a substitute product.
- Change in the price or availability of complementary products.
- Change in styles, taste, habits, etc.

If any of these events occurred, the demand schedule would change in such a way that the quantity demanded at any particular price would be higher or lower.

Here is a chart of supply-demand curves. The point of their intersection is the market price.



Text 4

SUPPLY

Thus far we have only spoken about the effects of prices on buyers. But it takes two parties to make a sale: buyers and sellers. To the economist, supply refers to the number of items that sellers will offer for sale at different prices at a particular time and place.

The Law of Supply

The law of supply states that sellers will offer more of a product at a higher price and less at a lower price.

Why does the quantity of a product supplied change if its price rises or falls? The answer is that producers

supply things to make a profit. The higher the price, the greater the incentive to produce and sell the product.

Changes in Supply

When supply changes, the entire supply curve shifts either to the right or to the left. This is simply another way of saying that sellers will be offering either more (if supply has increased) or less (if supply has decreased) of an item at every possible price. Any or all of the following changes are likely to affect the quantities supplied:

- Changes in the cost of production. If it costs sellers less to produce their products, they will be able to offer more of them for sale. An increase in production costs will have the opposite effect – supply will decrease.

- Other profit opportunities. Most producers can make more than one product. If the price of a product they have not been producing (but could if they choose to) increases, many will shift their output to that product.

- Future expectations. If producers expect prices to increase in the future, they may increase their production now to be in position to profit later. Similarly, if prices are expected to decline in the future, producers may reduce production, and supply will fall.

Equilibrium

Supply and demand schedules tell us how many items buyers would purchase and how many items sellers would offer at different prices. By themselves they do not tell us at what price goods or services would actually change hands. When the two forces are brought together, however, something quite significant takes place. The interaction of supply and demand will result in the establishment of an equilibrium or market price.

The market price is the one at which goods or services will actually be exchanged for money. The price at which supply exactly equals demand is known as the market price, or the point of equilibrium.

Perfect Competition Conditions

The market price is the only price that can exist for any length of time under perfect competition conditions. Perfect competition exists when the following conditions prevail:

- Buyers and sellers have full knowledge of the prices quoted in the market.

- There are many buyers and sellers so that no individual or group can control prices.

- The products are identical with one another. Therefore, it would not make sense for buyers to pay more than the market price, nor for sellers to accept less.

- Buyers and sellers are free to enter or leave the market at will.

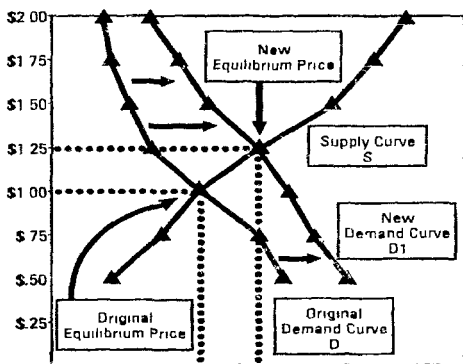
But why is the equilibrium price the only one that can exist for any length of time? The reason is: Because of Excess Quantity Demanded or Excess Quantity Supplied.

The process of changes of demand and supply would continue until the quantity supplied exactly equaled the quantity demanded.

We may conclude that an excess quantity supplied will result in price decreases until a new equilibrium is reached.

Equilibrium Price and Quantity

As long as supply and demand remain unchanged, the equilibrium or market price will remain constant.



 Text 4

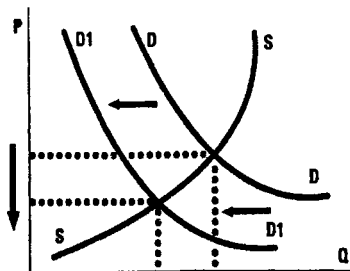
SUPPLY, DEMAND AND MARKET PRICE

Summary

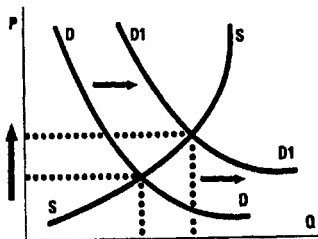
Market economies are directed by prices. As the price of an item rises, sellers are encouraged to increase production, and consumers are discouraged from purchasing the item. When the price falls, the opposite is true. In this way prices send out «signals» to buyers and sellers, keeping the economy responsive to the forces of supply and demand.

In a free market economy, prices are determined by the interaction of the forces of supply and demand. Perfectly competitive markets are those in which many buyers and sellers, with full knowledge of market conditions, buy and sell products that are identical to one another.

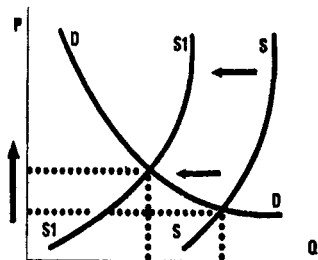
Demand is the quantity of goods or services that buyers would purchase at all possible prices. Demand varies *inversely* with price. That is, at a higher price fewer items would be bought than at a lower one. The degree to which price changes affect demand will depend upon the *elasticity of demand* for a particular item.



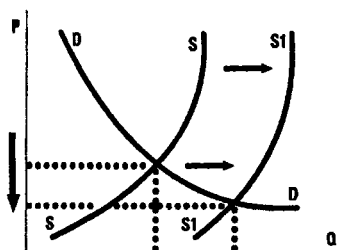
A decrease in demand will result in a decrease in the market price.



An increase in demand will result in an increase in the market price.



A decrease in supply will result in an increase in the market price.



An increase in supply will result in a decrease in the market price.

Supply, which is the quantity of goods or services that sellers would offer for sale at all possible prices at a particular time and place, varies directly with price. In


other words, -at a higher price, more goods and services will be offered for sale than at a lower one, and vice versa.

The price at which goods and services actually change hands is known as the *equilibrium*, or *market price*. It is the point at which the quantity demanded exactly equals the quantity supplied. Market price can be represented graphically as the point of intersection of the supply and demand curves.


Shifts in demand or supply will affect market price. When everything else is held constant, an increase in demand will result in an increase in market price, and vice versa. Similarly, an increase in supply will result in a decrease in price, and vice versa.

VOCABULARY

- | | |
|---|--|
| to ration scarce resources — нормировать недостаточные ресурсы | have a relatively large effect — иметь относительно большое влияние |
| to motivate production — мотивировать производство | revenue test — тест на доходность |
| rationing effect of prices — нормирующий эффект цен | item's price — цена изделия |
| level of output — уровень производства | shift — сдвиг, смещение |
| to encourage — поощрять | peanut butter and jelly — арахисовое масло и желе |
| production-motivating function of prices — мотивирующая производство функция цен | complements — дополнения |
| to substitute for — заменять | availability — зд. наличие |
| diminishing marginal utility — уменьшение крайней полезности | occurred — имел место |
| shape and slope — форма и наклон | incentive — стимул |
| to triple — утроить | expectations — ожидания |
| | to profit — получать прибыль |
| | to decline — снижаться |
| | actually — фактически |
| | point of equilibrium — точка равновесия |
| | to prevail — преобладать |
| | inversely — обратно пропорционально |

 **Задание 3.1.** *Give answers to the following questions:*

1. What roles do prices play in a market economy?
2. What affects the demand for goods and services in a market economy?
3. What affects the supply of a particular good or service?
4. How do demand and supply interact to determine prices?
5. How do shifts in demand and supply affect prices?

 **Задание 3.2.** *Translate into Russian:*

1. В экономике цены определяются взаимодействием сил спроса и предложения.

2. Совершенные конкурентные рынки – это те, где много покупателей и продавцов, с полным знанием конъюнктуры рынка, покупают и продают друг другу изделия, которые являются идентичными.

3. Спрос – это количество товаров или услуг, которые покупатели купили бы по всем возможным ценам.

4. Спрос изменяется обратно пропорционально с ценой, то есть, при более высокой цене меньшее количество изделий было бы куплено, чем при более низкой.

5. Предложение – это количество товаров или услуг, которое продавцы предложили бы для продажи по всем возможным ценам в определенное время и место, и, которое изменяется непосредственно с ценой.

6. Большее количество товаров и услуг будет предлагаться для продажи по более высокой цене, чем по более низкой, и наоборот.

7. Цена, по которой фактически продаются товары и услуги, известна как равновесие, или рыночная цена. Это – точка, при которой требуемое количество точно равняется предложенному количеству.

LESSON 4

Text 1

MONEY AND ITS FUNCTIONS

The main feature of money is its acceptance as the means of payment or medium of exchange. Nevertheless, money has other functions. It is a standard of value, a unit of account, a store of value and a standard of deferred payment.

The Medium of Exchange

Money, the medium of exchange, is used in one-half of almost all exchange. Workers work for money. People buy and sell goods in exchange for money. We accept money not to consume it directly but because it can subsequently be used to buy things we wish to consume. Money is the medium through which people exchange goods and services.

In barter economy there is no medium of exchange. Goods are traded directly or swapped for other goods. In a barter economy, the seller and the buyer each must want something the other has to offer. Each person is simultaneously a seller and a buyer. There is a double coincidence of wants.

Trading is very expensive in a barter economy. People must spend a lot of time and effort finding others with whom they can make mutually satisfactory swaps. Since time and effort are scarce resources, a barter economy is wasteful.

Money is generally accepted in payment for goods, services, and debts and makes the trading process simpler and more efficient.

Other Functions of Money

Money can also serve as a standard of value. Society considers it convenient to use a monetary unit to determine relative costs of different goods and services. In this function money appears as the unit of account, is the unit in which prices are quoted and accounts are kept.

To be accepted in exchange, money has to be a store of value. Money is a store of value because it can be used to make purchases in the future.

Houses, stamp collections, and interest-bearing bank accounts all serve as stores of value. Since money pays no interest and its real purchasing power is eroded by inflation, there are almost certainly better ways to store value.

Finally, money serves as a standard of deferred payment or a unit of account over time. When you borrow, the amount to be repaid next year is measured in money value.

Different Kinds of Money

Golden coins are the examples of commodity money, because their gold content is a commodity.

A token money is a means of payment whose value or purchasing power as money greatly exceeds its cost of production or value in uses other than as money.

A \$10 note is worth far more as money than as a 3x6 inch piece of high-quality paper. Similarly, the monetary value of most coins exceeds the amount you would get by melting them down and selling off the metals they contain. By collectively agreeing to use token money, society economizes on the scarce resources required to produce money as a medium of exchange. Since the manufacturing costs are tiny, why doesn't everyone make \$10 notes? The essential condition for the survival of token money is the

restriction of the right to supply it. Private production is illegal.

Society enforces the use of token money by making it legal tender. The law says it must be accepted as a means of payment. In modern economies, token money is supplemented by IOU money.


An IOU money is a medium of exchange based on the debt of a private firm or individual.

A bank deposit is IOU money because it is a debt of the bank. When you have a bank deposit the bank owes you money. You can write a cheque to yourself or a third party and the bank is obliged to pay whenever the cheque is presented. Bank deposits are a medium of exchange because they are generally accepted as payment.


VOCABULARY

the means of payment средство платежа	a double coincidence of wants двойное совпадение потребностей
medium of exchange средство обращения	a monetary unit денежная единица
a standard of value мера стоимости	to remind of напоминать
a unit of account единица учета	to be worthless обесцениваться
a store of value средство сбережения (сохранения стоимости)	an interest-bearing bank account счет в банке с выплатой процентов
a standard of deferred payment средство погашения долга	to pay interest приносить процентный доход
subsequently впоследствии	to erode эд. фактически уменьшаться
a barter economy бартерная экономика	hard currency твердая (конвертируемая) валюта
to swap (to exchange, to barter) обменивать, менять	soft currency неконвертируемая валюта
to hand over in exchange передать, вручить в обмен	invariably неизменно, постоянно
	commodity money деньги — товар


token money	символические деньги (дензнаки, жетоны, и т.п.)	legal tender	законное платежное средство
to melt down	расплавить	IOU money (I Owe You-я вам должен)	деньги — долговое обязательство
tiny costs	мизерные затраты	a bank deposit	вклад в банке
to supplement	дополнять		

 **Задание 4.1.** *Give Russian equivalents to the following:*

1. exchange labour services for money
2. you must hand over in exchange a good or service
3. a double coincidence of wants
4. spend a lot of time and effort
5. make mutually satisfactory swap
6. a barter economy is wasteful;
7. commodity generally accepted in payment for goods
8. prices are quoted and accounts are kept
9. its purchasing power is eroded by inflation
10. it's usually but not invariably convenient
11. cut back on other uses
12. exceeds its cost of production
13. by collectively agreeing
14. the survival of token money
15. society enforces the use of token money
16. token money is supplemented by IOU money
17. interest-bearing bank accounts

 **Задание 4.2.** *Replace the words in italics by synonyms:*


sometimes payment can be *put off till later*,
 the *vital* feature of money;
 its purchasing power is *worn away*,
 the money is *without value*,
 it is not *always* convenient;
 time and effort are *rare* resources;
 private production of money is *against the law*

 **Задание 4.3.** Find in the text English equivalents for the following

1. средство платежа
2. средство обращения
3. мера стоимости
4. средство сбережения (средство сохранения стоимости)
5. единица учета
6. средство погашения долга
7. в обмен на
8. может быть впоследствии использовано
9. обмениваться товарами и услугами
10. бартерная экономика
11. измеряться
12. обесцененный
13. платить проценты
14. покупательная способность
15. промышленное использование
16. потребительское использование
17. деньги – товар
18. денежные знаки (символические деньги)
19. денежная стоимость
20. ограничение права
21. вклад в банке
22. банковская ссуда
23. законное платежное средство
24. долговое обязательство

 **Задание 4.4.** Answer the questions:


1. Why do people accept money?
2. What are the functions of money?
3. What are different kinds of money?
4. What's a barter economy?
5. What does IOU stand for?

 **Задание 4.5.** *Translate into English:*

Существует несколько функций денег. Во-первых и прежде всего, деньги являются средством платежа, или обращения; деньги можно использовать при покупке и продаже товаров и услуг. Деньги выступают также мерой стоимости. Общество считает удобным использовать денежную единицу в качестве масштаба для соизмерения относительных стоимостей различных благ и ресурсов.

Деньги служат средством сбережения. Поскольку деньги являются наиболее ликвидным товаром, то есть таким, который можно без проблем продать (обменять), то они являются очень удобной формой хранения богатства. Это, однако, не единственная форма хранения богатства. Во время упадка в экономике, при высокой инфляции и обесценении денег, население, скорее всего, будет хранить богатство в виде недвижимости или других дорогостоящих товаров – предметах искусства, драгоценностях.

Деньги, которые, являются долговыми обязательствами государства, коммерческих банков и сберегательных учреждений, имеют стоимость благодаря товарам и услугам, которые приобретаются за них на рынке.

 **Задание 4.6.** *Translate the text using a dictionary.*

 **Text 2**

MONEY AS A MEDIUM OF EXCHANGE

Money is a medium of exchange in economy. It is a means of payment for goods and services and in settlement of debts. Money is also a standard of value for measuring the relative economic worth of different goods and services. The price of the commodity is the number of

units of money required to buy this commodity. The main functions of money are a medium of exchange and the measure of value. Without the use of money, trade would be reduced to barter, that is to direct exchange of one commodity for another. Barter trade was the means used by primitive peoples, and it is still practised in some parts of the world. In a barter economy, a person having something to trade must find another who wants it and has something acceptable to offer in exchange. In a money economy, the owner of a commodity may sell it for money and buy anything he wants for this money. So money may be regarded as a keystone of modern economic life.

Types of Money

The most important types of money are commodity money, credit money, and fiat money. The value of commodity money is about equal to the value of the material contained in it. The principal materials used for this type of money have been gold, silver, and copper. Credit money are documents with promises by the issuer to pay an equivalent value in the standard monetary metal. Fiat money is paper money the value of which is fixed by government. Most minor coins in circulation are also a form of fiat money, because the value of the material of which they are made is usually less than their value as money.

Both the fiat and credit forms of money are generally made acceptable through a government decree that all creditors must take the money in settlement of debts. Fiat money in the form of banknotes is referred to as legal tender.

Banknotes are usually made from special high-quality paper, with watermarks, metallic strips, and other features against forgery. Highly sophisticated printing techniques are used, and banknote designs have elements that are hard to copy. Fronts and backs of notes are printed separately, and serial numbers are added later.

LESSON 5

Text 1

THE SOURCES OF INCOME

Before people can consume anything, however, they must do two things. First they must earn the income to buy the things they want. Then they must decide how the money will be spent. There are two ways to earn income: from work and from the use of wealth.

Income From Work

Most of the income comes from work. In return for working, people receive a wage or a salary. The term «wage» typically refers to the earnings of workers paid by the hour or unit of production. «Salary» refers to earnings paid on a weekly or monthly basis. How much you earn will depend on the kind of job, the abilities, the performance, and a number of other factors.

Income From Wealth.

Wealth can be expressed as the value of the things you own. Adding the value of all your possessions, bank accounts, savings, and the like will give you the total amount of your wealth.

Used in certain ways, wealth can earn income. If you owned a house, you might be able to let others use it for a fee. In that instance economists would say that you used your wealth to earn «rent.» Wealth, in the form of money that is loaned to others or deposited in a savings account, will earn interest. As you can see, interest and rent are two forms of income that can be earned by wealth.

Other types of income are dividends and capital gains that can be generated from the wealth.

VOCABULARY


to consume – потреблять

earn the income – зарабатывать доход

earnings – заработки

dividends – дивиденды

capital gains – прирост капитальной стоимости

 **Задание 5.1.** *Give answers to the following questions:*

1. What are two ways to earn income?
2. Who gets wages?
3. Who gets salaries?
4. What is wealth?
5. How can wealth earn income?
6. What is «rent»?
7. What is interest?
8. What are other types of income?



Text 2

WHERE DO PEOPLE PUT THEIR SAVINGS IN THE UNITED STATES?

Most of the nation's personal savings are held by the commercial banks, different types of savings institutions, and credit unions. The deposits held by these institutions are insured by agencies of the federal government. Savings institutions offer one or more of the following kinds of accounts:

- Passbook and statement savings accounts. The safety of your money and high liquidity are the most important advantages of these accounts. Minimum balance requirements are usually quite low, and your savings can be withdrawn at any time. The disadvantage of passbook

and statement savings accounts, however, is that they pay relatively low interest rates.

- **NOW (Negotiable Order of Withdrawal) accounts.** NOW accounts pay interest and allow the depositor to write checks. NOW accounts generally offer a slightly lower rate of return than savings accounts.

- **Money-market accounts.** These insured accounts allow you to write a limited number of checks while participating in the «money market» where banks and other businesses buy and sell short-term credit instruments, notes and other kinds of IOU's that come due in a year or less. The rate of return for money market accounts is usually higher than for passbook savings accounts.

- **Certificates of deposit.** Certificates of deposit, or CD's, pay the highest rates of interest offered by banks and savings institutions. They require the money to be left on deposit for a specified period of time that can run from a few weeks to five or more years. The money can be withdrawn early, if necessary, but not without a penalty.

- **Credit-union accounts.** Credit unions, associations of people with some thing in common, often serve people who have the same employer, work in the same industry, or belong to a particular church, labor union, or club. Credit unions offer insured savings plans similar to those offered by other savings institutions. In most instances, however, the rate of return offered by credit unions is higher than that of the other institutions.


- **US savings bonds.** U S savings bonds can be purchased at most savings institutions. Guaranteed by the United States government, they are one of the safest investments one can make. Since 1986 the bonds pay no less than 6 percent interest when held for five years. After five years bonds earn a variable rate adjusted every six months.

- **Money-market funds.** Money market funds use the resources of their investors to buy money-market

certificates. Money-market funds generally pay a higher rate of return than savings and NOW accounts. Unlike other accounts at savings institutions, money-market fund accounts are not insured nor do they provide check-writing privileges.

VOCABULARY

savings institutions сберегательные учреждения	rate of return ставка дохода
passbook and statement	come due <i>зд.</i> подлежат оплате
savings accounts сберкнижка и сберегательные счета	certificates of deposit свободные обращающиеся депозитивные сертификаты
Negotiable Order of Withdrawal текущий счет, приносящий доход	penalty штраф, пеня
money-market accounts счета денежного рынка	credit-union accounts счета общества взаимного кредита
short-term credit instruments документы краткосрочного кредита	US savings bonds сберегательные облигации США
	money-market funds фонды денежного рынка

 **Задание 5.2.** Give answers to the following questions:

1. Where are personal savings held in the USA?
2. What are the types of savings accounts?
3. What savings accounts give the highest interest and offer the highest rate of return?

Text 3

CONSUMER CREDIT

Consumer credit provides cash, goods, or services *now*, while spreading repayment into *the future*. In this way credit enables you to enjoy your purchase even before you have paid for it.

But there are two important things attached to every credit purchase: credit costs something, and the principal, the original amount borrowed, must be paid back. If you are thinking of borrowing money or buying something on credit, you will want to know how much that credit will cost you and whether or not you can afford it. Then you can look for the best terms.

The Finance Charge and the Annual Percentage Rate (APR).

Credit costs vary from one lender to another, so think before you sign anything. Federal law requires that the lender tell you the total finance charges and the annual percentage rate or APR.

The finance charge is the total amount you pay to use credit. It includes interest costs and any other fees (such as service charges and insurance) that the seller or lender may be entitled to add to the loan.

The annual percentage rate, or APR, is the cost of credit calculated as a percent on an annual basis. For example, if someone lends you money at «only» 2.5 percent per month, the APR would be 30 percent (because $2.5 \times 12 \text{ months} = 30 \text{ percent}$).

Assume that a person borrowed \$1000 at 10 percent interest. He agreed to pay the principal and interest back in 10 monthly installments. Calculate the APR with the following formula:

$$\text{APR} = \frac{2 \times m \times ch}{P(n+1)},$$

m is the number of payment periods per year (12 if the payments are made monthly; 52 if made weekly).

ch is the carrying charge or interest (the cost of the loan beyond the amount borrowed).

P is the principal (the amount borrowed).

n is the actual number of payments made.

In this case: $\frac{2 \times 12 \times \$100}{\$1000(10+1)} = 28\%$.



Text 4

OBTAINING AND USING CREDIT

Credit is an arrangement that enables us to receive cash, goods or services now, with the understanding that we will pay for them in the future. Charge accounts, credit cards, installment plans, car loans and household mortgages are some of the best known forms of credit. Like so many things, credit has its advantages and disadvantages.

The principal *advantages* of credit are:

- Immediate possession. Credit enables us to enjoy goods and services immediately.
- Flexibility. Credit allows us to time our purchases so as to take advantage of sale items or other bargains even when our funds are low.
- Safety. Credit cards and charge accounts provide a safe and convenient means of carrying our purchasing power with us while we are shopping or travelling.
- Emergency funds. Credit gives us a cushion in an emergency (like an automobile breakdown when money is needed to get back on the road).

Here are some of the **disadvantages** of buying on credit:

- *Overspending*. Sometimes, credit cards and chargeaccounts make it *too easy* to spend money. Then, as the debts mount, it is often difficult to make the necessary monthly payments.
- *Higher cost*. It usually costs more to buy on credit than for cash. One reason is that stores offering credit often charge more than those that sell only for cash. Another is that interest or other charges are often added to the cost of goods sold on credit.
- *Untimely shopping*. Credit shoppers often ignore sales and special prices because they can buy what they want on credit whenever they want it.

Who Can Borrow?

Lenders expect their money to be repaid along with the interest and other fees they charge for the use of their money. For that reason lenders will investigate the credit history of all loan applicants to determine that they are *credit worthy*. A credit history is the record of how individuals pay their bills and repay loans.

The Three C's

In judging an individual's credit worthiness, lenders often look at the «three C's» of credit: character, capacity and capital.

- Character refers to personal qualities— honesty and willingness to repay debts. If the record shows that bills were paid on time in the past, lenders will assume this will continue in the future.

- Capacity is a measure of the ability to repay debts. Creditors will want to know about the sources of income, how much the person earns and his other financial obligations.

- Capital refers to the things that people own— money in the bank, or property. In general, the more one owns, the easier it will be to repay one's debts. Lenders may also ask that some capital be offered as collateral, something pledged as security for the loan.



Text 5

WHAT KINDS OF CREDIT ARE AVAILABLE?

Credit for consumers falls into two categories: loan credit and sales credit.

Loan credit enables you to borrow money which can then be used to finance a purchase. *Sales credit* enables you to buy goods and services now and pay for them later. Here are some examples of each.

Home mortgages. Home mortgages are long-term loans (repayable in 10 to 30 years) used to finance the purchase of a home or apartment. Banks, savings and loans and other thrift institutions are the most likely sources of mortgage money. Home mortgages are repaid with interest, in equal monthly installments, over the life of the loan.

Auto and other consumer loans. Loans for financing the purchase of specific items like automobiles, or other goods and services, are available from a variety of thrift institutions and lending agencies. Auto and other consumer loans are usually repaid in equal monthly installments over the life of the loan.

Charge accounts. Charge accounts enable consumers to make purchases up to a specified limit, without paying cash. There is usually no charge for the use of a charge account if the balance is paid in full at the end of the month. However, interest is likely to be charged on balances that are not paid at the end of one month.

Credit cards. A credit card is a kind of charge account that entitles its holders to shop at many different places. *Master Card, Visa, American Express* and *Diner's Club* are four of the most widely used credit cards. Credit card purchases are billed monthly. Like charge accounts, there is usually no charge for credit card purchases that are paid in full when billed. However, there is an additional charge levied on unpaid balances.

Text 6

HOW TO ESTABLISH CREDIT

People frequently have difficulty borrowing or buying on credit because they have no credit history. To establish a «credit» people must prove that they are willing and able to handle financial obligations.

They might, for example, open a charge account in a department store or apply for a gasoline credit card. Prompt payment of the bills on these kinds of accounts will help establish a positive credit rating. If persons has a savings account, they may already be eligible to apply for a passbook loan against the balance in that account. Here again, prompt repayment will add to credit rating. If necessary, it is possible to borrow before you have established a credit rating if you can find a co-signer. A co-signer is a person with an acceptable credit rating who guarantees to repay the loan if you are unable to do so. The point is that a good credit rating is a valuable financial tool. While it may take some time to acquire and maintain, it will increase your financial options.

VOCABULARY

principal основная сумма
finance charges зд. оплата
 кредита

service charges плата за
 обслуживание

annual percentage rate
 ставка годового процента

installments взносы
arrangement договорен-
 ность

charge accounts кредиты
 по открытому счету

household mortgage жи-
 лищная ипотека

credit history досье заем-
 щика

capacity способность

credit worthy кредитоспо-
 собный


**pledged as security for the
 loan** заявленное, как
 обеспечение займа

loan credit and sales credit
 ссудный кредит и ком-
 мерческий кредит

consumer loan потребитель-
 ская ссуда

**thrift institutions and
 lending agencies** сберега-
 тельные учреждения и
 кредитные агентства

good credit rating хорошая
 кредитоспособность

 **Задание 5.3.** Give answers to the following questions:

1. What is the convenience of consumer credit?
2. What is included in the finance charge?

3. What is APR?
4. What is credit?
5. What are the best known forms of credit?
6. What are the principal advantages of credit ?
7. What are the disadvantages of credit ?
8. What is the credit history?
9. How do lenders decide whether to give or not to give credits?
10. What are the kinds of credit?
11. What credit cards in Russia do you know?
12. What are the most widely used credit cards abroad?
13. What is necessary to establish a credit?

LESSON 6

Text 1

INFLATION

Inflation is generally defined as a persistent rise in the general price level with no corresponding rise in output, which leads to a corresponding fall in the purchasing power of money.

In this section we shall look briefly at the problems that inflation causes for business and consider whether there are any potential benefits for an enterprise from an inflationary period.

Inflation *varies* considerably in its extent and severity. Hence, the consequences for the business community differ according to circumstances. Mild inflation of a few per cent each year may pose few difficulties for business.

However, hyperinflation, which entails enormously high rates of inflation, can create almost insurmountable problems for the government, business, consumers and workers. In post-war Hungary, the cost of living was published each day and workers were paid daily so as to avoid the value of their earnings falling.

Businesses would have experienced great difficulty in costing and pricing their production while the incentive for people to save would have been removed.

Economists argue at length about the causes of, and «cures» for, inflation. They would, however, recognize that two general types of inflation exist:

- *Demand-pull inflation*
- *Cost-push inflation*

Demand-pull Inflation

Demand-pull inflation occurs when demand for a nation's goods and services outstrips that nation's ability to supply these goods and services. This causes prices to rise generally as a means of limiting demand to the available supply.

An alternative way that we can look at this type of inflation is to say that it occurs when injections exceed withdrawals and the economy is already stretched (i.e. little available labour or factory space) and there is little scope to increase further its level of activity.


Cost-push Inflation

Alternatively, inflation can be of the cost-push variety. This takes place when firms face increasing costs. This could be caused by an increase in wages, the rising costs of imported raw materials and components or companies pushing up prices in order to improve their profit margins.


VOCABULARY

a persistent rise неуклонный, постоянный подъем	may pose few difficulties особых проблем не представляет
with no corresponding rise in output не сопровождающийся подъемом производства	entails enormously high rates of inflation влечет за собой громадный рост инфляции
briefly коротко, кратко	insurmountable неисчислимые, колоссальные
potential benefits потенциальные выгоды	at length и сейчас
varies considerably in its extent and severity бывает разной по длительности и остроте	to pull тянуть
hence следовательно	demand-pull inflation инфляция спроса, вызванная превышением спроса над предложением
mild inflation мягкая, низкая инфляция	


cost-push inflation инфляция издержек, вызванная ростом издержек производства	little available labour мало рабочей силы
to occur происходить	there is little scope мало возможностей
to outstrip обгонять, опережать, превосходить	in order to improve their profit margins чтобы увеличить прибыль (размеры прибыли)
to stretch натягивать, на-прягать	

 **Задание 6.1.** *Give Russian equivalents for the following:*


1. inflation varies considerably in its extent and severity;
2. mild inflation of a few %;
3. rate of inflation;
4. insurmountable problems;
5. demand-pull (cost-push) inflation;
6. the economy is already stretched.

 **Задание 6.2.** *Find the synonyms to the words in italics:*

a persistent rise;
may pose few difficulties;
which entails enormously high rates;
at length, inflation occurs when;
little scope to increase its level of activity;
firms face increasing costs.

 **Задание 6.3.** *Find in the text English equivalents for the following:*

1. повышение (падение) спроса (покупательной способности) и т. д.;
2. гиперинфляция;
3. запросы опережают возможности экономики;
4. предложить товары и услуги;
5. уровень прибыли.

 **Задание 6.4.** *Translate into English:*

Следует отличать инфляцию спроса от инфляции, обусловленной ростом издержек. Суть инфляции спроса иногда объясняют одной фразой: «Слишком много денег охотятся за слишком малым количеством товаров». Теория инфляции, обусловленной ростом издержек, объясняет рост цен такими факторами, которые приводят к увеличению издержек на единицу продукции.

 **Text 2****INFLATION AND BUSINESS**

Inflation can adversely affect business in a number of ways:

1. Accounting and financial problems.

Significant rates of inflation can cause accounting and financial problems for businesses. They may experience difficulty in valuing assets and stocks, for example. Such problems can waste valuable management time and make forecasting, comparisons and financial control more onerous.

2. Falling sales.

Many businesses may experience falling sales during inflationary periods for two broad reasons. Firstly, it may be that saving rises in a time of inflation. We would expect people to spend more of their money when prices are rising to avoid holding an asset (cash), which is falling in value. However, during the mid-1970s, when industrialized nations were experiencing high inflation rates, savings as a proportion of income rose! It is not easy to identify the reason for this, but some economists suggest that people like to hold a relatively high proportion of their assets in a form which can be quickly converted into cash when the future is uncertain.

Whatever the reason, if people save more they spend less and businesses suffer falling sales. The economic model predicts that if savings rose the level of activity in the economy would fall. Clearly, if this happened we would expect businesses to experience difficulty in maintaining their levels of sales.

Businesses may be hit by a reduction in sales during a time of inflation for a second reason. As inflation progresses, it is likely that workers' money wages (that is, wages unadjusted for inflation) will be increased broadly in line with inflation. This may well take a worker into a higher tax bracket and result in a higher percentage of his or her wages being taken as tax. This process, known as fiscal drag, will cause workers to have less money available to spend on firms' goods and services. The poverty trap has a similar impact. As money wages rise, the poor may find that they no longer qualify for state benefits to supplement their incomes and at the same time they begin to pay income tax on their earnings. Again, this leaves less disposable income to spend on the output of firms. Finally, it may be that the wages of many groups are not index-linked and so they rise less quickly than the rate of inflation, causing a reduction in spending power and demand for goods and services.

Once again, the economic model can be used to predict that increases in the level of taxation will increase withdrawals, lowering the level of economic activity and depressing firms' sales.

Not all businesses will suffer equally from declining demand in an inflationary period. Those selling essential items, such as food, may be little affected whilst others supplying less essential goods and services, such as foreign holidays, may be hard hit.

3. High interest rates.

Inflation is often accompanied by high interest rates.

High interest rates tend to discourage investment by businesses as they increase the cost of borrowing funds. Thus, investment may fall. Businesses may also be dissuaded from undertaking investment programmes because of a lack of confidence in the future stability and prosperity of the economy. This fall in investment may be worsened by foreign investment being reduced as they also lose some confidence in the economy's future.

Such a decline in the level of investment can lead to businesses having to retain obsolete, inefficient and expensive means of production and cause a loss of international competitiveness. Finally, a fall in investment can lower the level of economic activity, causing lower sales, output and so on. Thus, to some extent, businesses can influence the economic environment in which they operate.

4. Higher costs.


During a bout of inflation firms will face higher costs for the resources they need to carry on their business. They will have to pay higher wages to their employees to compensate them for rising prices. Supplies of raw materials and fuel will become more expensive as will rents and rates. The inevitable reaction to this is that the firm has to raise its own prices. This will lead to further demands for higher wages as is called the wage-price spiral. Such cost-push inflation may make the goods and services produced by that enterprise internationally less competitive in terms of price. An economy whose relative or comparative rate of inflation is high may find that it is unable to compete in home or foreign markets because its products are expensive. The economic model tells us that a situation of declining exports and increasing imports will lower the level of activity in the economy with all the consequent side-effects.

VOCABULARY


- impact** удар, влияние, воздействие
- waste valuable management time** может уходить много драгоценного времени
- make more onerous** сделать более затруднительным
- to avoid holding an asset** чтобы избавиться от наличности
- whatever the reason** какова бы ни была причина
- businesses may be hit by** фирмы (предприятия) могут пострадать от...
- wages unadjusted for inflation** заработная плата без учета уровня инфляции
- a higher tax bracket** следующая категория при группировке налогоплательщиков по доходу
- fiscal drag** финансовый тормоз экономического роста с помощью налоговых изъятий
- they no longer qualify for** они больше не подпадают под...
- to supplement their incomes** что является дополнением к их доходу
- this leaves less disposable income** из-за этого остается меньше средств
- index-linked** индексированный
- a reduction in spending power** снижение покупательной способности
- declining demand** падение спроса
- tend to discourage investment** не способствуют инвестированию
- may also be dissuaded from** могут также отказаться от...
- a lack of confidence** недостаток (отсутствие) уверенности
- this fall in investment may be worsened by foreign investment being reduced** это падение уровня инвестирования может стать еще сильнее, если сократятся иностранные инвестиции
- can lead to businesses having to retain** может привести к тому, что фирмам (предприятиям) придется сохранить
- a bout (period, spell) of inflation** период инфляции
- less competitive in terms of price** менее конкурентоспособный в смысле цены

 **Задание 6.5.** Find Russian equivalents to the following word combinations:

1. difficulty in valuing assets and stocks;
2. to avoid holding an asset;
3. wages unadjusted for inflation;
4. increased in line with inflation;
5. this may well take a worker into a higher tax bracket;
6. fiscal drag;
7. poverty trap;
8. wages are not index-linked;
9. spending power;
10. the cost of borrowing funds;
11. the wage-price spiral;
12. in terms of price.


 **Задание 6.6.** Find synonyms for the words in italics:

broad reasons;
 to *identify* the reason for this;
 businesses may be *hit* by a *reduction* in sales;
 wages *unadjusted* for inflation;
 will increase *withdrawals* *depressing* firms' sales;
 may be *dissuaded* from *undertaking* ...

 **Задание 6.7.** Find in the text English equivalents for the following:

1. делать что-либо затруднительным
2. периоды инфляции
3. назвать причину чего-либо
4. превратить в наличные
5. распространяться на кого-либо (о государственных льготах)
6. доход, остающийся после уплаты налогов

7. товары первой необходимости
8. компенсировать кому-либо что-либо

 Задание 6.8. *Translate into English:*

Концепция инфляции спроса предполагает, что если экономика стремится к высокому уровню производства и занятости, то умеренная инфляция необходима. Однако, сторонники концепции инфляции издержек утверждают, что умеренная инфляция, которая может сначала сопутствовать оживлению экономики, потом, нарастая как снежный ком, превратится в более жесткую гиперинфляцию (чрезвычайно быстрые темпы роста инфляции, которая оказывает разрушительное действие на объем национального производства и занятость).

LESSON 7

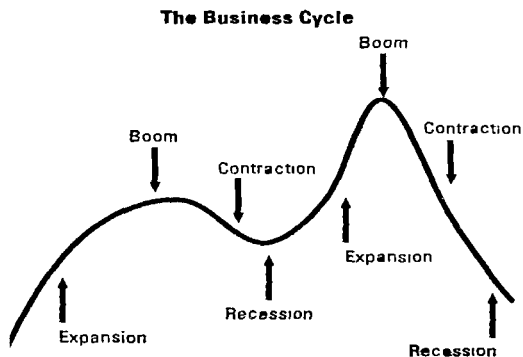
Text 1

ECONOMIC STABILITY AND BUSINESS CYCLES

When people speak of business cycles, they think of things like «prosperity» and «depression.» «Prosperity» is ordinarily used to describe an extended period of high employment, an improved standard of living and stable prices.

By contrast, «depression» refers to an extended period of general underemployment of our economic resources. Factories are idle, millions of workers are unable to find jobs, and the rate of business failure is high. The worst depression in American history, now known as the Great Depression, lasted from 1930 to 1940. There were, for example, 13 million people, about one of every four workers, unemployed in 1933. That same year businesses failed at a record rate, and numbers of people lost their savings because more than 4,000 privately owned banks closed permanently.

More common, however, are much shorter and less dramatic changes in business activity. These changes can be described in a number of different ways, but for convenience they are called the periods of boom, contraction, recession and expansion. The way to smooth out economic fluctuations was not found yet.



Boom

At the peak of the business cycle the economy is booming. Business is producing at or near capacity, and those looking for work can generally find jobs. During peak times, business investment and consumer spending are at very high levels. But because the economy is at or near full employment and the demand for goods and services is increasing, prices are also increasing. This sets the stage for the next phase of the business cycle.

Contraction

For any number of reasons, consumers and businesses begin to reduce their spending levels. Businesses may lay off workers, reduce their purchases of raw materials and reduce production because they have built up excess inventories. Some businesses may decide to continue to use old factories and equipment rather than investing in new machines and buildings. Some businesses and consumers will even reduce spending because economists predict that business will be slowing down in the next few months. Whatever the reason, reductions in business and consumer spending mark the beginning of a *contraction* in the business cycle.

With the reduction in spending, other business firms begin to cut back their activities. Their production is reduced and more workers are laid off. Because of the layoffs, workers, who are also consumers, spend less. This leads to still more reductions in production and additional worker layoffs.

Recession

With factories operating at less than capacity and unemployment at very high levels, total output of goods and services enters a long-term decline. This is the bottom phase of the business cycle, or as economists describe it, the period of *recession*.

Times are hard during recessions. Unemployment is very high, jobs are difficult to find and many businesses fail. A very severe and long-lasting recession is called a *depression*.

Expansion

After a period of recession the economy eventually begins to recover, entering the *expansion* phase of the business cycle. During a period of expansion the conditions are about to improve, business begins to expand its activities. Unemployment declines as additional workers are hired. This, in turn, leads to higher levels of consumer spending and still further *expansion* of employment, output and consumption.

WHAT CAUSES BUSINESS CYCLES?

For many years economists struggled to find a theory that would explain all business cycles.

In explaining business cycle fluctuations, today's economists often distinguish between *external* and *internal* events. External events are those outside the economic system that explain fluctuations in the business

cycle. Internal events are those occurring within the economy itself.

External Causes

External factors affect the economy because of *population changes, inventions and innovations, and other significant political and social events.*

Population changes. Changes in population affect the demand for goods and services. Population increases can lead to increased production and employment levels that trigger expansion and boom. Population decreases are likely to have the opposite effect.

Inventions and innovations. Major changes in technology, such as the development of the automobile, the airplane and the computer, have led to bursts of business activity and investment. This, in turn, was followed by increased employment opportunities and a period of expansion and boom.

Internal causes

Internal causes of fluctuations are factors within the economy likely to start an expansion or contraction of the business cycle. Three of these internal factors have to do with *consumption, business investment, and government activity.*

Consumption

Business firms try to provide consumers with the goods and services they want. When consumer spending is on the increase, business firms hire additional help and increase their level of production. As production, employment and sales increase, the business cycle enters a period of expansion and boom. When consumer spending decreases, the opposite occurs. Production is reduced, workers are laid off, and the economy enters a period of contraction and recession.

Business investment

Investment in capital goods like plant, tools and equipment, creates additional jobs, thereby increasing consumer purchasing power. The increase in spending generated by the initial increase in investment leads to still further investment, consumption and total production. When investment decreases, the opposite occurs and the economy enters a period of contraction.

Government activity

Governmental policies can give the business cycle an upward or downward nudge. Government does this in two ways. One is through the use of its power to tax and spend. The other is by regulating the supply of money and credit in circulation. Economists describe government's ability to tax and spend as its *fiscal* powers, and its ability to regulate the supply of money and credit as its *monetary* powers.

VOCABULARY

prosperity процветание	contraction сокращение
depression депрессия	laid off временно уволенный
business failure банкротство	layoffs временные увольнения
economic fluctuations экономические колебания	long-term decline долгосрочное снижение
spending levels уровни расходов	recession спад
excess inventories избыток материальных запасов	eventually в конечном счете
	to recover оправляться
	expansion расширение

Задание 7.1. Answer the questions:

1. What happens during each of the phases of the business cycle?
2. How do we measure business cycles?
3. How does the government try to stabilize the ups and downs of the economy?

 Text 2

IMPORT – EXPORT

International trade is the exchange of goods and services between different countries. Depending on what a country produces and needs, it can export (sell goods to another country) and import (buy goods from another country). Governments can control international trade. The most common measures are tariffs (or duties) and quotas. A tariff is a tax on imported goods, and a quota is the maximum quantity of a product allowed into a country during a certain period of time. These measures are protectionist as they raise the price of imported goods to «protect» domestically produced goods.

International organisations such as the WTO (World Trade Organisation) and EFTA (European Free Trade Association) regulate tariffs and reduce trade restrictions between member countries.

Companies can choose from various methods to establish their products in a foreign market. One option is to start by working with local experts such as sole agents or multi-distributors, who have a specialist knowledge of the market and sell on behalf of the company. This often leads to the company opening a local branch or sales office. Another option is to sell, or give permission to use, patents and licences for their products. Companies may wish to start by manufacturing in the export market, in which case they can either set up a local subsidiary or a joint venture with a local partner.

VOCABULARY

tariffs тарифы	sole agents отдельные агенты
duties пошлины	multi-distributors дистрибуторы
quotas квоты	joint venture совместное предприятие, СП
protectionist протекционистские	
local subsidiary филиал	

 **Задание 7.2.** Answer the questions:

1. What is international trade?
2. What is export?
3. What is import?
4. What are the measures to control international trade?
5. What is a tariff?
6. What is a quota?
7. What are the methods to establish products in a foreign market?

Text 3

MARKETING MANAGEMENT

Management is a function of planning, organizing, coordinating, directing and controlling. Any managerial system, at any managerial level, is characterized in terms of these general functions.

Management is a variety of specific activities. Marketing management refers to a broad concept covering organization of production and sales of products, which is based on consumer requirements research. All companies try to look beyond their present situation and develop a long-term strategy to meet changing conditions in their industry. Marketing management, therefore, consists of evaluating market opportunities, selecting markets, developing market strategies, planning marketing tactics and controlling marketing results.


Strategic planning includes defining the company's long-term objectives as well as specific objectives, such as sales volume, market share, profitability and innovation, and deciding on financial, material and other resources necessary to achieve those objectives.

In problems of market selection and product planning one of the key concepts is that of the Product Life Cycle. That products pass through various stages between life

and death (introduction – growth – maturity – decline) is hard to deny. Equally accepted is the understanding that a company should have a mix of products with representation in each of these stages. Companies can make far more effective marketing decisions if they take time to find out where each of their products stands in its life cycle.

However, the concept of the product life cycle seems frequently forgotten in marketing planning, which leads to wrong decision-making. This may well be seen in the following story.

A supplier of some light industrial equipment felt that the decline in the sales of his major product was due to the fact that it was not receiving the sales support it deserved. In order to give extra sales support to this problem case, a special advertising campaign was run. This required cutting into marketing budgets of several promising products that were still in their «young» growth phase. In fact, the major product has long since passed the zenith of its potential sales, and no amount of additional sales support could have extended its growth. This became quite clear in the end-of-year sales results which showed no improvement. The promising products, however, went into gradual sales decline. In short, management has failed to consider each product's position in its life cycle.

 **Задание 7.3.** *Answer the questions:*

1. What is strategic planning?
2. Why is the Product Life Cycle considered one of the key concepts in marketing?
3. What is marketing management?

 Text 4

ADVERTISING

Advertising is one of the largest industries. In 1986, for example, American business spent over \$100 billion to advertise its products: Since consumers are the principal targets of these sales campaigns, we ought to know something about the services advertisers perform, as well as some of the techniques they use.

The Benefits of Advertising

Advertising benefits consumers and the economy in a number of ways:

- It provides us with information about prices, recent improvements in certain goods and services, and the availability of new ones.

- Advertising often results in lower prices. Large-scale production can reduce costs. By creating mass markets, advertising enables producers to reduce the costs of their products and pass those savings on to the consuming public.

- Advertising stimulates competition, and competition benefits us all. Advertising by one firm puts pressure on others within the industry to do at least as well to attract the consumer's money.

- Advertising pays most of the cost of magazines and newspapers, and all of the cost of commercial radio and TV.

Advertising helps the economy as a whole by stimulating consumer demand. Consumer spending has a direct effect on the health of the economy. Advertising helps to keep that spending at healthy levels.

The Price We Pay for Advertising.

Not everyone agrees that advertising benefits the economy. Critics list the following points of its *disadvantages*:

- The information contained in advertising does not inform and often misleads the consumer.
- Because it costs money to advertise, this cost adds to the price consumers pay.
- Consumers are tempted to spend money for products they do not really need.
- Radio and TV are not really free because the cost of advertising on them is also passed on to the consumer.

Advertising Strategies

Three strategies that have been especially popular with advertisers can be classified as *slogans*, *rational appeals*, and *emotional appeals*.

Slogans. Advertisers often use slogans that sound great but mean little or nothing. Yet, advertisers seem to feel that such slogans, when repeated often enough, do increase sales.

Rational Appeals. Rational appeals rely upon logic or reason to convince the consumer to buy a product.

«*Our Cookies Contain 25% Fewer Calories Than the Next Leading Brand.*» This is an example of an advertisement that appeals to reason. Ads for health foods, pain relievers and home remedies tend to use this technique.


Emotional Appeals. Emotional appeals rely upon the use of psychology. The following is a sampling of such strategies:

- Testimonials. These are the advertisements in which famous people claim they use and enjoy a particular product. Ads for sports equipment frequently rely on this strategy.
- The Bandwagon. The bandwagon appeal implies that *everybody* is using a particular product, and that if you don't, you will be left out. The term derives from the practice, during nineteenth-century circus or political

parades, of jumping on or following behind the wagon carrying the band. Soft drink and automobile ads use this appeal.

- **Popularity.** Some advertisements suggest that simply by using the advertised product you will be popular or find romance. Toothpaste ads showing moments of romance between handsome young men and women are typical of these kinds of campaigns.

Every day you as a consumer are the object of the marketing efforts of American and foreign companies that want your business. The advertising on television and radio and in the newspaper flyers that come to your house are just some of the ways that sales promotions reach you. Can you think of other ways? Most of these marketing strategies represent honest efforts to convince you to buy a product or service. Nevertheless, you are responsible for evaluating advertising directed at you, separating fact from emotion, and deciding whether or not to buy the product.

 **Задание 7.4.** *Answer the questions:*

1. In what way do consumers and the economy benefit from advertising?
2. What are the disadvantages of advertising?
3. What are the methods of advertising?
4. Does advertising influence your personal decisions to buy or not to buy?
5. What is your attitude to TV advertising?
6. What kinds of ads do you like?

Appendix A

■ Texts for additional reading

THE FIRST MODERN ECONOMISTS

The Mercantilists

Between the 16th and 18th centuries, the major countries of Europe believed in the economic theory of mercantilism. Mercantilists argued that nations should behave as if they were merchants competing with one another for profit. Accordingly, governments should support industry by enacting laws designed to keep labor and other production costs low, and exports (sales to foreign countries) high. In this way the nation could achieve what was called a favorable balance of trade.

«Favorable balance of trade» described a situation in which exports exceeded imports. The excess, which was like profits to a merchant, would result in an increase in the nation's supply of gold or silver. And, as most people agreed in those days, the true measure of a nation's wealth was its hoard of gold or silver.

To achieve favorable trade balances, the major European powers sought to acquire colonies. Colonies, it was thought, could provide the «mother country» with cheap labor, raw materials and a market for its manufactured goods. In an effort to attain these goals in their American colonies, the British, for example, enacted the *Navigation Acts*.

The Navigation Acts protected British industry by prohibiting the colonies from producing certain goods like hats, woolen products and wrought iron. The laws

also listed certain «enumerated articles» (mostly raw materials) which could not be sold to buyers in countries other than England. Resentment towards the Navigation Acts was so great that they are regarded as one of the principal causes of the Revolutionary War.

Today there are people who still argue that our country should promote a «favorable balance of trade,» that the federal government should do what it can to restrict imports and promote exports. For that reason, they are often described as *neo-mercantilists* or «new» mercantilists.

The Physiocrats

For one group of 18th-century French philosophers and economists, the suggestion that nations should go out of their way to protect business and industry made no sense at all. These were the *physiocrats*. The physiocrats argued that the products of agriculture and other natural resources were the true source of wealth. Since these were God-given, it made little sense for government to go out of its way to help business and industry increase profits. For similar reasons, they opposed government efforts to promote a «favorable balance of trade.» In other words, since real wealth came from the land, it followed that the wisest thing government could do would be to keep its hands off business and let nature take its course. This idea was expressed in the slogan «*laissez faire*,» (let people do as they choose).

Interestingly, the 200-year-old argument between those favoring regulation of the economy and those supporting *laissez faire* is still with us. Whether the problem involves individuals (like those living in poverty and unemployment) or institutions (such as a rising tide of business or bank failures), there are those who find the solution in government intervention, and others who favor

«*laissez faire*,» letting natural economic forces take their course.

ADAM SMITH AND THE WEALTH OF NATIONS

Seventeen seventy-six, the year that we associate with the signing of the Declaration of Independence, also marked the publication in England of one of the most influential books of our time, *The Wealth of Nations*. Written by Adam Smith, it earned the author the title «The father of economics.»

Smith objected to the principal economic beliefs of his day. He differed with the physiocrats who argued that land was the only source of wealth. He also disagreed with the mercantilists who measured the wealth of a nation by its money supply, and who called for government regulation of the economy in order to promote a «favorable balance of trade.»

In Smith's view, a nation's wealth was dependent upon production, not agriculture alone. How much it produced, he believed, depended upon how well it combined labor and the other factors of production. The more efficient the combination, the greater the output, and the greater the nation's wealth.

The heart of Smith's economic philosophy was his belief that the economy would work best if left to function on its own without government regulation. In those circumstances, self-interest would lead business firms to produce only those products that consumers wanted, and to produce them at the lowest possible cost. They would do this, not as a means of benefitting society, but in an effort to outperform their competitors and gain the greatest profit. But all this self-interest would benefit society as a whole by providing it with more and better goods and

services, at the lowest prices. To explain why all society benefits when the economy is free of regulation, Smith used the metaphor of the «invisible hand»:

«Every individual is continually exerting himself to find the most advantageous employment for whatever capital he can command. It is his own advantage, and not that of society, which he has in mind, . . . but he is in this, as in many other cases, led by an invisible hand to promote an end which was no part of his intention, for the pursuit of his own advantage necessarily leads him to prefer that employment which is most advantageous to society.»

The «invisible hand» was Smith's name for the economic forces that we today would call *supply and demand*, or the *marketplace*. He sharply disagreed with the mercantilists who, in their quest for a «favorable balance of trade,» called for regulation of the economy.

Instead, Smith agreed with the physiocrats and their policy of «laissez-faire,» letting individuals and businesses function without interference from government regulation or private monopolies. In that way, the «invisible hand» would be free to guide the economy and maximize production.

The Wealth of Nations goes on to describe the principal elements of the economic system. In a famous section, Smith turned to the pin industry to demonstrate how the division of labor and the use of machinery increased output.

«One man draws out the wire, another straightens it, a third cuts it, a fourth points it, a fifth grinds it at the top for receiving the head; to make the head requires two or three distinct operations...»

Although modern technology has improved the methods by which pins are produced, the principles pertaining to the division of labor remain unchanged.

Similarly, other sections dealing with the factors of

production, money and international trade are as meaningful today as when they were first written.

DAVID RICARDO (1772–1823)

Classical Champion of Free Trade

David Ricardo is one of history's most influential economists.

Born in England, Ricardo made a fortune on the London Stock Exchange. This wealth gave him the time to write and to serve in Parliament's House of Commons. His most famous work, *Principles of Political Economy and Taxation* (1817), marked him as the greatest spokesman for classical economics since Adam Smith.

Ricardo is especially famous in international economics for demonstrating the advantages of *free trade*. Free trade is a policy in which tariffs and other barriers to trade between nations are removed. To prove his point, Ricardo developed a concept we now call the *principle of comparative advantage*. Comparative advantage enabled him to demonstrate that one nation might profitably import goods from another *even though the importing country could produce that item for less than the exporter*.

Ricardo's explanation of comparative advantage went as follows:

Portugal and England, both of whom produce wine and cloth, are considering the advantages of exchanging those products with one another.

Let's assume that:

- x barrels of wine are equal to (and therefore trade evenly for) y yards of cloth.

- In Portugal 80 workers can produce x barrels of wine in a year. It takes 120 English workers to produce that many barrels.

- 90 Portuguese workers can produce y yards of cloth in a year. It takes 100 English workers to produce y yards of cloth.

We can see, Ricardo continued, that even though Portugal can produce both wine and cloth more efficiently than England, it pays them to specialize in the production of wine and import English cloth. This is so because by trading with England, Portugal can obtain as much cloth for 80 worker-years as it would take 90 worker-years to produce themselves.

England will also benefit. By specializing in cloth, it will be able to obtain wine in exchange for 100 worker-years of labor rather than 120.

As a member of Parliament, Ricardo pressed the government to abandon its traditional policy of protection. Though he did not live to achieve that goal, his efforts bore fruit in the 1840s when England became the first industrial power to adopt a policy of free trade. There followed 70 years of economic growth during which the nation became the world's wealthiest industrial power.

ALFRED MARSHALL (1842–1924)

Price Theory Pioneer

His textbook *Principles of Economics* (1890), and the doctrines that it discussed, became the standard for the teaching of that subject until well into the 1940's. Marshall spent most of his adult life as a professor of economics at Cambridge University. His most famous pupil, John Maynard Keynes, described Marshall as «the greatest economist of the 19th century.» Interestingly, Keynes went on to become the most influential economist of the 20th century.

Marshall is best known for the order that he made out of the theories of the earlier «classical economists» like

Adam Smith, David Ricardo and John Stuart Mill. («Classical» is the name given by modern economists to the theories of those whose views were most widely held during the 75 years following the publication of *The Wealth of Nations*.) Despite the passage of 100 years since the publication of his *Principles*, his analysis of market forces is still relied upon to explain economic events.

In Marshall's world, economic events could be explained in terms of the equilibrium market price resulting from the interaction of supply and demand. One of Marshall's lasting contributions was differentiating between supply and demand in the short run and the long run. Comparing the two forces to the blades of a scissors, he argued that neither could function without the other. But, just as (depending on how the scissors is held) one blade can be more active than the other, so supply and demand vary in importance in the long and short run. In the short run, the quantity of available goods is more or less fixed (because crops have been planted, production schedules set, etc.). Therefore it is the demand for those items that will be most influential in determining their price. In the long run, he went on, the opposite is true. Both farmers and businesses can add to or reduce their production facilities as the needs dictate. In that way the supply side of the market becomes most influential in determining price.

JOHN MAYNARD KEYNES (1883–1946)

Theorist Who Brought Economics into the Twentieth Century

John Maynard Keynes stands with Adam Smith and Karl Marx as one of the world's most influential economists. The son of a noted British economist, Keynes amassed a fortune through speculation in stocks and commodities. He served the British government as a

financial adviser and treasury official through most of his adult life and was a key participant in the negotiations following both World Wars I and II.

Although Adam Smith had written *The Wealth of Nations* about the time of the American Revolution, by the 1930's little had changed in the thinking of mainstream economists. Most would have agreed with Smith, that the best thing government could do to help the economy would be to keep its hands off. They reasoned that as long as the economy was free to operate without interference, the forces of supply and demand would come into balance. Then, with total supply and demand in *equilibrium*, everyone looking for work could find a job at the prevailing wage, and every firm could sell its products at the market price.

But the 1930's was the period of the Great Depression. Despite the assurances of the classical economists, the fact was that unemployment and business failure had reached record proportions in the United States and the rest of the industrialized world. It was at this time (1936) that Keynes' *General Theory of Employment, Interest, and Money* was published. The *General Theory* transformed economic thinking in the 20th century, much the way that *The Wealth of Nations* had in the 18th.

Keynes demonstrated that it was possible for total supply and demand to be at equilibrium at a point well under full employment. What is more, Keynes demonstrated that unemployment could persist indefinitely, unless someone stepped in to increase total demand.

The «someone» Keynes had in mind was government. He reasoned that if, for example, government spent money on public works, the income received by formerly idle workers would lead to increased demand, a resurgence of business activity and the restoration of full employment.

The suggestion that government abandon *laissez faire* in favor of an active role in economic stabilization was regarded as revolutionary in the 1930's. Since then, however, the ideas advanced by the «Keynesian Revolution» have become part of conventional wisdom. Now, whenever a nation appears to be entering into a period of recession or inflation, economists and others immediately think of steps the government might take to reverse the trend.

THOMAS ROBERT MALTHUS (1766–1834)

Prophet of the «Dismal Science»

Standards of living in many developing nations continue to decline because the growth in population is greater than economic growth. If world economic growth continues to average about two percent annually, nearly half the world's people will live in countries where population growth exceeds economic growth.

This was foretold by an 18th-century English economist, Thomas Malthus. In his *Essay on Population* (1798) Malthus warned of the dire consequences of uncontrolled population growth. His argument was direct and simple. While food supplies can be increased through the addition of land and labor, the rate of growth is in an *arithmetic* progression (2, 4, 6, 8, 10 and so on). But population growth expands in a *geometric* progression (2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64 and so on).

Given the difference between the rate of population growth and that of food production, Malthus concludes that a large portion of humanity was doomed to a life of misery. Worse yet, as the *arithmetically* increasing food production fell short of satisfying the *geometrically* increasing population, malnutrition and disease would

take their toll until the rising death rate restored the balance between food and population.

Other than urging the poor to have fewer children, there was nothing that society could do to reduce starvation or suffering, Malthus thought. For that reason, he opposed legislation to provide relief and housing for those living in poverty. In his view, such aid would simply encourage the poor to have more children and worsen their lot. It is little wonder that after reading the *Essay on Population*, Thomas Carlyle, a contemporary British writer, called economics the «dismal [depressing] science.»

Since Malthus's day several factors have prevented the fulfillment of his prophecies. The most visible of these has been the enormous increase in food production, on the one hand, and declining birthrates in the industrialized nations on the other. Food production increased far beyond anything he could have foreseen, owing to scientific and technical advances in farming. Meanwhile, declining birthrates have brought several European countries near *zero population growth*.

Critics of Malthusian theory argue that the focus on population misses the main causes of hunger and starvation. The fact is that the agricultural nations grow enough to feed themselves *and* the rest of the world. However, not enough food reaches those in need because poor nations do not have the international currency with which to purchase it from world suppliers.

Thomas Malthus, a controversial figure in his own time, remains one today. To some he was a great prophet whose theories are still relevant. To others, his opinions are as shortsighted and inappropriate today as they were nearly two hundred years ago.

IRVING FISHER (1867-1947)

Pioneer In Monetary Theory

Irving Fisher spent most of his adult life as a professor of economics at Yale University. An accomplished mathematician, he used those skills to explain many of his theories. In his best known formulation, the *equation of exchange*, Professor Fisher showed the relationship between the quantity of money in circulation and the level of prices.

The equation of exchange is stated as follows:

$MV = PQ$, where:

$M =$ *money supply*

$V =$ *velocity of circulation*

$P =$ *average price of goods and services*

$Q =$ *quantity of units sold*

Simply stated, the equation of exchange tells us that total spending is equal to the total value of the goods and services produced by the economy. Let's see why. M is the total amount of money in circulation, and V is its *velocity*. Velocity is simply the number of times that money turns over in a year. In other words, the amount of money in circulation, multiplied by the number of times it is spent (MV) is equal to the total amount of money spent by the economy in the course of the year. To illustrate, let's suppose that each student in your class produced a product for sale, and that the selling price of each item is \$1. Your teacher buys the product from the student sitting in the first row, first seat. That student uses the dollar to buy the product from the student in the second seat.

The process continues around the room as each student uses the dollar from the preceding student to buy the product of the next student. Assuming that there are 30 class members (including the teacher), 30 items will be sold. One dollar bill will be exchanged 30 times. Applying

the equation of exchange, the total amount of money in circulation will be \$30 because:

$$M = \$1; V = 30; \text{ and } MV = \$1 \times 30 = \$30.$$

The equation of exchange helps to explain why prices (and therefore the value of money) fluctuate. Since $MV = PQ$, it follows that when V and Q are constant, any change in the money supply will directly affect prices. In other words, when the money supply increases, so will prices, and vice versa. We can also see that increases in the money supply will not result in price increases if the output of goods and services is increased at the same or a faster rate.

KARL MARX (1818-1883)

Prophet of Socialism and Communism

For more than half of Europe and a third of the world's population, history's greatest economist was Karl Marx. Born in Germany, Marx's revolutionary activities got him into trouble with the authorities, and from 1842 until his death in 1883 he lived his life in exile.

In 1849, Marx moved to London, England, where he studied, wrote, and produced his greatest work "*Capital*".

Marx's single-minded dedication to his studies made it all but impossible for him to earn a living. Were it not for the financial help he received from his friend Frederick Engels, a wealthy textile manufacturer from Manchester, England, he and his family might have starved to death. As it was, they lived a life of poverty.

In 1845, the League of the Just (later to change its name to the Communist League) asked Marx and Engels to prepare a statement of beliefs. They wrote *The Communist Manifesto*. The *Manifesto*, which contains some of the most memorable lines of revolutionary literature, concludes with:

«... Let the ruling classes tremble at a Communistic revolution. The proletarians [workers] have nothing to lose but their chains. They have a world to win. Working men of all countries unite!»

The Economic Theories of Karl Marx

It is not possible to summarize briefly everything that Karl Marx had to say about the world in which he lived. However, the following paragraphs describe some of his more important theories.

The economic interpretation of history. In Marx's view, the course of history has been determined almost solely by economic forces. Forget about things like great men and women, religion, patriotism, and the like. Look instead, he said, at the economic events of the time to find the real reasons why people and states behaved the way they did.

He also asserted that history has been a series of struggles between economic classes. For example, in Ancient Rome the landed aristocracy struggled for power with small farmers and city workers. In medieval times, guildmasters and journeymen, nobles and serfs struggled with one another for economic supremacy. Similarly, the French Revolution could be explained in terms of a struggle between merchant classes and the agrarian (agricultural) aristocracy.

The exploitation of labor. According to Marx, goods and services had value because of the efforts of laborers. But according to the economic theory of the day, workers were only paid enough to enable them to stay alive. Whatever was left over (*profits*) was pocketed by the factory owner—the capitalist. Profits, therefore, represented *surplus value* which should belong to those who created it: the workers.

The inevitability of capitalism's collapse. Under this

system, the rich would get richer and the poor, poorer. Because workers were underpaid, Marx went on, they would be unable to buy the goods and services they produced. Eventually, the system's excesses would lead to the final class struggle. In this, workers would overthrow the capitalists who had been exploiting them. In the new order that would follow, Marx concluded, class struggle would no longer be necessary, and the state could simply «wither away.» Each worker would perform «according to his ability» and be rewarded «according to his needs.»

Appendix B

Frequently used business abbreviations

A

A1 первый класс, перwokлассный

AA (Advertising Association) рекламная ассоциация

AAA перwokлассные ценные бумаги (условное обозначение)

AAR (against all risks) против всех рисков (в страховании)

AC 1. (average costs) средние издержки, 2. (account current) текущий банковский счет (в Англии), открытый счет (в США), 3. (assistant cashier) помощник кассира

a/c или **ACC** (account) счет

acc 1. (acceptance) акцепт, тратта, 2. (accepted) принятый, 3. (accidental) случайный

ACE (active corps of executives) корпус действующих должностных лиц

AD (aggregate demand) совокупный спрос

ad 1. (advertisement) рекламное объявление, 2. (administration) администрация, 3. (advice) извещение, авизо

a/d (after date) от сего числа

ADP (automatic data processing) автоматическая обработка данных

adt (advertisement) рекламное объявление

Adv. (advance) кредит

AFC (average fixed costs) средние постоянные издержки

- AFL** (American Federation of Labor) Американская федерация труда (АФТ)
- AGM** (annual general meeting) ежегодное общее собрание акционеров
- agt** (agreement) соглашение, договор
- AMA** (American Management Association) Американская ассоциация по совершенствованию методов управления
- AMEX** (American Stock Exchange) Американская фондовая биржа
- amt** (amount) сумма, количество
- A.O.** (account of) за счет кого-л.
- AOB** (any other business) «Разное» в повестке дня
- APC** (average propensity to consume) средняя доля потребления в доходе
- APR** (annual percentage rate)-процентная ставка в годовом исчислении-
- APS** (average propensity to save) средняя доля сбережений в доходе
- AR 1.** (average revenue) средний доход,
2. (annual returns) отчетные данные, итоги за год
- ARR** (accounting rate of return) расчетная норма прибыли
- arrgt** (arrangement) соглашение, договоренность
- AS** (aggregate supply) совокупное предложение
- a/s** (after sight)после предъявления
- asap** (as soon as possible) как можно быстрее, срочно
- AVC** (average variable costs) средние переменные издержки
- AW** (airway) авиалиния
- A/W** (actual weight) фактическая масса

B

- b/d** (barrels per day) баррелей в день
- BIS** (Bank for International Settlements) Банк международных расчетов
- bal** (balance) баланс, сальдо

b.b. 1. (bank book) банковская книжка, 2. (bear bonds) предъявительские облигации, 3. (bill book) вексельная книга

bn (billion) миллиард

BOP (balance of payments) платежный баланс

BOT (balance of trade) торговый баланс

BP 1. (bill of parcels) фактура, накладная, 2. (bills payable) векселя к уплате

Br. 1. (branch) отрасль, отделение, 2. (British) британский

Bu (bureau) бюро, отдел, управление

bus (business) бизнес, дело, предпринимательство

С

CC (costs consumption) потребительские расходы

C.A. или **C/A** (current account) текущий счет

CA 1. (chartered accountant) дипломированный бухгалтер, ревизор, 2. (Consumers' Association) ассоциация потребителей, 3. (chief accountant) главный бухгалтер

CAD I. (cash against documents) наличные против документов, 2. (computer-aided design) автоматизированное проектирование

C.A.F. (cost and freight) стоимость и фрахт

CAM (computer-aided manufacturing)

автоматизированное производство

CAR (compound annual return) сложные поступления за год

CAT (computer-assisted trading) автоматизированная система торговли

C.B.D. (cash before delivery) оплата наличными до доставки товара

C.B.D. (central business district) центральный деловой район

cc (copies) копии (надпись на письме)

CCA (current-cost-accounting) учет текущей стоимости

C.D. (cash discount) скидка при сделке за наличные

- C/D** (certificate of deposit) депозитный сертификат
- CEC** (Common European Currency) единая европейская валюта
- CEO** (*амер.* chief executive officer) президент; управляющий высшего ранга
- CET** (Common External Tariff) Единый внешний тариф
- CGT** (capital-gains tax) налог на реализованный прирост рыночной стоимости капитала
- С.Н.1.** (clearing house) расчетная палата, 2. (custom house) таможня
- CHIPS** (Clearing House Inter-Bank Payments System) Система межбанковских электронных клиринговых расчетов («Чипс»)
- CIA** (cash in advance) оплата наличными вперед, аванс
- C.I.F.** (cost, insurance, freight) стоимость, страхование, фрахт
- CIO** (Congress of Industrial Organizations) Конгресс производственных профсоюзов, КПП
- CIS** (Commonwealth of Independent States) Содружество независимых государств
- CMV** (current market value) текущая рыночная стоимость
- CNAR** (compound net annual rate) сложная чистая годовая ставка
- C/O** (care of) на адресе письма лицу, которое живет там временно
- Co** (company) компания
- CO** (cash order) приказ об оплате наличными
- COD** или **C.O.D.** (cash on delivery) оплата наличными в момент поставки, наложенный платеж
- COLA** (cost-of-living-adjustment) поправка на рост стоимости жизни, надбавка на дороговизну
- COMEX** (Commodity Exchange) Нью-Йоркская товарная биржа
- cont.** или **cont'd** (continued) продолжение следует
- corp(n)** (corporation) корпорация
- C.P.** (carriage paid) провоз оплачен

- CPAF** (cost-plus-award-fee) оплата издержек производства плюс периодические премии
- c.p.d.** (Charterers pay dues) пошлины подлежат оплате фрахтователем
- CPFF** (cost-plus-fixed-fee) оплата издержек плюс твердая прибыль
- CPI** (consumer price index) индекс потребительских цен
- CPM** (critical-path method) метод критического пути
- CPP** (current purchasing power) текущая покупательная способность
- c.r.** (current rate) текущая ставка; курс дня, существующий тариф
- CRC** (cost-reimbursement contract) контракт с возмещением издержек
- CS** (capital stock) акция, акции, акционерный капитал (convertible) обратимый, конвертируемый
- C.W.O., c.w.o.** (cash with order) наличный расчет при выдаче заказа

D

- D/A 1.** (documents against acceptance) документы против акцепта, **2.** (deposit account) депозитный счет, **3.** (documents attached) документы прилагаются
- DAF** (delivery at frontier) поставка (товара) на границе
- DBA, d.b.a.** (doing business as...) действующий как...
- DBMS** (database management system) система управления базами данных
- dc** (direct costs) прямые издержки
- DCF** (discounted cash flow) дисконтированные будущие наличные поступления
- dct** (document) документ
- dd.** **1.** (dated) датированный, **2.** (delivered) доставленный
- DC** (demand curve) кривая спроса
- dept** или **dep** (department) отдел, министерство
- DI** (disposable income) наличный / располагаемый доход
- D.M.** (decision maker) лицо, принимающее решение

- DMU** (decision-making unit) хозяйственная единица с правом принятия решений
- DMUC** (decision making under certainty) принятие решения в условиях определенности
- DMUR** (decision making under risk) принятие решения в условиях риска
- DMUU** (decision making under uncertainty) принятие решения в условиях неопределенности
- DOC** (direct operating cost(s)) прямые эксплуатационные расходы
- DP** (data processing) обработка данных
- D/P 1.** (documents against presentation) документы против предъявления, **2.** (documents against payment) документы против оплаты
- DPI** (disposable personal income) располагаемый личный доход
- DPS** (data processing system) система обработки данных
- DS** (directing staff) руководящий персонал
- DSR** (debt service ratio) коэффициент обслуживания долга

E

- E & OE** (errors and omissions excepted) ошибки и пропуски исключены (надпись на бланках счетов-фактур)
- EBB** (extra best best) самого высшего качества
- EBIT** (earnings before interest and taxes) доходы до вычета процентов и налогов
- ЕС 1.** (European community) Европейское сообщество, **2.** (eurocheque) еврочек, **3.** (executive committee) исполнительный комитет
- EDD** (estimated delivery date) предполагаемая дата поставки
- EDP** (electronic data processing) электронная обработка данных
- Е.Е.** или **e.e.** (errors excepted) исключая ошибки
- ЕЕС** (European Economic Community) Европейское экономическое сообщество

EEO (equal employment opportunity) равенство возможностей в области занятости

EGM (Extraordinary general meeting) чрезвычайное / внеочередное общее собрание

emb. (embargo) эмбарго, запрещение

enc. или **encl.** (enclosure) вложение, приложение (на письме, содержащем документ)

e.o.d. (every other day) раз в два дня, через день

E.P.D. (excess profits duty) налог на сверхприбыль

EPIC (electronic price information computer) компьютерная система ценовой информации

EPOS (electronic point of sale) электронный пункт продажи

eps (earnings per share) прибыль компании в расчете на одну акцию

E.P.T. (excess profits tax) налог на сверхприбыль

ERM (Exchange Rate Mechanism) Механизм валютных курсов

ESOP (employee share-ownership plan) план приобретения акций служащими компании

ETF (electronic transfer of funds) электронная система платежей

F

faa (free of all average) свободно от всякой аварии

Fac (facsimile) факсимиле

fas (free alongside ship) франке вдоль борта судна

FC (Fixed cost) фиксированные издержки

FIFO (first in, first out) первым прибыл — первым обслужен / обслуживание в порядке поступления

FMCG (fast-moving consumer goods) потребительские товары постоянного спроса

FMS (flexible manufacturing system) гибкая производственная система

FTC (Federal Trade Commission) Федеральная торговая комиссия

FOB (free on board) франко-борт
FOQ (free on quay) франко-набережная
FOR (free on rail) франко-вагон
f.o.t. (free of tax) освобожденный от обложения налогом
Four Ps (product, place, promotion and price) четыре
 составных части маркетинга
FP (fixed price) фиксированная цена
f.p. (fully paid) полностью оплаченный
FPA (free of particular average) свободный от частной
 аварии
f.v. (folio verso *Лат.*) на обороте листа
F.W. (full weight) общая масса

G

GA (general average) общая авария
GATT (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade)
 Общее соглашение о тарифах и торговле
GDP (gross domestic product) валовой
 внутренний продукт (ВВП)
GNI (gross national income) валовой национальный
 доход
GNP (gross national product) валовой национальный
 продукт (ВНП)
G.O. (general office) главная контора
GP (general purpose) общего назначения
GS (government stocks) государственные бумаги
GSS (Government Statistical Service) Правительственная
 статистическая служба
GW или **g.w.** (gross weight) масса брутто

H

hon sec (honorary secretary) почетный секретарь
HP (hire purchase) покупка в рассрочку
HRIS (human resources information system)
 информационная система по трудовым ресурсам

I (investment) инвестиции

IBRD (International Bank for Reconstruction and Development) Международный банк реконструкции и развития

ICC (International Chamber of Commerce) Международная торговая палата

ICCH (International Commodities Clearing House)

Международная товарная клиринговая палата

IDA (International Development Association)

Международная ассоциация развития

IDC (industrial development certificate) сертификат/
разрешение на промышленное строительство

IFC (International Finance Corporation) Международная финансовая корпорация

III (investors in industry) инвесторы в промышленность

I/L (import license) лицензия на импорт

ILO (International Labour Organization) Международная организация труда

IMF (International Monetary Fund) Международный валютный фонд

Inc, inc (incorporated) акционерный

IOU (I owe you) я вам должен (начало деловой переписки)

IPO (initial public offering) первый выпуск акций

IRR (internal rate return) внутренняя ставка дохода

M

MS (money supply) предложение денег

M.T. (mail transfer) перевод по почте

MU (monetary unit) денежная единица

M.U. или **MU** (marginal utility) предельная /
маржинальная полезность

m.v. (market value) рыночная стоимость

N

n (net) нетто; чистый вес

NAV (net asset value) стоимость чистых активов

- NB** (new bonds) новые облигации / закладные
- NBV** (net book value) первоначальная стоимость капитального актива
- NC** (no charge) без оплаты
- N/C** (numerical control) цифровое программное управление
- N.C.I.** (no common interest) без обычных процентов
- NCT** (National Chamber of Trade) Национальная торговая палата
- NCV** (no commercial value) не имеет коммерческой ценности
- N.D.** или **n.d.** (no date) без даты
- NDP** (net domestic product) чистый внутренний продукт
- n/e** (not exceeding) не превышающий, не более, максимум
- NE** (net export) чистый экспорт
- NEW** (net economic welfare) чистое экономическое благосостояние
- N.F.** или **n/f** (no funds) «без покрытия»
- NGO** (non-government organization) неправительственная организация
- N.I.** или **NI** (national income) доход
- NIP** (normal investment practice) нормальная инвестиционная практика
- NL** (no liability) без всякой ответственности
- n/n** (non-negotiable) без права передачи (о документе)
- NNI** (net national income) чистый национальный доход
- NNP** (net national product) чистый национальный продукт
- NOC** (notice of completion) уведомление об окончании работ
- NOD** (notice of dispatch) уведомление об отгрузке
- NOR** или **N/R** (Notice of readiness) уведомление о готовности к отправке
- NP** (national product) национальный продукт
- n.p.** 1. (notes payable) векселя к оплате, 2. (net proceeds) чистый доход
- n/p** (nonpayment) неуплата
- NPD** (new product development) разработка нового продукта

прv (по par value) без номинала

NPV (net present value) чистая текущая стоимость

NRV (net realizable value) чистая цена реализации

N.S.F. (not sufficient funds) не обеспечено денежным покрытием

NTB (non-tariff barrier) нетарифный барьер

nt.wt. (Net weight) вес нетто

N.V (nominal value) номинальная стоимость

NYSE (New York Stock Exchange) Нью-Йоркская фондовая биржа

О

О/а 1. (Old account) старый счет, **2.** (on account) в счет причитающейся суммы, **3.** (outstanding account) неоплаченный счет

О/А (open account) открытый счет

ОАА (old-age assistance) пособие престарелым

ОАР (old-age pension) пенсия по старости

о/с (overcharge) завышенная цена; завышенный расход

OCR (optical characters recognition) оптическое распознавание знаков

О.Д. или **О/Д** или **о/d** (on demand) по требованию

OD (overdraft) превышение кредита

OGP (original gross premium) первоначальная валовая премия

о/h (overhead) накладные расходы

OMS (output per manshift) выработка за человеко-смену

ОПЕС (Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries)

Организация стран — экспортеров нефти, ОПЕК

О.Р. (owner's risk) на риск владельца

orgn (Organization) организация

О/S или **о/s** **1.** (on sale) в продаже, **2.** (out of stock) распродано, **3.** (outstanding) неуплаченный, просроченный

ОТ или **о/t** (old terms) прежние условия

ОТС market (over-the counter market) внебиржевой рынок ценных бумаг

Р

- Р.А., р.а** или **Р/А** 1. (private account) счет частного лица или фирмы, 2. (per annum) за год, 3. (particular average) частная авария, 4. (power of attorney) доверенность
- РА** (personal assistant) личный секретарь-референт
- РАВХ** (private automatic branch exchange) частная автоматическая телефонная станция с выходом в общую сеть
- РАС** 1. (planning advisory committee) плановый консультативный комитет, 2. (planning, analysis and con-troll) планирование, анализ и контроль, 3. (put and call) опцион «пут и кол»
- Рас, р.а.с.** или **Р.а.С** (put and call) двойной опцион, стеллажная сделка
- part.** (participant / participating) участник / принимающий участие
- PAS** (Production Advisory Service) производственно-консультативная служба
- PAYE** (pay-as-you-earn) уплата налогов при получении заработанных денег
- Р.В** (passbook) банковская расчетная книжка
- РС** 1. (paid cash) уплачено наличными, 2. (private contract) частное соглашение / договор, 3. (personal computer) персональный компьютер
- р.с.1.** (per centum) (*Лат.*) процент, 2. (partly cash) часть платежа производится наличными, 3. (petty cash) мелкие деньги, разменная монета
- Р.С** 1. (particular charges) особые расходы, 2. (pay card) карточка на выплату зарплаты, расчетный лист
- р/с** (priced catalogue) прейскурант
- PCE** (personal consumption expenditures) затраты на личное потребление
- pchs** (purchase) покупка, закупка
- PD** (pickup and delivery) вывоз и доставка
- р.д.** (per day) на день, в день

- PDE** (producer durable equipment) капитальное оборудование с длительным сроком службы
- PDR** или **P/D ratio** (price-divident ratio) отношение цены акции к доходу по ней
- PE** (planned expenditure) планируемые расходы
- P.E.** (permissible error) допустимая ошибка
- P/E** (price / earnings) отношение цены к прибыли на акцию
- PEP** (personal equity plan) личный план инвестирования
- per an.** или **per ann.** (*Lat.* per annum) в год, ежегодно
- per cap.** (*Lat.* per capita) на душу населения, на человека
- per pro(c)** или **pp** (*Lat.* per procurationem) по доверенности
- PERT** (project evaluation-and-review technique) методика анализа и оценки проекта
- pf(d)** (preferred) привилегированный (об акциях)
- PFU** (prepared for use) готовый к употреблению
- PI** (personal income) личный доход
- PIMS** (profit impact of market strategy) воздействие рыночной стратегии на прибыль
- PIN** (personal identification number) личный идентификационный номер (кредитной или наличной карточки)
- P & L a/c** (profit-and-loss account) счет прибылей и убытков
- P.L.** или **P/L** (profit and loss) прибыль и убыток
- PLC** (public limited company) публичная / открытая компания с ограниченной ответственностью
- pmh** (production per man-hour) производительность за человеко-час
- P.O.** (Payment Order) платежное поручение
- P.O.D.** (pay on delivery) наложенный платеж, наложенным платежом
- POS** (point of sale) торговая точка
- P.P.1.** (postage paid) почтовые расходы оплачены, 2. (purchase price) покупная цена
- P/p** (partial pay) частичная оплата
- PPD** или **ppd** (prepaid) предоплаченный
- P.P.F** (Production-possibility frontier) граница производственных возможностей
- PPI** (producer price index) индекс цен производителей

- PPP** (purchasing power parity) паритет покупательной способности
- PR** (public relations) связи фирмы с отдельными лицами, организациями, общественностью
- PRO** (public relations officer) сотрудник по связям с общественностью
- прох.** (*Лат.* proximo) в следующем (месяце, году)
- PRT** (petroleum revenue tax) налог с дохода от продажи нефти
- P/S** или **P.S.** (public sale) аукцион
- PSBR** (Public Sector Borrowing Requirement) потребность государственного сектора в заемных средствах
- PSL** (private-sector liquidity) ликвидность частного сектора
- PTN** (public telephone network) государственная телефонная сеть

Q

- Q.** (quarter) четверть, квартал
- Q.** или **q.** (quantity) количество
- QARAM** (Quality, Reliability Assurance and Maintainability) гарантия качества, надежности и ремонтпригодности
- QP** (quality products) качественные продукты
- QUEST** (Quantitative Utility Estimate for Science and Technology) количественная оценка полезности для науки и техники
- Q.w.Q** (quantity with quality) количество и качество

R

- RA** (repurchase agreement) соглашение об обратном выкупе
- r. & a** (rail and air) перевозки по железной дороге и воздуху
- R & D** (Research and development) научные исследования и опытно-конструкторские разработки

r & o (rail and ocean) перевозки по железной дороге и морем

R.E. (real estate) недвижимое имущество

R.M.D. (ready money down) оплата наличными немедленно

ROA (return on assets) доход на активы

ROC (return on capital) прибыль на капитал

ROE (return on equity) доход на долю собственников / на акционерный капитал

R. of E. (rate of exchange) валютный / обменный курс

ROI (return on investment) прибыль на инвестированный капитал

R.P. (retail price) розничная цена

RPI (Retail Price Index) индекс розничных цен

RPM (resale price maintenance) поддержание розничной цены

RRP (recommended retail price) рекомендуемая розничная цена

S

S.A. (savings account) срочный сберегательный счет

S. and H.e. (Sundays and Holidays excepted) исключая воскресенья и праздничные дни

SB (savings bond) сберегательная облигация

S.B. 1. (savings bank) сберегательный банк, 2. (short bill) краткосрочный вексель

SE (shareholders' equity) акционерный капитал

SEAF (Stock Exchange Automatic Exchange Facility) система автоматической покупки и продажи ценных бумаг

SEAQ (Stock Exchange Automatic Quotation System) электронная система биржевых котировок

sec (secretary) секретарь

secs (securities) ценные бумаги

S/N (shipping note) уведомление об отгрузке

S.P.1. (starting price) начальная / отправная цена, 2. (stop of payment) приостановка платежей

- s.p.** (selling price) продажная цена
SQC (statistical quality control) статистический контроль качества
S.R. (short rate) краткосрочная процентная ставка
SRO (self-regulatory organization) саморегулирующаяся организация
SWIFT (Society for Worldwide Interbank Financial Telecommunications) Международная межбанковская электронная система платежей, СВИФТ

Т

- T.A.** (transferable account) переводной счет
t. & d. (time and date) время и число
TB (Treasury bill) казначейский вексель
TC 1. (total cost) общая стоимость, общие издержки, **2.** (traveller's check) дорожный чек
TD или **T/D** (time deposit) срочный депозит
TE 1. (tax exempt) освобожденный от налога, **2.** (trade expenses) торговые расходы
TFO (total fixed outlay) общие постоянные издержки
TM (trademark) торговый знак, фабричная марка
TMO (telegraphic money order) телеграфное платежное поручение
TO (total outlay) общие издержки
TOC (total ordering cost) общая стоимость выполнения заказа
TP (total profit) общая прибыль
TPC (total purchasing cost) общие затраты на приобретение
TPI (tax and price index) индекс налогов и цен
TPPC (total package procurement contract) комплексный всеобъемлющий контракт
TR (total revenue) совокупный доход
trans (transaction) сделка, операция
TRC (total resource cost) общие издержки ресурса
Tr.Co. (trust company) траст-компания
TT (telegraphic transfer) телеграфный перевод

TU или **T.U.** 1. (trade(s) union) тред-юнион, профсоюз,
2. (total utility) общая полезность

T.U.C. (Trades Union Congress) Конгресс тред-юнионов

T.W. (total weight) общая масса

U

UCC (uniform commercial code) единый коммерческий кодекс

UNO (United Nations organization) Организация Объединенных наций, ООН

USM (unlisted securities market) рынок некотируемых ценных бумаг

USP (unique selling proposition) уникальное качество

u.t. (usual terms) обычные условия

u.u.r. (under usual reserve) с обычной оговоркой

V

vac. (vacation) отпуск

VAT или **V.A.T** (value-added tax) налог на добавленную стоимость

VC 1. (valuable cargo) ценный груз, 2. (variable cost) переменные издержки

V.C.I. (vice-chairman) вице-председатель

VIMC (vertically integrated marketing channel)

вертикально интегрированный маркетинговый канал

VIP (very important person) очень важная персона

W

WA (with average) включая частную аварию

W.C. или **w/c** (without charge) без оплаты / накладных расходов

WFTU (World Federation of Trade Unions) Всемирная федерация профсоюзов, ВФП

w.g. (weight guaranteed) гарантированная масса

whs (warehouse) товарный склад

WI (when issued) после выпуска (ценной бумаги)

WIP (work in progress) незавершенное производство

wkly (weekly) еженедельно

W/M (without margin) без оплаты разницы

W.P.A. или **w.p.a.** (with particular average) включая частную аварию

WPI (wholesale price index) индекс оптовых цен

W/R (warehouse receipt) товарная квитанция / расписка

W/W (warehouse warrant) складской вarrant

X

X. (exclusive) исключая, без

X (extension) после телефонного номера

X.C. (ex coupon) без купона

XD или **X-d** (ex dividend) без дивиденда

X.I или **x.i.** (ex interest) без начисления процентов

Y

Y. (year) год

YLD (yield) доходность

Y.O. (yearly output) годовой объем
производства

YOB (year of birth) год рождения

YOD (year of death) год смерти

Appendix C

Таблица неправильных глаголов

1 ФОРМА	2 ФОРМА	3 ФОРМА	4 ФОРМА	ПЕРЕВОД
to be	was/were	been	being	быть, находиться
to bear	bore	born	bearing	нести
to beat	beat	beaten	beating	бить
to begin	began	begun	beginning	начинать(ся)
to bend	bent	bent	bending	гнуть
to bind	bound	bound	binding	переплестать
to bite	bit	bitten/bit	biting	кусать
to blow	blew	blown	blowing	дуть
to break	broke	broken	breaking	ломать
to bring	brought	brought	bringing	приносить
to build	built	built	building	строить
to burn	burnt	burnt	burning	гореть, жечь
to buy	bought	bought	buying	покупать
to catch	caught	caught	catching	ловить
to choose	chose	chosen	choosing	выбирать
to cut	cut	cut	cutting	резать, рубить
to dive	dived/dove	dived	diving	нырять
to do	did	done	doing	делать
to draw	drew	drawn	drawing	рисовать, тащить
to drink	drank	drunk	drinking	пить
to drive	drove,	driven	driving	вести
to eat	ate	eaten	eating	есть, кушать

1 ФОРМА	2 ФОРМА	3 ФОРМА	4 ФОРМА	ПЕРЕВОД
to fall	fell	fallen	falling	падать
to feel	felt	felt	feeling	чувствовать
to feed	fed	fed	feeding	кормить
to fight	fought	fought	fighting	бороться, драться
to find	found	found	finding	искать, находить
to fly	flew	flown	flying	летать
to forbid	forbade	forbidden	forbidding	запрещать
to forget	forgot	forgotten	forgetting	забывать
to forgive	forgave	forgiven	forgiving	прощать
to freeze	froze	frozen	freezing	заморажива ть
to get	got	got	getting	получать, становиться
to give	gave	given	giving	давать
to go	went	gone	going	идти, ехать
to grow	grew	grown	growing	расти, выращивать
to hang	hung	hung	hanging	висеть, вешать
to have	had	had	having	иметь
to hear	heard	heard	hearing	слышать
to hit	hit	hit	hitting	ударять
to hold	held	held	holding	держать
to hurt	hurt	hurt	hurting	повредить
to know	knew	known	knowing	знать
to lay	laid	laid	laying	накрывать

1 ФОРМА	2 ФОРМА	3 ФОРМА	4 ФОРМА	ПЕРЕВОД
to lead	lead	lead	leading	вести
to leap	leapt/leaped	leapt/leaped	leaping	прыгать, скакать
to leave	left	left	leaving	покидать, оставлять
to lend	lent	lent	lending	давать взаймы
to let	let	let	letting	позволять
to lie	lay	lain	lying	лежать
to light	lit	lit	lighting	зажигать
to lose	lost	lost	losing	терять
to make	made	made	making	делать
to meet	met	met	meeting	встречать (ся)
to pay	paid	paid	paying	платить
to put	put	put	putting	класть, ставить
to read	read	read	reading	читать
to ride	rode	ridden	riding	ехать (верхом)
to ring	rang	rung	ringing	звонить, звенеть
to rise	rose	risen	rising	поднимать
to run	ran	run	running	бежать
to say	said	said	saying	говорить, сказать
to see	saw	seen	seeing	видеть
to sell	sold	sold	selling	продавать
to send	sent	sent	sending	посылать, отправлять

1 ФОРМА	2 ФОРМА	3 ФОРМА	4 ФОРМА	ПЕРЕВОД
to shake	shook	shaken	shaking	трясти
to shine	shone	shone	shining	светить, сиять
to shoot	shot	shot	shooting	стрелять, снимать
to show	showed	shown	showing	показывать
to sing	sang	sung	singing	петь
to sink	sank	sunk	sinking	тонуть
to sit	sat	sat	sitting	сидеть
to sleep	slept	slept	sleeping	спать
to speak	spoke	spoken	speaking	говорить, разговаривать
to spend	spent	spent	spending	тратить, проводить время
to stand	stood	stood	standing	стоять
to steal	stole	stolen	stealing	воровать, украсть
to stick	stuck	stuck	sticking	прилипать
to strike	struck	struck	striking	бить, ударять
to swear	swore	sworn	swearing	клясться
to sweep	swept	swept	sweeping	мести, подметать
to swim	swam	swum	swimming	плавать
to take	took	taken	taking	взять, брать
to teach	taught	taught	teaching	учить, обучать
to tear	tore	torn	tearing	рвать

1 ФОРМА	2 ФОРМА	3 ФОРМА	4 ФОРМА	ПЕРЕВОД
to tell	told	told	telling	сказать, сообщать
to think	thought	thought	thinking	думать
to throw	threw	thrown	throwing	бросать, кидать
to wake	woke	woken	waking	будить, просыпаться
to wear	wore	worn	wearing	носить
to weep	wept	wept	weeping	плакать
to win	won	won	winning	побеждать, выигрывать
to write	wrote	written	writing	писать

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**Игорь Петрович Агабекян
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