

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
ОДЕСЬКИЙ ДЕРЖАВНИЙ ЕКОЛОГІЧНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ

МЕТОДИЧНІ ВКАЗІВКИ
для СРС та навчальний матеріал по роботі
з англomовним суспільно-політичним текстом

Одеса – 2007

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для студентів I, II курсів очної форми навчання
Напрямок підготовки – усі напрямки

Затверджено
методичною комісією факультету
„комп'ютерних наук”
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Одеса – 2007

Методичні вказівки для СРС та навчальний матеріал по роботі з англomовним суспільно-політичним текстом для студентів I, II курсів денної форми навчання.

Напрямок підготовки: усі напрямки

Укладач: канд. філол. наук. Шотова-Ніколенко Г. В.

ПЕРЕДМОВА

Дані методичні вказівки по роботі з англомовним суспільно-політичним текстом представляють собою тематично обумовлений збірник текстів і вправ до них. Мета – навчити студентів читати і перекладати оригінальний англомовний газетний текст, вести бесіду та робити короткі повідомлення по темі згідно поданої лексики та певним специфічним англомовним граматичним структурам, вилучати потрібну інформацію з оригінального тексту з безпосереднім розумінням змісту.

Читання англомовного суспільно-політичного тексту має і загальноосвітні цілі:

- формування в студентів соціокультурної та соціолінгвістичної компетенції;
- поглиблення фонових знань про історію, державний устрій, освіту, стиль життя народу країни, мова якої вивчається;
- отримання студентами важливої соціокультурної інформації „з перших рук” – із статей, що відображають найважливіші процеси і тенденції в суспільстві, що написані носіями англійської мови;
- використання автентичних мовних джерел, що відображають актуальні тенденції розвитку мови, а також засвоєння сучасної лексики, кліше, збагачення свого лінгвістичного потенціалу.

Таким чином, системна робота з газетним текстом – ефективний засіб засвоєння та закріплення необхідних мовних вмінь та навичок для практичного володіння англійською мовою, формування розуміння способу мислення, характерного для носіїв менталітету та культури Великої Британії.

Методичні вказівки складаються з 16 тематичних розділів (8 уроків для I курсу, 8 уроків для II курсу) й мають наступне наповнення:

1. Основний текст з певною тематикою і проблематикою;
2. Набір певних вправ, що розвивають фонетичні, граматичні, лексичні навички студентів;
3. Обов’язковий переклад студентами поданих текстів.

При відборі матеріалу використовувалась оригінальна англомовна преса: “Early Times”, “The Economist”, “The Times”, “The Guardian”, etc.

Як правило в газетних текстах студенти зустрічаються з великою кількістю скорочень. У зв’язку з цим у методичних вказівках у вигляді додатків подається перелік найбільш вживаних скорочень з тлумаченням деяких понять, а також приклади специфічної лексики, яка є характерною для газетних заголовків. Наприкінці подається англо-український словник газетної лексики, де зібрано слова та словосполучення, що часто зустрічаються в англомовній пресі.

LESSON I

The Media. Television and Radio

Newspapers

Exercise 1 Look at the table and analyze it

National Newspapers			
Title and foundation date	Circulation average Jan-June 2000	Title and foundation date	Circulation average Jan-June 2000
National dailies “Populars”		National Sundays “Populars”	
<i>Daily Express</i> (1900)	1,589,306	<i>News of the World</i> (1843)	5,294,317
<i>Daily Mail</i> (1896)	1,750,303	<i>Sunday Express</i> (1918)	1,943,089
<i>Daily Mirror</i> (1903)	3,199,103	<i>Sunday Mirror</i> (1963)	3,012,143
<i>Daily Star</i> (1978)	912,372	<i>Sunday Sport</i> (1986)	530,090
<i>Morning Star</i> (1966)	28,000	<i>The Mail on Sunday</i> (1982)	1,961,506
<i>The Sun</i> (1964)	4,173,267	<i>The People</i> (m\)	2,660,177
<i>Today</i> (1986)	588,653		
“Qualities”		“Qualities”	
<i>Financial Times</i> (1886)	199,275	<i>Sunday Telegraph</i> (1961)	656,120
<i>The Daily Telegraph</i> (1885)	1,113,033	<i>The Observer</i> (1191)	693,939
<i>The Guardian</i> (1821)	438,732	<i>The Sunday Times</i> (1822)	1,317,865
<i>The Independent</i> (1986)	405,423	<i>The Sunday Correspondent</i> (1989)	n/a
<i>The Times</i> (1785)	441,342		

Text A

Read and translate the text

The British are a great nation of readers and, with sales of national newspapers averaging around 15 million copies on weekdays and almost 18 million on Sundays (besides the provincial daily newspapers and the daily evening newspapers most towns and cities have), only in Japan are more newspapers sold per person than in Britain. The term “newspaper” can only be loosely applied to the top-selling **dailies**, however, as these **tabloids** contain mainly coverage of “human” news scandals, as opposed to political and economic matters, which are covered in depth in the larger **quality** newspapers. An interesting recent development has been the launching of two “quality” weekly newspapers – *The Indy* and the *Early Times* – especially for younger readers.

Newspapers in Britain are not subsidized (although the greatest source of income is advertising) and there is no fixed price. They are financially independent of any political party and any political bias results from traditional positions and the influence of the owner. A worrying development has been the concentration many of the newspapers in the hands of some owners.

Exercise 2 Complete these sentences to make a summary of the passage.

1. On average, more than one in four people in Britain ...
2. Newspapers in Britain are classified as either ...
3. Popular dailies deal with ...
4. Quality papers cover ...
5. Recently two newspapers came out intended for ...
6. The price of newspapers ...
7. The political position of a newspaper ...
8. Many people are worried about ...

Text B

Read and translate the text

The Press

In every modern country, regardless of form of government, the press, radio and television are political weapons of tremendous power, and few things are so indicative of the nature of a government as the way in which that power is exercised, In studying the politics of any country, it is important not only to

understand the nature of the social, economic, political and other divisions of the population but to discover what organs of public and political opinion are available for the expression of the various interests.

Although the press in this or that country is legally free, the danger lies in the fact that the majority of people are not aware of the ownership. The press in fact is controlled by a comparatively small number of persons. Consequently, when the readers see different newspapers providing the same news and expressing similar opinions they are not sure that the news, and the evaluation of the news, are determined by a single group of people, perhaps mainly by one man. In democratic countries it has long been assumed that governments ought, in general, to do what their people want them to do.

In a democratic country like Great Britain the press, ideally, has three political functions: information, discussion and representation. It is supposed to give the voter reliable and complete information on which to base his judgement, it should let him know the arguments for and against any policy, and it should reflect and give voice to the desires of the people as a whole.

Naturally, there is no censorship in Great Britain, but in 1953 the Press Council was set up. It is not an official body but it is composed of people nominated by journalists, and it receives complaints against particular newspapers. It may make reports which criticize papers, but its reports have no direct effect.

The British press means, primarily, a group of daily and Sunday newspapers published in London. They are most important and known as national in the sense of circulating throughout the British Isles. All the national newspapers have their central offices in London, but those with big circulations also print editions in Manchester (the second largest press centre in Britain) and Glasgow in Scotland.

All the newspapers whether daily or Sunday, totalling about twenty, can be divided into two groups: quality papers and popular papers. Quality papers include "The Times", "The Guardian", "The Daily Telegraph", the "Financial Times", "The Observer", "The Sunday Times" and "The Sunday Telegraph". Very thoroughly they report national and international news.

The distinction between the quality and the popular papers is one primarily of educational level. Quality papers are those newspapers which are intended for the well educated. All the rest are generally called popular newspapers. The most important of them are the "News of the World", "The Sun", the "Daily Mirror", the "Daily Express".

The popular newspapers tend to make news sensational. They publish "personal" articles which shock and excite. Instead of printing factual news reports, these papers write them up in an exciting way, easy to read, playing on people's emotions. They avoid serious political and social questions or treat them superficially. Trivial events are treated as the most interesting and important happenings. Crime is always given far more space than creative, productive or cultural achievements. Much of their information concerns the

private lives of people who are in the news. The popular newspapers are very similar to one another in appearance and general arrangement, with big headlines and the main news on the front page.

The four most famous provincial newspapers are “The Scotsman” (Edinburgh), the “Glasgow Herald”, the “Yorkshire Post” (Leeds) and the “Belfast Telegraph”, which present national as well as local news. Apart from these there are many other daily, evening and weekly papers published in cities and smaller towns. They present local news and are supported by local advertisements.

But the best-known among the British national quality newspapers are as follows.

“The Times” (1785) is called the paper of the Establishment. Politically it is independent, but is generally inclined to be sympathetic to the Conservative party. It’s not a governmental organ, though very often its leading articles may be written after private consultation with people in the government. It has a reputation for extreme caution, though it has always been a symbol of solidity in Britain. Its reporting is noted for reliability and completeness and especially in foreign affairs. Its reputation for reflecting or even anticipating government policy gives it an almost official tone.

“The Guardian” (until 1959 – “Manchester Guardian”) has become a truly national paper rather than one specially connected with Manchester. In quality, style and reporting it is nearly equal with “The Times”. In politics it is described as “radical”. It was favourable to the Liberal party and tends to be rather closer in sympathy to the Labour party than to the Conservatives. It has made great progress during the past years, particularly among intelligent people who find “The Times” too uncritical of the Establishment.

“The Daily Telegraph” (1855) is the quality paper with the largest circulation (1.2 million compared with “The Times’s” 442 thousand and “The Guardian’s” 500 thousand). In theory it is independent, but in practice it is an orthodox Conservative paper and as such caters for the educated and semi-educated business and professional classes. Being well produced and edited it is full of various information and belongs to the same class of journalism as “The Times” and “The Guardian”.

“The Daily Mirror” (3.1 million) is the popular newspaper which supports the Labour Party.

The daily papers have no Sunday editions, but there are Sunday papers, nearly all of which are national: “The Sunday Times” (1822, 1.2 million), “Sunday Telegraph” (1961, 0.7 million), the “Sunday Express” (1918, 2.2 million), the “Sunday Mirror” (1963, 2.7 million).

On weekdays there are evening papers, all of which serve their own regions only, and give the latest news. London has two evening newspapers, the “London Standard” and the “Evening News”.

In addition to the daily and Sunday papers, there is an enormous number of weeklies, some devoted to specialized and professional subjects, others of more general interest. Three of them are of special importance and enjoy a large and influential readership. They are the “Spectator” (which is non-party but with Conservative views), the “New Statesman” (a radical journal, inclining towards the left wing of the Labour Party) and the largest and most influential – the “Economist” (politically independent). These periodicals resemble one another in subject matter and layout. They contain articles on national and international affairs, current events, the arts, letters to the Editor, extensive book reviews. Their publications often exert a great influence on politics.

Traditionally the leading humorous periodical in Britain is “Punch”, best known for its cartoons and articles which deserve to be regarded as typical examples of English humour. It has in recent years devoted increasing attention to public affairs, often by means of its famous cartoons.

There are a number of news agencies in Britain, the oldest being “Reuters” which was founded in 1851. The agency employs some 540 journalists and correspondents in seventy countries and has links with about 120 national or private news agencies. The information of general news, sports, and economic reports is received in London every day and is transmitted over a network of teleprinter lines, satellite links and cable and radio circuits.

Exercise 1 Fill in the blanks with the correct words.

1. In every modern country, regardless of form of government, the press, radio and television are political _____ of tremendous power, and few things are so indicative of the nature of a government as the way in which that power is exercised.
2. Although the press in this or that country is _____ free, the danger lies in the fact that the majority of people are not aware of the.
3. Naturally, there is no _____ in Great Britain, but in 1953 the Press Council was set up.
4. The popular newspapers are very similar to one another in appearance and general arrangement, with big _____ and the main news on the _____ page.
5. Apart from these there are many other daily, evening and weekly papers published in cities and smaller towns. They present news and are supported by local _____.
6. “The Times” has a reputation for extreme caution, though it has always been a _____ of solidity in Britain.
7. In theory “The Daily Telegraph” is independent, but in practice it is an orthodox paper _____ and as such caters for the educated and semi-educated business and professional classes.

8. Traditionally the leading humorous periodical in Britain is _____, best known for its _____ and articles which deserve to be regarded as typical examples of English _____.
9. There are a number of news agencies in Britain, the oldest being _____, which was founded in 1851.

Text C

Television and Radio

Television viewing is by far the most popular leisure pastime in Britain. The new Broadcasting Bill and the introduction of cable and satellite television are bringing about radical changes in this sector.

Changing TV Times

Imagine turning on the television and finding nothing to watch but game shows and soap operas. Less children's TV, fewer news programmes, no costume dramas or wildlife shows.

Opponents of the Broadcasting Bill, currently going through Parliament on its way to becoming law, say that this is what will happen to British television.

But then imagine even better television than you find now -maybe fewer darts matches and boring documentaries? Supporters of the Broadcasting Bill say that TV and radio will become better because they will contain more of the shows the viewer wants.

Biggest Change

The Broadcasting Bill will dramatically change the way British television is operated. The biggest change will be the start up of Channel 5, another TV channel with advertisements, plus three new national radio stations and 200-300 more local ones.

The main intention of the Bill is to make television companies show what people want to watch. The Independent Broadcasting Authority (IBA) strictly controls what is shown and when it is shown. The IBA makes sure each ITV company broadcasts a certain amount of news, current affairs programmes and children's TV. If the Bill becomes law the IBA will be replaced with the Independent Television Commission (ITC), a body with a more "hands-off" approach to regulating TV. Some people fear it will be much less strict than the IBA.

Low-quality

Opponents of the Bill are worried that the TV companies will use this freedom to make low-quality programmes like game shows because, compared to World in Action, for example, game shows are much cheaper to make and are watched by many more people. If the game show has a larger audience, the TV company can charge more for advertising and make higher profits.

Current affairs programmes (in-depth topical news programmes) have smaller audiences, so they attract fewer advertisers and the TV company makes less money. So critics are worried that ITV companies will cut down on high-quality, expensive programmes. The Government replies in two ways. First, in order to be able to own an ITV franchise (a franchise gives an ITV company permission to broadcast), ITV companies must promise to show a certain number of “good quality” programmes. Second, they say that companies will still want to advertise on the less popular shows because they know that a certain type of person watches the show.

Current Affairs

For example, Rolls Royce would rather advertise on World in Action than on, say, The Price is Right. The Government says this will ensure that current affairs and dramas will continue to be made.

The Bill will also affect the BBC by freezing the licence fee from 1991 each television-owning family pays to fund the BBC. The BBC is expected to find other ways of raising money to make programmes, although it will not show commercials.

British television is considered by some to be the best in the world. Whether the Broadcasting Bill will make it better or worse is yet to be seen.

Exercise 1 List the points made in the article **for** and **against** the Broadcasting Bill.

Exercise 2 Points for discussion

- 1) The role of press (the press, radio and television) in the life of a state (people)
- 2) The right of the people to know
- 3) The press and censorship

LESSON II

Politics: The Thatcher Revolution

The Thatcher “revolution” didn’t begin in the ’80s – the Iron Lady, as she has been dubbed, was elected Prime Minister in 1979 – but it did dominate the decade.

Political observers from all over the world argue that it has been her single influence and her steadfast commitment to her own form of Conservatism which has been responsible for the nation’s dramatic shift in attitudes. A shift, until the advent of the ’80s, thought by most people to be impossible.

The grocer’s daughter from Grantham – Britain’s first woman prime minister – has served more consecutive years in office than any other Prime Minister since 1827.

Throughout the decade she has come through crisis after crisis – many, some would say, of her own making.

In 1982 she faced an invasion of the Falkland Islands – barren lumps of rock in the South Atlantic Ocean – by right wing aggressors from Argentina. In this instance she met force with force, despatching a military Task Force to replant the Union Flag in Port Stanley, the islands’ capital.

Britain suffered the harsh effects of a world economic recession, with record unemployment. Battles with the trade unions and rioting in the country’s most deprived areas were dealt with in the same way. The year-long miners’ strike, starting in 1984, was the high point of a decade of industrial confrontation.

Despite all this, she became even more popular with the electorate, and won the biggest post-war majority in the House of Commons.

Mrs Thatcher once said she wanted Britain to make a return to Victorian values. In many respects the country has.

Most significant is Mrs Thatcher’s creation of a new breed of Briton. Seizing upon the driving forces of greed and selfishness Mrs Thatcher has, deliberately or not, appealed to many voters for the simple reason that they feel they have more to gain under Tory rule.

Budgets throughout the ’80s have whittled down income tax, and state-owned facilities such as water and British Gas have been handed over to voters along with council houses.

Mrs Thatcher’s popularity has been built from people wanting more money in their pockets, more home ownership, more of everything.

Thatcherism gave birth to a society of Filofax and cellular phone-wielding Yuppies, a new class drawn from a cross section of other classes, backgrounds and educations.

The Sixties, they say, was a decade of one long party. The ’70s languished in their wake as a kind of hangover. The ’80s has been the time when half the

nation has woken up, started to feel better, and gone out for another party. The other half of the nation has stayed in – too broke to set foot outside the house.

After a decade of Thatcherism people, overall, ARE better off.

But, some people argue, when Britain has enjoyed such great possessions of knowledge, wealth and communications, why has it still allowed its industry, institutions and world standing to fall to such a low level?

When the need for knowledge has been so great, why have the government's actions been so dire as to result in discouraging young men and women from entering further education?

When the need and support for health, health education and research has been so great-especially since the discovery of the AIDS virus – why has the government's continual battering of the NHS gone on?

When have Britons been so money-grabbing, yet so generous, bearing in mind the successes of Live Aid, Children in Need etc?

Mrs Thatcher has been a great leader – great in terms of achieving what she set out to do. Whether historians will judge her as truly great in terms of furthering Britain's national spirit and identity, only time will tell...

Exercise 1

1. Why is Mrs Thatcher's period in office considered a "revolution"?
2. The article contains pros and cons with regard to Mrs Thatcher's period in office. Make a list of the points:

In favour

Against

LESSON III

Economics: The Central Banks and Oil-Price Rises

Text A

How Should Central Banks Respond to a Rise in Oil Prices?

Inflation is creeping up. The euro area's average rate of consumer-price inflation rose to 2.5% in the year to May, up from 1.6% in February and well above the 2% ceiling set by the European Central Bank (ECB). America's 12-month inflation rate for the same month (due to be published on June 15th) is expected to rise towards 3%, up from 1.7% two months earlier. The blame for this jump in inflation lies largely with higher oil prices. Despite a dip over the

past week, crude oil prices are still 25% higher than a year ago. Should central banks raise interest rates in response to a rise in the oil price?

As Alan Greenspan, the chairman of America's Federal Reserve, acknowledged this week, the answer is not clear-cut. The dilemma is that higher oil prices not only push up inflation (thereby calling for a rise in interest rates), but also dampen growth (requiring rates to be lower than otherwise).

The best way to understand this is to use a standard economic diagram of aggregate demand and supply. In the left-hand chart, the economy is in equilibrium at the point where the aggregate demand curve DI and the aggregate supply curve $S1$ intersect, at price level PI and output $O1$. A higher oil price hurts an oil-importing economy in two ways. First, it increases firms' production costs and reduces profits, so they supply fewer goods and services at any given price. This shifts the aggregate supply curve to the left, to $S2$. Second, higher oil prices transfer income from oil-importing countries to oil producers (some of this may come back as higher exports). Since income and spending are squeezed in the oil-importing countries, the aggregate demand curve also moves left, to $O2$.

The economy therefore suffers both a negative supply shock and a negative demand shock. Output clearly falls (to $O2$), but the impact on underlying inflation is ambiguous: in theory it could rise or fall, depending on the shapes of the demand and supply curves and the relative sizes of their leftward shifts. Some economists even argue that a rise in oil prices is "deflationary", justifying a cut in interest rates. But this is a misuse of the term. Higher oil prices will deflate demand, but they are unlikely to lead to lower prices. Prices are much more likely to rise, to somewhere like $P2$ in the chart. Higher oil prices always push up headline inflation. The key issue is whether dearer energy will also feed into prices and wages across the whole of the economy.

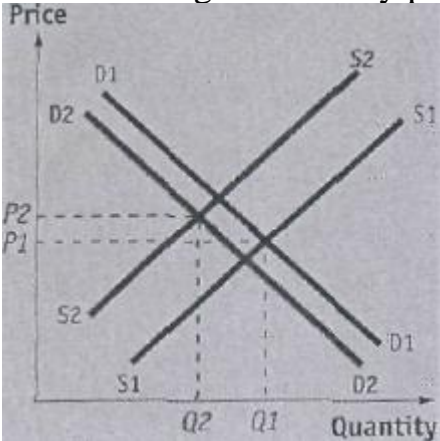
In fact, higher oil prices are neither inflationary nor deflationary in themselves. It all depends upon how monetary policy reacts—and hence on where the demand curve ends up. The right-hand chart shows how policy responded after the 1973-74 oil-price shock. In an attempt to prevent output falling, governments embarked on substantial fiscal and monetary easing. For example, America's Federal funds rate was cut from 11% in mid-1974 to less than 6% in 1975, resulting in sharply negative real interest rates. In effect, this stimulus pushed the demand curve out to the right, to $O3$, with the aim of supporting output at $O1$. But as a result, prices soared to $P3$. To bring inflation back down, central banks later had to slam on the brakes, which then caused a deeper recession.

Having learnt this lesson, central banks raised interest rates after the oil-price shocks in 1979-80 and 1990-91, to try to hold inflation down. Going back to the left-hand chart, that would imply a further leftward shift in the demand curve and hence a larger loss of output. However, it is important to note that a

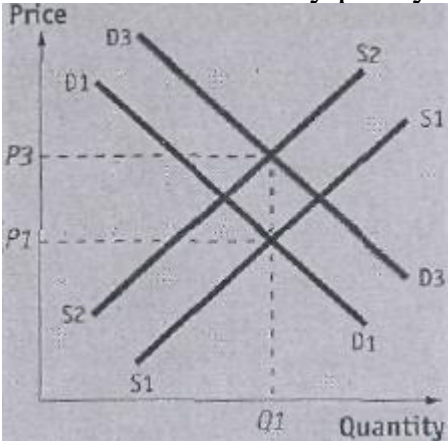
rise in interest rates does not necessarily imply a tightening of policy if inflation has been pushed up by higher oil prices. Central banks then need to raise interest rates simply to keep real interest rates steady.

**The Impact of Higher Oil Prices
Aggregate Demand and Supply**

With unchanged monetary policy



With looser monetary policy



Text B

Shocked to the Core

One clear lesson from the past is that while a central bank cannot prevent oil prices giving a one-off boost to inflation, it must try to prevent this feeding into higher wages and prices of other goods and services. If there is no sign of a rise in the core rate of inflation (excluding energy prices), then there is no need to raise interest rates. There is evidence that rises in headline inflation tend to spill over into wages faster in Europe than in America, because of its less flexible labour markets. If so the ECB is right to be more vigilant when oil prices rise.

On the other hand, the cyclical position of the economy also determines whether central banks need to raise interest rates. The less slack there is in an economy, the bigger the risk that higher oil prices will feed quickly into wages and that firms will be able to pass on higher costs. The recent strong pace of growth in America and the rise in its core inflation rate therefore make a strong case for a rise in interest rates now. In contrast, when oil prices shot up early last year, when the economy was weak and there were clear risks of deflation, the correct response was to cut rates. Today, the euro area still has much more spare capacity than America and so the risk of a jump in wage demands should be smaller. But the ECB is rightly keeping a keen eye on inflationary expectations.

Bond markets are signalling a worrying rise in inflation expectations in the euro area as well as in America.

There is also one important difference between the latest oil price rise and those that have been experienced in the past. Previous jumps in the oil price were typically caused by a sudden disruption to supply. In contrast, the recent price increase is largely due to strong demand for oil because of a booming global economy, especially in America and China. Global output is rising at its fastest pace in 20 years. Last year, China accounted for no less than one-third of the increase in world oil consumption. From this point of view the rise in oil prices is an inevitable, even desirable, consequence of a booming world economy. China may be pushing oil prices up, but it is also importing lots of other goods from the rest of the world: it has shifted out the demand curve in developed economies. With fewer negative implications for growth, the inflationary threat from higher oil prices is greater. This further strengthens the case for the Fed to lift interest rates soon.

Exercise 1 Translate the following sentences

- 1) The best way to understand this is to use a standard economic diagram of aggregate demand and supply
- 2) First, it increases firms' production costs and reduces profits, so they supply fewer goods and services at any given price.
- 3) Some economists even argue that a rise in oil prices is "deflationary", justifying a cut in interest rates.
- 4) The key issue is whether dearer energy will also feed into prices and wages across the whole of the economy.
- 5) However, it is important to note that a rise in interest rates does not necessarily imply a tightening of policy if inflation has been pushed up by higher oil prices.
- 6) One clear lesson from the past is that while a central bank cannot prevent oil prices giving a one-off boost to inflation, it must try to prevent this feeding into higher wages and prices of other goods and services.
- 7) There is also one important difference between the latest oil price rise and those that have been experienced in the past.
- 8) In contrast, when oil prices shot up early last year, when the economy was weak and there were clear risks of deflation, the correct response was to cut rates.
- 9) From this point of view the rise in oil prices is an inevitable, even desirable, consequence of a booming world economy.
- 10) With fewer negative implications for growth, the inflationary threat from higher oil prices is greater.

Exercise 2 Formulate 10 questions on the above texts and find answers

LESSON IV

Ecology: Degrees of Difference

Text A

In the third of a series of articles on the Copenhagen Consensus project, we look at climate change*

Global warming looms, in many people's minds, as one of the biggest threats facing the planet. Over the past 20 years researchers have gathered evidence that the burning of fossil fuels is causing temperatures to rise. However, the exact pace of global warming, as well as the size of mankind's contribution to the warming trend, remain uncertain. Aside from these issues is the question of precisely how greenhouse-gas emissions should be abated, assuming that they need to be reduced at all. In a new paper for the Copenhagen Consensus project, William Cline of the Centre for Global Development and the Institute for International Economics examines these topics.

Rising temperatures are capable of causing great economic harm-though a lot depends not just on how big future rises prove to be but also on how quickly they happen. One estimate is that a doubling of atmospheric concentrations of carbon dioxide would cost between 1% and 2.5% of global GDP, depending on what kinds of damage you include.

One study from America's Environmental Protection Agency listed the possible costs. Around a quarter of the total economic damage would fall on farmers, who could no longer use some lands. Around a sixth of the total cost would come in the form of increased cooling costs for homes and offices (net of the reduced costs of heating). Rising sea levels, damage to drinking-water supplies and heatwaves would each account for 10%. Deforestation and rising ozone pollution together would add another 10%. And the economic estimates exclude the "amenity value" – the price people would be willing to pay to avoid rising temperatures for reasons of convenience.

Yet totting up such figures is far from straightforward. That is because applying cost-benefit analysis to climate change is harder than for most public-policy questions: many of the benefits will not be realised for decades or centuries, while the costs of abatement will be felt today.

Using a discount rate of, say, 3-6%, which would be typical for most short-term projects, would cause you nearly to ignore any costs and benefits occurring in 100 years' time. Mr Cline uses a discount rate of just 1.5%, which has the effect of making the future benefits of slowing global warming much more attractive than they would be under traditional analysis. So he can certainly not be accused of minimising the pain of global warming for future generations, nor of hyping the economic costs of abatement in the near future.

On the other hand, the rationale for the use of a much lower rate is unclear. To say that without using such a rate, abatement would be minimal is not a very persuasive reason. That way of thinking fails to demonstrate that strong abatement is necessary; in effect, it merely assumes it to be necessary. Be that as it may, using such discounting and a widely cited model developed by William Nordhaus of Yale University, Mr Cline then considers three possible remedies.

Text B

Kyoto Revisited

One is the Kyoto treaty. The goal of that agreement was to freeze rich countries' carbon emissions at 5% below their 1990 levels, while letting poor countries emit as much carbon as they please. According to Mr Cline, slowing global warming in this way would yield benefits totalling \$166 trillion (in 1990 prices, as are all of the following figures). The costs of abatement amount to \$94 trillion, giving a global benefit-to-cost ratio of 1.77. But the costs and benefits are unequally shared in the Kyoto approach. Industrial countries must cut back heavily on carbon emissions and realise comparatively few benefits: for them, the benefit-to-cost ratio is far less than one. That helps explain, argues Mr Cline, why many rich countries refuse to sign the Kyoto treaty.

Mr Cline next considers a global carbon tax. This ought to be more efficient than the Kyoto caps, since it would encourage the lowest-cost reductions in carbon emissions to happen first. The discounted costs of applying such taxes would amount to \$128 trillion up to 2300. The benefits are reckoned to be \$271 trillion. That produces a benefit-to-cost ratio of 2.1. Carbon taxes do indeed give better value for money than Kyoto.

The last policy recognises that predictions of climate change encompass a wide range of scenarios. Mr Cline looks at the costs and benefits of abating global warming in 95% of possible outcomes, rather than focusing only on the median prediction for climate change. This strategy is even more aggressive than the other two, as it addresses worst-case scenarios. Reducing emissions by enough to mitigate damage in 95% of scenarios would be extraordinarily expensive – a cost of 3.5% of world economic output for the rest of the 21st century, rising to 5% later: \$458 trillion in net-present-value terms. But the gains, if measured against the worst-case scenarios, are big too: some \$1,749 trillion. The benefit-to-cost ratio would be 3.8.

All of these figures are huge and, given the time horizon, very speculative. Mr Cline emphasises that much depends on how you discount costs and benefits for future generations. Even on his analysis, with many assumptions very favourable to aggressive abatement strategies, the economic benefits of reducing global warming are not felt in any of the three policy regimes until around 2100-

and the costs are felt immediately. Policies to deal with global warming do not produce the short-term gains of many other development policies.

** The Copenhagen Consensus project, organised by Denmark's Environmental Assessment Institute with the co-operation of The Economist, aims to consider, and to establish priorities among, a series of proposals for advancing global welfare. The initiative was described in our Economics focus of March 6th. That article can be read at www.economist.com/copenhagenconsensus, along with other material, including an Economics focus on corruption, published this week online. A book, "Global Crises, Global Solutions", containing the full set of papers written for the project is forthcoming from Cambridge University Press.*

Exercise 1 Give Ukrainian equivalents:

Global warming looms, threats facing the planet, burning of fossil fuels, mankind's contribution to the warming trend, emissions, to be reduced, temperatures are capable of, rising sea levels, deforestation and rising ozone pollution, to avoid rising temperature, straightforward, the costs of abatement, discount rate, short-term projects, to ignore, to be accused, in the near future, on the other hand, a persuasive reason, necessary, possible remedies, the goal of that agreement, in this way, a global carbon tax, predictions of climate changes, outcomes, reducing emissions, to mitigate damage, many assumptions, immediately, to deal with, the short-term gains of many other development policies.

Exercise 2 Speak about:

- a) the biggest threats facing the planet;
- b) the possible damage costs;
- c) three possible remedies.

LESSON V

Computing: Faster, Cheaper, Better The Most Super Machines are Getting More Super

Supercomputing had its heyday in the 1980s. The field attracted many of the best minds in computer science, as start-ups and established companies vied for the prestige of creating the fastest computer in the world. Interest in these

high-powered beasts waned in the 1990s, as .computing talent was drawn to the internet. This has been changing in recent years. The ability to build powerful computers cheaply, combined with growing commercial demand for high-end computing power, is creating a renaissance in the field of supercomputing.

These days, it is not necessary to design and build a supercomputer from scratch. Existing commercial components can be cheaply bolted together to create a very powerful system. Last year, a group at America's National Centre for Supercomputing Applications, in Illinois, built a supercomputer out of around a hundred Play Stations chips.

Meanwhile, another system, built by Virginia Tech, in Blacksburg, Virginia, was created from 1,100 Apple G5 chips and commercial off-the-shelf networking components. The \$ 5.2m system was ranked as the third-fastest in the world. Such systems are of growing interest to corporate buyers, and led IBM to decide last year to begin selling supercomputer-class machines commercially.

This month, the Council on Competitiveness, a lobby group based in Washington, DC, organised a meeting of American supercomputer users. The range of attendees highlighted the growing industrial importance of supercomputing. Film studios, for instance, use them for everything from special effects to creating entire films. Procter & Gamble, a household-goods company based in Cincinnati, Ohio has used them to redesign the manufacturing process for Pringles crisps.

The Need for Speed

Two applications in particular have driven the development of supercomputers: the modelling of climate change and of what happens inside a nuclear explosion-the second of which is necessary because of the ban on actual nuclear testing that is obeyed by established nuclear powers. For more than two years, the fastest computer in the world has been the "Earth Simulator". Built by Japan's NEC, this machine is used for climate modelling. The two next-fastest computers are used to model nuclear weapons at America's Department of Energy.

Supercomputers are also good for modelling the way proteins fold and, it has been thought, should be useful at helping to predict which drugs might work. Until recently, however, little work of practical value had been done. But in 2003, Wanda Andreoni, a researcher with IBM in Zurich, published a paper which described how she had used a supercomputer to show that the progesterone molecule could bind to proteins on its two ends, rather than just one-as had been previously believed. This research will have a direct impact in the design of drugs to enhance or interfere with the working of this hormone.

NEC's Earth Simulator runs at around 35 teraflops. A "flop", or floating-point operation, is the addition or multiplication of a pair of decimal numbers. A

teraflop is a trillion of these. IBM, however, hopes to knock the Earth Simulator from its perch. Blue Gene/L, an IBM computer scheduled for operation before the end of the year, should achieve about ten times that speed-over a third of a petaflop (a petaflop is a thousand teraflops). And by 2006, IBM hopes to have achieved a petaflop.

Will the future be full of supercomputers built from more off-the-shelf parts? The American government wants researchers to focus on more customised and expensive systems (reversing the policy in place since the early 1990s). A report this year by the president's science adviser warned that research in high-end supercomputing has not kept pace with demand. Consequently, this month Congress passed legislation to increase funding of supercomputer research.

America's Defence Advanced Research Projects Agency, an arm of the Pentagon, also wants a petaflop machine for its research work. Whether the competition for this contract will be won by a supercomputer built from off-the-shelf components, or built from scratch, is unclear as yet. However, some think that the real limiting factor towards achieving such a machine is software rather than hardware.

At the International Supercomputer Conference, held in Heidelberg, Germany, last month, Steve Wallach, a vice-president of Chiaro, a router manufacturer based in Richardson, Texas, and a supercomputer expert, suggested that supercomputer hardware may have to relinquish some performance in order to make the systems easier to program. This is a particular problem for machines built from off-the-shelf systems which often have very low "efficiencies". While they may be excellent at running the benchmark programs that set the speed rankings, many of their multiple processors remain idle when confronted with real computing tasks.

Mr Wallach says higher performance compilers (these translate programming languages into precise instructions on particular computers) are needed. Mr Wallach's challenge will have to be answered before the massively parallel systems, so good at their traditional applications, prove to be of wider use.

Exercise 1 Complete the following sentences:

1. Supercomputing had its
2. These days, it is not necessary to design and build a supercomputer.....
3. Such systems are of growing interest to corporate buyers, and led IBM to decide last year to begin
4. Film studios, for instance, use them for everything from special effects to
5. A "flop", or floating-point operation, is

6. Consequently, this month Congress passed legislation to increase funding of
7. However, some think that the real limiting factor towards achieving such a
8. This is a particular problem for machines built from off-the-shelf systems which

Exercise 2 Formulate 10 questions on the above text and find answers

LESSON VI

Technologies: Mobile Phones. Battling for the Palm of Your Hand

Just as mobile phones have changed dramatically in recent years, the industry that makes them is being transformed too

Next time you pick up your mobile phone, try to imagine how futuristic it would look to someone from ten years ago. Back then, mobile phones were far less sophisticated devices. Brick-like, they had tiny monochrome screens and ungainly protruding aerials, and they were only used for one thing: talking to other people. Today's latest models, in contrast, are elegantly shaped pocket computers. Your current handset may well have a large colour screen and a built-in camera; as well as being a telephone, it can send and receive text messages, and may also serve as an alarm clock, calendar, games console, music player or FM radio.

The mobile phone has become a uniquely personal item: many people take theirs with them even when leaving wallets or keys behind. Some phones designed for business users can send and receive e-mail, and have tiny keyboards; others aimed at outdoor types have built-in torches; still others have satellite-positioning functions, high-resolution cameras with flash and zoom, and even the ability to record and play video clips. Clearly, phones ain't what they used to be. This spectacular outward transformation of the mobile phone is being reflected by an internal transformation of the industry that makes what have now become the most ubiquitous digital devices on the planet. Over half a billion mobile phones are sold every year, and despite sluggishness in other parts of the technology industry, the number continues to grow. Sales are being driven, in part, by the surge of new subscribers in the developing world, particularly in India and China. In the developed world, meanwhile, where markets are so saturated that most adults already carry a mobile phone, existing subscribers are switching in droves to today's more advanced models.

Meanwhile, the number of mobile phones in use, at around 1.4 billion, overtook the number of fixed-line phones last year.

No wonder so many firms now want a piece of the action. The mobile phone sits at the intersection of three fast-moving industries: it is a communications device, computer and, with the addition of new media functions, consumer-electronics product. Indeed, it is the bestselling device in all three categories.

As a result, the firms that have historically dominated the industry—large, specialised firms such as Nokia and Motorola—now face a host of new challengers as well as opportunities. The desire for “ownership” of each mobile-phone subscriber poses another threat to the incumbent handset-makers, as mobile-network operators seek to promote their own brands and to differentiate themselves from their rivals. The result is a little-seen, but almighty, struggle for control of a \$70 billion industry: a battle, in short, for the palm of your hand.

Making a mobile phone used to be so difficult that it was the exclusive province of a few specialist companies. It required expertise in an enormous range of areas, from the design of radio chips and software to the integration of electronic components and the styling of the case. Then, since the handsets had to be cranked out in large quantities, there were the problems of running an efficient manufacturing process and complex supply chain, as well as promoting the finished products to a mass consumer market. Furthermore, a company could not just make handsets: to be taken seriously by the mobile-network operators, and ensure everything worked properly, it also had to manufacture the much larger and more complex base-stations that are used to provide mobile-phone coverage.

All of these requirements meant that the industry came to be dominated by large, vertically integrated firms such as Nokia, Motorola and Ericsson. “For many firms good at low-cost electronics, the barrier to entry was simply too high,” says Tony Milbourn of TTPCom, a British firm that designs and licenses hardware and software components for mobile phones.

But the situation has changed in the last couple of years. Radio chips can now be bought off the shelf, as can the software required to make a mobile phone work. Manufacturing can be outsourced to an “electronic-manufacturing services” (EMS) firm. Some of these have started to design as well as build handsets; these “original design manufacturers” (ODMs) sell their finished phones to other firms, which in turn sell them under their own brands. Meanwhile, a flourishing ecosystem has sprung up of small firms specialising in areas such as handset design, chip design, testing and software. TTPCom, for example, provides the software that enables Sharp camera-phones and Black-Berry wireless e-mail devices to send and receive data over mobile-phone networks.

In other words, the barriers to entry have fallen. Hardware and software have, to some extent, been commoditised, and there is far more scope for outsourcing of design and manufacturing than there used to be. This has allowed

ODMs, consumer-electronics firms and even start-ups to enter the handset business. “Anybody with the right financial backing can break into the phone business now,” says Ben Wood, an analyst at Gartner, a consulting firm. The old vertical industry model has been undermined. And it is the rise of the ODMs in particular that is doing the most to disrupt the industry's established order. Most ODMs – the biggest are BenQ, Arima and Compal – are based in Taiwan, though there are others in China and South Korea too. All of them design and build handsets for better-known firms, which simply apply their own branding to the finished phones and sell them as their own. The irony is that at the moment the ODMs’ biggest customers are the incumbent handset-makers. Arima, for example, makes phones for Sony Ericsson (a handset jointventure between Sony of Japan and Ericsson of Sweden), while BenQ and Compal make several models for Motorola. Siemens, Toshiba and Panasonic also rely on ODMs to produce some of their phones.

Exercise 1 Speak about:

- a) transformations and the latest functions of mobile phones;
- b) the mobile phone as the intersection of three fast-moving industries;
- c) the phone business.

Exercise 2 Answer the following questions:

1. What is the spectacular outward transformation being reflected by?
2. Why has the mobile phone become a uniquely personal item?
3. How many mobile phones are sold every year?
4. Which firms have historically dominated the mobile industry?
5. What are “original design manufactures” (ODMs)?

LESSON VII

Hobbies: Leisure and Sport in Britain. Gardening

Most people have considerably more free time, more ways in which to spend it and higher real incomes than previous generations. Agreed hours of full-time work are usually from 35 to 40 hours a week, although many people actually work somewhat longer because of voluntary overtime. A large majority of employees work a five-day week.

The most common leisure activities are home based, or social, such as visiting or entertaining relatives or friends. Television viewing is by far the most

popular leisure pastime, and nearly all households have a television set, with 90 per cent in 2000 having a colour set. Over 51 per cent of households have two or more television sets and average viewing time for the population aged four and over is 25 hours a week. Growing numbers are using video recorders to watch programmes at times other than their transmission: the proportion of households with a video recorder rose from 24 percent in 1984 to 76 per cent in 2000. Other popular pursuits include: listening to music, reading, do-it-yourself home improvements, gardening, and going out for a meal or for a drink.

Many people give up free time to work for voluntary organisations, of which there are over 250,000 in England and Wales. It is estimated that about one-quarter of the population is involved in some way in voluntary work in Britain.

Sports and other pastimes have grown in popularity, reflected by increasing membership of the main organisations concerned with outdoor activities, although for some sports, such as greyhound racing, the number of spectators has been declining. Walking and swimming are the two most popular sporting activities, being almost equally undertaken by men and women. Snooker /billiards/ pool and darts are the next most popular sports among men. Keep-fit, yoga, squash and cycling are among the sports where participation has been increasing in recent years. The most popular spectator sports are football and rugby in the winter, and cricket and athletics in the summer.

Exercise 1

Which activities mentioned above would not appear in a list of leisure activities in your country?

What leisure activities in your country are not included here?

Exercise 2 List the sports and pastimes which are ...

growing in popularity	declining in popularity	most popular as participation sports	most popular as spectator sports
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Text B

Gardening: Potty About Planting

The British nurture their gardens with care. But who's nurturing whom?

Napoleon called England a nation of shopkeepers: given the demise of the British high street, it would be more appropriate today to call it a nation of gardeners. The bicentenary of the Royal Horticultural Society (RHS) this year has spawned a green-fingered fever across a country where gardening is already a national pastime; where more than 15% of the population has a conservatory; where television gardeners are national heart-throbs; and where almost everyone has an opinion on rhododendrons.

“We believe that growing plants makes people’s lives better,” says Andrew Colquhoun, chief executive of the RHS, a charity that runs gardens and education centres across Britain, and is organising a profusion of celebrations for its 200th birthday. Since 1804, the group has ballooned from a handful of botanists who pooled their resources and sent plant collectors across the empire in search of specimens (one of the founders, Joseph Banks, travelled with Captain Cook on the Endeavour), to one of the largest subscription associations in the country. In the past 20 years, membership has grown from 70,000 to 345,000.

The boom is confirmed by a visit to last week’s sell-out Chelsea Flower Show, a hardy perennial where the show’s gardens elicit strong opinions. “It looks hideous like Tenerife,” sniffs one passer-by at a gold-medal-winning garden. Another enthusiast from Scotland is hoping to buy a prized oriental poppy from a grower. Carol Klein, a Chelsea veteran whose medal-winning garden designed in waves of colour was applauded by the Financial Times, says gardens are “the only opportunity for most people to create something that is theirs and to put their hands in the earth. It’s one of the most fundamental human experiences.”

A short walk along the Thames, at Tate Britain, an exhibition entitled “Art of the Garden” opened on June 3rd and runs until August 30th to coincide with the RHS bicentenary. In its first room hangs a Turner view of an Italianate garden looking out to the continent from the Isle of Wight. Facing it are two of Constable’s most cherished paintings: his views of his father’s vegetable garden and his mother’s flower garden, on the family’s Suffolk farm. One view is outward, exploratory and international; the other inward, reflective and intensely national. In their different ways, both artists encompassed ideas about the art of the garden in Britain.

“This show is about how gardens have been embedded in the British consciousness over the past 200 years,” says Martin Postle, its co-curator. Mr Postle, himself a passionate gardener, is interested in how gardening fits into the

social history of Britain. The show features many works by artists who are now unfashionable, or indeed forgotten, from Helen Allingham's water-colours of the cottage gardens created by the legendary garden designer Gertrude Jekyll, to Miss Jekyll's own copies of Turner, whose palette inspired her planting.

Plots to be Seen and Heard

Why are the British so potty about planting? Some answers can be found in "A Little History of British Gardening", by Jenny Uglow. Published in America this month, this addictive book is essential reading for anyone who wants to understand not only British gardening but also British culture. Ms Uglow links Britons' gardening obsession to several causes, but predominantly to the smallness of the island. "Because of the scarcity of land, the gradual enfranchisement of people and their social improvement had always been seen in terms of land. When you own a stake in the land-however small-your status and self-expression is bound up in that."

Like Mr Postle, Ms Uglow also talks about gardening as an expression of Britishness. In 1707 the Act of Union with Scotland made Great Britain a single nation. *The Spectator*, the most important gardening magazine of the time, advocated a particular British taste as distinct from the French and Dutch gardens that had influenced the previous century. Whereas continental gardens looked down on nature from above, from a terrace or a balustrade, and controlled nature with enclosed gardens, topiary and canals, the British garden became about moving through nature, about experiencing it rather than just looking at it.

Walking through a garden circuit, such as the great landscapes of Stourhead or Stowe, became like walking through a series of classical landscape paintings by Poussin and Claude. Such gardens, planted by the aristocracy, were designed to demonstrate British informality as opposed to continental artifice. They were meant to display the culture of their owners, influenced by Addison's advice: "Make a landscape of your possessions."

Today, the enthusiasm for gardening encompasses every sector of society. In cities such as Birmingham, so-called Coriander Clubs have sprung up, where Asian women plant their native herbs and spices on disused land and African nurseries grow exotic tropical plants that were once unseen on British shores. Ms Uglow chuckles at a man in Norwich who blankets his banana plants in bubble wrap each winter to guard against the cold-he is not so different from the pineapple pioneers of the 17th century.

There is still snobbery, with people being judged by the contents of their trolley at garden centres. But gardening now, as in Shakespeare's time, is a language that everyone in Britain understands. It will change with fashion and technology, concludes Ms Uglow, but in important ways it will remain the same:

“We may think that we are tending our garden, but of course, in many different ways, it is the garden and the plants that are nurturing us.”

Exercise 1 Speak about the gardening in Britain.

Exercise 2 Write a report about the gardening in Ukraine.

LESSON VIII

Literature: Da Vinci, Codes and All That

In spite of its wooden dialogue, sketchily drawn characters and a plot that fails to fulfil its considerable promise, “The Da Vinci Code” has been a sensational bestseller. Dan Brown’s mix of murder and maths, Leonardo and the Holy Grail is “occult lite”; it lacks the feeling for maths and medieval mystery conveyed in “Foucault’s Pendulum”, Umberto Eco’s fictional trail through the occult, published 16 years ago. Yet “The Da Vinci Code” is well on the way to achieving cult status.

For one thing, it is beginning to spawn non-fictional supporting material. Simon Cox’s “Cracking the Da Vinci Code” purports to be the “guide to the facts behind the fiction”. Arranged as an alphabetical aid to people, places and groups mentioned in Mr Brown’s novel, it repeats things said in the novel with scarcely any additional illumination, and without the benefit of Mr Brown’s plot which is, at least until the end, fairly taut.

In “Math and the Mona Lisa”, Bulent Atalay attempts to address the actual art and science that gave Da Vinci his enduring fame. Two chapters two-thirds of the way through the book actually discuss Da Vinci, but the rest merely mention him tangentially while wandering on a disconnected journey through the totality of western art and science. At one point Mr Atalay, a professor of physics in Virginia, baldly asserts that Aristotle is the “most influential of all philosophers”. Perhaps this is true, but it needs some justification.

The book makes much of the “golden ratio”, or *phi*, a number which does indeed recur in art and nature. *Phi* has the unique property that subtracting the number one from it yields its inverse-rectangles whose sides are in the ratio of *phi* are said to be particularly pleasing. It is also the ratio that is approached as successive terms of the Fibonacci sequence - 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8... – are divided by one another. (Terms in the sequence are the sum of the two preceding terms, so the next term here is 13.) Fibonacci, whose real name was Leonardo of Pisa, was among the first to introduce Arabic numerals to Europe, in 1202.

No doubt, the nature of *phi* is an interesting subject, and it features in Mr Brown's twisty plot. But "Math and the Mona Lisa" is not the first book to list recurrences of *phi* in various places. Mr Atalay, it seems, once visited the pyramids as a young boy and found *phi* there. (He conveniently provides supporting evidence in the shape of a picture of himself at Giza.)

Another recent book discusses the achievements of both Leonardos far more captivantly as it builds up to the story of a remarkable proof made in 1824 by Niels Abel, a 21-year-old Norwegian mathematician, who died in poverty a scant five years later. Abel proved that equations of the fifth order cannot generally be solved. If the exact meaning of this sentence baffles you, read "Abel's Proof". It gives a clear exposition of the underlying mathematics and eloquently discusses the lives of mathematicians up to Abel's time.

Indeed, Peter Pesic's tale of how maths came to be is as exciting as any fiction. In contrast to Mr Atalay, who uses Da Vinci merely as a peg from which to hang his own ruffled cloak of a book, Mr Pesic uses Abel's proof as a focal point, which he approaches and moves away from with a measured, mathematical pace. He concludes with a cryptic page from one of Abel's notebooks which, riddled with drawings, writings and numbers, is reminiscent of Da Vinci's own scribbles. In the midst of the equations is scrawled a prayer: "Our Father who art in Heaven, give me bread and beer. Listen for once." The Norwegian mathematician and the Italian artist, though separated by centuries, might have got on rather well.

Exercise 1 Formulate 5 the questions on above text and find answers

Exercise 2 Tell about the book you have recently read

Exercise 3 Write a report about Leonardo Da Vinci's biography (or other artist or scientist)

The Second Course

LESSON I

Electoral System in Great Britain

Text A

Read and translate the text

The foundations of the electoral system were laid in the Middle Ages. Since then numerous Acts of Parliament have modified the system, but never in a systematic way. Fundamentally the system still has its ancient form, with each community electing its one representative to serve as its Member of Parliament until the next general election. If MP dies or resigns his seat, a by-election is held to replace him. Any British subject can be nominated as a candidate for any seat on payment of a deposit of £500, though peers and Church of England clergymen are disqualified from sitting in the House of Commons. There is no need to live in the area and less than half of the candidates are in fact focal residents. There are usually more than two candidates for each seat, but the one who receives most votes is elected. A large proportion is elected with less than half of the votes cast.

The franchise (right to vote) became universal for men by stages in the nineteenth century. Women's suffrage came in two stages (1918 and 1928) and in 1970 the minimum voting age was reduced to eighteen. Voting is not compulsory, but in the autumn of each year every householder is obliged by law to enter on the register of electors the name of every resident who is over seventeen and a UK citizen. Each register is valid for one year. It is only possible to vote at the polling station appropriate to one's address. Anyone who expects to be unable to vote there may apply in advance to be allowed to send the vote by post.

Because some areas increase in population while others decline, the division of the whole country into constituencies has to be changed from time to time so as to prevent gross inequalities of representation. The most important effect of the electoral system, with each seat won by the candidate with most votes, has been to sustain the dominance of two main rival parties. One forms the Government, the other the Opposition, hoping to change places after the next general election. The Prime Minister can choose the date of an election at any time that seems favourable, up to five years after the last. At an election the people choose "a Parliament" for five years. The development of opinion polls gives the Prime Minister a good idea of his or her party's chances month by month.

The two-party system which is the essential feature of modern British government is a product of the electoral system, rather than reflection of the wishes of the people. Many opinion polls, over many years, have indicated that most of the British people would prefer to use their most fundamental right, that of voting, in a system which would give fair representation. But both Conservatives and Labour claim that the existing electoral system is better than any other, and have produced objective arguments for it and the two-party dominance which it sustains.

Parliamentary Constituencies

Britain is divided into 650 parliamentary constituencies. Each constituency is a geographical area; the voters living within the area select one person to serve as a member of the House of Commons. The average number of electors in each constituency in England is about 70,000. Constituency boundaries are approved by Parliament following reviews by the Parliamentary Boundary Commissions. The reviews take place every 10-15 years.

The System of Voting

The simple majority system of voting is used in parliamentary elections in Britain. This means that the candidate with the largest number of votes in each constituency is elected, although he or she may not necessarily have received more than half the votes cast.

It is thought that this system favours a two-party system, particularly when the parties' support is concentrated geographically, as is the case with the Conservative and Labour parties. It does favour parties whose support is spread across constituencies, such as the Liberal Democrats, as they tend to accumulate relatively small numbers of votes in each constituency and consequently do not win many seats.

Voting is by Secret Ballot. Voters

All British citizens may vote provided they are aged 18 years or over and are not legally barred from voting.

Subject to the same conditions, citizens of other Commonwealth countries and the Irish Republic who are residents in Britain may also vote at parliamentary elections. All voters must be registered as residents in a constituency on a specified date.

Under recent legislation, British citizens living abroad may register to vote for up to 20 years after leaving Britain. It is believed that as a result a further 2 million British citizens may be entitled to vote. British citizens who are

working overseas as British Government employees also have the right to vote, regardless of how long they have been abroad.

Voting in elections is voluntary. On average about 75 per cent of the electorate votes.

Registering Voters

An electoral register for each constituency is prepared annually by electoral registration officers.

Registration officers arrange either to send forms to, or to call on every household in the constituency.

This information is used to compile electoral lists, which are displayed in public places in order to give individuals the opportunity to check that their names are included or to object to inclusions. People who disagree with the final decision of the registration officer may appeal to the courts.

Postal and Proxy Voting

Voters who are away from home at the time of an election – for example, on holiday or business – or who are unable to vote in person at the polling station, may apply for a postal or a proxy vote. The latter is a vote cast by a person authorized to vote on behalf of another. Postal ballot papers can be sent to addresses in Britain.

Candidates

Any person aged 21 or over who is a British citizen, or a citizen of another Commonwealth country or the Irish Republic, may stand for election to Parliament, providing they are not disqualified. The nomination paper must be signed by ten electors. At the same time a sum of £500 must be deposited on behalf of each candidate.

Candidates normally belong to one of the main political parties. However, smaller political parties and groups also put forward candidates, and individuals without party support also stand.

Exercise 1 Give English equivalents for the following word combinations:

Засади виборчої системи, всезагальні вибори, додаткові вибори, обрати одного представника до парламенту, виборче право, голосування не є обов'язковим, вносити до виборчого списку прізвище кожного постійного мешканця, виборча ділянка, виборчі списки є дійсними впродовж одного року, звертатися за дозволом проголосувати поштою, поділ країни на виборчі округи, запобігати порушення представництва,

назначати день виборів, суспільна думка, двопартійна система, право голосу, існуюча мажоритарна система.

Exercise 2 Answer the following questions:

- 1) What are the foundations of British electoral system?
- 2) Who can be nominated as a candidate?
- 3) What is the minimum voting age?
- 4) Why does the division of the whole country into constituencies have to be changed from time to time?
- 5) What have many opinion polls indicated over many years?

Text B

Read and translate the text

General elections, for all seats in the House of Commons, take place at least every five years. In exceptional circumstances, such as during the two world wars, the life of a Parliament has been extended beyond the five-year term.

The decision on when to hold a general election is made by the Prime Minister. The procedure involves the Queen, acting on the Prime Minister's advice, dissolving Parliament and calling a new Parliament. The Prime Minister usually announces the dissolution of Parliament and explains the reasons for holding the election. Voting takes place within 17 days of the dissolution.

Administration of elections. In each constituency a returning officer, usually a senior local government officer administers the election. He or she arranges for notices of election to appear in public places and for all electors to receive a poll card giving details of the voting arrangements. Returning officers also make the necessary arrangements for voting on polling day, including setting up polling stations and providing staff to run them.

For the purposes of voting, each constituency is divided into a number of polling districts. In each there is a polling station: many types of buildings, including schools, are used.

The official expenses of parliamentary elections, as opposed to candidates individual expenses, are paid by the Government.

Election Agents and Local Parties

Each parliamentary candidate must appoint an election agent, and by the end of the period for the nomination of candidates the name and address of the agent must be given to the returning officer.

Agents are responsible for running the campaign and, in particular, for controlling expenses in line with the legal restrictions on election campaign expenditure.

They should therefore be familiar with electoral law.

Members of each, constituency local party support the campaigns of parliamentary candidates. This involves raising, funds, preparing and distributing publicity materials and canvassing electors. Candidates' election expenses are strictly controlled by law.

Paid advertising on radio and television is not permitted.

After the election, agents must make a return of all expenses to the returning officer within 35 days of the day of the election.

Canvassing

Canvassing involves local party workers visiting the homes of voters and asking them whether they intend to vote for their party's candidate. During the campaign canvassing can provide candidates and their helpers with an indication of people's voting intentions and their attitude to particular issues. This enables them to adapt their campaign tactics.

In practice few constituency parties conduct comprehensive canvasses, as these would involve visits to the many thousands of homes in each constituency. The most thorough canvassing usually takes place in marginal constituencies although the results can often be unreliable, as people may offer the same assurances of support to canvassers from rival parties.

Opinion polls

As surveys of the views of the public, opinion polls play a major part in the general election campaign process. Their findings are much discussed by the media and influence the parties' campaigns.

During general election campaigns almost all the national newspapers commission their own opinion polls.

National opinion polls involve samples of 1,000 – 2,000 people from across the country, selected to represent, as nearly as possible, a cross-section of the electorate. They are normally conducted by independent commercial organizations. People are questioned over period of one or two days. As well as questions on voting intentions, people are often asked about their opinions on a range of political issues and on their attitudes to the different parties' policies. They may also be asked for their views on the party leaders, and about who would make the best Prime Minister.

Exercise 1 Give Ukrainian equivalents for the following word combinations:

to hold a general elections, to dissolve Parliament, call a new Parliament, to explain the reasons, in exceptional circumstances, to extent beyond the five-year term, to involve the Queen, acting on the Prime Minister's advice, to announce the dissolution of Parliament, voting, constituency, a returning officer, senior government officer, to administer the election, to receive a poll card, voting arrangements, polling day, to set up polling stations, to provide staff, make necessary arrangements, official expenses, individual candidates' expenses, election agents, local parties, to appoint an election agent, to be responsible for running the campaign, to control expenses, election campaign expenditure, election law, to raise funds, to prepare publicity materials, to canvass electors, paid advertising, to make a return of all expenses to the returning officer, to vote for a candidate, to provide candidates with an indication of people's voting intentions, attitude to, marginal constituency, (un) reliable results, canvassers, opinion polls, surveys of opinion polls, mass media, represent a cross-section of the electorate, a range of political issues.

Exercise 2 Answer the following questions:

- 1) How often do general elections take place?
- 2) What is the procedure of dissolving Parliament (calling a new Parliament like? Who does it involve?
- 3) Where do people vote? Where are polling stations set up?
- 4) What are election agents responsible for?
- 5) Why do opinion polls play a major part in the general election campaign process?

LESSON II

Europe: The Problems of European Union

The European Union has achieved much, but it may now be pushing up against its limits

For many centuries Europe was the world's most powerful, prosperous and technologically advanced continent. That period of European cultural and political dominance came to a definitive end with the Second World War. In 1945 Germany was defeated; France was half-starved and humiliated; Britain was bankrupt and on the point of losing its empire; Spain was a backward,

isolated dictatorship; and the countries of central and eastern Europe had been in ruins. Nobody would have guessed that Europe was at the beginning of a new golden age.

In 2004, a continent that had been wracked by war for centuries can look back on almost 60 years spent largely at peace. A continent that lay in economic ruins in 1945 is now prosperous as never before. A continent that in 1942 could list only four proper democracies is almost entirely democratic. Since 1989 there is free movement of people and common political institutions for 25 countries, stretching from the Atlantic coast of Portugal to the borders of Russia.

This new period of peace and prosperity has coincided with the rise of a new form of political and economic organisation. The founding fathers of what is now the European Union – Jean Monnet, a French civil servant, and Robert Schuman, a French foreign minister of the 1950s – were convinced that the origins of conflict in Europe lay in the continent's system of competing nation-states. As Schuman put it, "Because Europe was not united, we have had war." Those founding fathers were determined to build a new union in Europe that would banish conflict for good. Their building-blocks were economic, but their goals were political.

Starting with agreements between six countries on the pooling of coal and steel resources in 1951 and moving on to the creation of a common market in 1957, the EU has gradually spread into a plethora of activities. Today it is hard to think of a field of public policy in which it is not active. It is involved in everything from foreign policy to immigration, and is reckoned to be responsible for around half of all new laws passed in its member states.

The people who run the European Commission in Brussels like to believe that this golden age of peace and prosperity is directly linked to the rise of the EU. Yet this view is often contested. Peace in Europe, it is argued, could equally be credited to the presence of American troops on European soil, and prosperity to the same causes of economic growth as in the United States or Asia, such as rising productivity and increasing trade. As for freedom, the revolutions in central Europe and Spain, Portugal and Greece were not led from Brussels.

Indeed, say critics of the EU, far from promoting peace, prosperity and freedom, it now threatens all of these achievements. In Britain, for example, Eurosceptics see a direct threat to British self-government and democracy in the many laws emanating from institutions in Brussels over which the British electorate has no control. In Britain and elsewhere, critics also argue that the EU is increasingly responsible for a tide of unnecessary regulation that is engulfing the European economy. And some believe that its overweening ambition may end up causing exactly the sort of conflicts that it has been seeking to eradicate. Martin Feldstein, an eminent American economist, has argued that the launch of a single European currency could cause political tensions culminating in war.

But for now the EU is riding high, with more and more countries seeking to join it. Having started with just six members in 1957 – Belgium, France,

Germany, Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands – the EU now has 25. Its biggest ever expansion was completed in May this year with the addition of ten new members, mainly from the former Soviet block. The Poles, the Spanish and others undoubtedly won their freedom without any help from Brussels. But they all saw joining the EU as a way of consolidating democratic gains and spurring economic and political modernisation. For much the same reasons Turkey and the Balkan countries are now waiting in the wings.

Enlargement should be enough of a challenge to keep the Brussels machine humming for the foreseeable future. But oddly enough, many of the most ardent believers in the creation of a European federation see enlargement as an unwelcome distraction from the EU's most urgent business: to develop into a real political union. Enlargement and political union-“widening” and “deepening” the EU-have often been portrayed as opposing courses, but in fact in the past five years they have moved ahead simultaneously. On January 1st 2002, 12 EU countries ditched their national currencies and adopt a new single currency, the euro; and in June 2004, the 25 EU governments agreed on the Union's first ever written constitution.

Over the past decade Europe, a continent often accused of sclerotic caution, has displayed a daring political imagination that has produced a run of successes. Javier Solana, the EU's foreign-policy chief, explains: “Our philosophy is jump in the pool, there is always water there.”

The trouble with that kind of philosophy is that it can eventually lead to a nasty accident, and indeed the European project looks increasingly troubled. Economically, the EU is falling further behind the United States, and can only envy the dynamism of China or India. Politically, its members have been at each other's throats over Iraq, the management of the euro and the constitution. Perhaps most dangerously of all, the EU is plagued by a lack of popular understanding and enthusiasm.

The Penalties of Success

The survey will argue that many of the EU's current difficulties stem from its past successes. In post-war Europe, achieving peace and re-establishing prosperity seemed like urgent and difficult tasks that required political sacrifices. Indeed, the very depth of the political integration achieved so far has caused something of a backlash as the EU has gained new powers that threaten deeply rooted national traditions. Sometimes this has been in important fields such as frontier controls and fiscal policy, but sometimes, too, it has been in areas that irritate by their triviality.

The post-war gains in European prosperity may also have begun to create their own problems. Rich countries such as Germany and France were encouraged to develop elaborate welfare states which are becoming increasingly unaffordable as populations age. Before the creation of a single EU market and a

single currency, such problems could be regarded as mainly national in character. But now they can cause tensions across the Union.

Enlargement is another example of a success that makes the EU a riskier place. By increasing the diversity of political interests and views within the Union, it has made them much harder to contain within a single framework.

European federalists – the heirs to Monnet and Schuman – are well aware of these problems. Some believe that a new impetus for European unity can be provided by trying to build up the EU into a new superpower—a global force that can equal the United States. But so far any moves in that direction have served only to deepen divisions within the EU, in particular over attitudes to America.

The EU's new constitution represents another effort to preserve and deepen European unity, but it too could backfire. For the constitution to come into force, it must be approved by all 25 EU countries. At least 11 of them are likely to hold referendums, and in a few of those, notably Britain, the verdict is likely to be negative. Such an outcome could well provoke a crisis within the Union.

This survey will conclude that the EU may indeed split. But a split need not be a disaster. It could lead to a multi-layered EU in which different countries adopt different levels of political integration and experiment with different economic models. If the EU were preserved as an over-arching framework, it could actually benefit from such diversity. But there is also a darker, if less likely possibility. A split in the EU could cause Europe once again to divide into rival power blocks. That could threaten what most agree is the Union's central achievement: peace in Europe.

Exercise 1 Complete the following sentences and translate them:

- 1) For many centuries Europe was the world's most
.....
- 2) In 2004, a continent that had been wracked by war for centuries can look back on
- 3) The people who run the European Commission in Brussels like to believe that this golden age of peace and prosperity is
.....
- 4) Having started with just six members in 1957
.....
- 5) On January 1st 2002, 12 EU countries ditched their national currencies and adopt a new single currency; and in June 2004, the 25 EU governments agreed on the Union's first ever
- 6) Politically, its members have been at each other's, the management of
- 7) For the constitution to come into force, it must be approved by
.....

- 8) If the EU were preserved as an over-arching framework, it could actually..... .
- 9) That could threaten what most agree is the Union's central achievement:

Exercise 2 Write a report "Peace and Politics in our Time"

LESSON III

History: Mary Queen of Scots and her Mother-in-law

A sympathetic reappraisal of two difficult women

Any writer who spends a year or more in the company of an historical figure is liable to conclude that the subject has been wronged by posterity. Rehabilitation is more difficult if, as in the case of Mary Queen of Scots and her mother-in-law, Catherine de Medici, contemporaries seem to have concurred with the modern view of the pair as unhinged plotters. But John Guy and Leonie Rieda do their best.

The case against Mary Queen of Scots is the weaker one, even though it once seemed strong enough to condemn her. The fledgling monarch lost her liberty in 1567, when she was accused of murdering her second husband. She spent two decades imprisoned in various castles—a boon to the tourism industry, but almost certainly an injustice. Through an ingenious reading of Mary's letters, John Guy proves much of the evidence against her to be forged, and reveals the identity of the forger: William Cecil, the ruthless adviser to Queen Elizabeth I of England.

The same Elizabeth signed Mary's death warrant in 1587. She did so reluctantly, though, and only after her Scottish cousin had become involved in a plot that mixed Catholic uprising and Spanish invasion. To the charge of treason, Mary's biographer pleads guilty with an explanation. The queen had become desperate; the plot was demented and, again, the whole affair was cynically exploited by the English.

Catherine de Medici's reputation is harder to salvage. Like Mary, she was inclined to intrigue—but unlike Mary, she was savagely good at it. Peevish, superstitious and swathed perpetually in black (this in the most exuberant court in Europe), she was more or less involved in the killing of a string of inconvenient courtiers. Even her embalmed corpse proved obnoxious, and she was buried under cover of darkness.

History remembers Catherine mostly as the architect of the appalling St Bartholomew's Day massacre, which ended the hopes of Protestantism in France. Leonie Frieda finds this unfair, although the excuse she provides is almost as incriminating. The queen mother wanted to rub out a few Huguenot noblemen, and foolishly misjudged the mood of the Catholic street.

Special pleading aside, the biographies do make Mary and Catherine more sympathetic. Both were exiles-Catherine an Italian living in Paris; Mary a Scot removed to France and then, just when she had become accustomed to her new home, cast back into Scotland. Both women were natural moderates in an era of religious extremism. And both were consistently outmanoeuvred by less scrupulous and, frankly, more talented rivals.

Does any of this really matter? It is one thing to burnish a queen's reputation, but what an historical biography ought to do is tell the reader something new about the times in which the subject lived. Miss Frieda's book, despite its clear rendering of the factions afflicting 16th-century France, does not do this. John Guy's book does, and so successfully that a tradition of royal biography is thrown into question.

Mr Guy's innovation is most obvious in his descriptions of royal ceremonies and processions. There were a lot of these in 16th-century Europe, and they did not always go well. Mary's triumphal 1561 entry into Edinburgh, for example, was marred by public drunkenness (too much free wine laid on to pull in the crowds) and by the local Calvinists, who slyly inserted Protestant propaganda into the festivities.

At other times, Mary's handlers managed her public face better. They sent a portrait of the queen to the less beautiful Elizabeth, and produced dinner plates celebrating Mary's supremacy over France and the British Isles-at one point, the English ambassador was served a meal on these plates. So much was spent, and so ostentatiously, that local shopkeepers refused credit to the royal household.

These details do much more than provide historical colour. Together, they show what the monarchy was (and is) about. Public displays of wealth and power, it seems, were not just what royalty did; instead, they were what it was. As the anthropologist Clifford Geertz observed, in a rather different context, "power served pomp, not pomp power." The intrigues that Mary and Catherine indulged in seem more real to us, who can translate them into modern political terms. But to them, appearance was all.

Exercise 1 Answer the following sentences to obtain a summary of the text:

- 1) Why did Elizabeth I sign Mary Stuart's death warrant?
- 2) By what is Catherine de Medici associated in history?
- 3) What was common between Mary Queen of Scots and Catherine de Medici?

Exercise 2 Write the report “Elisabeth I’s Rein. The Golden Age of English History”

LESSON IV

Education: New Angles on Degrees

British universities are expanding fast abroad. But real competition is looming

Defeatist dons and diffident vice-chancellors are still tiresome fixtures of the British university scene. But for those with enough oomph to market themselves to foreigners, business is booming. Figures released last week by the Sutton Trust, an educational charity, show that there are 165,000 overseas students in Britain—meaning those from outside the European Union (EU) – and their number is rising sharply, by half since 1996, and by nearly a fifth in the last year alone. That now brings in about *1 billion (\$1.8 billion) a year in fee income.

But behind those figures is a less familiar and potentially even better business—teaching foreigners abroad. These range from glorified distance learning (simply teaching over the internet from Britain), to franchising courses to foreign partners, and sending dons to teach abroad, either while attached to a host university, or ultimately in a separate entity. Nottingham University, the leader in this field, has a campus in Malaysia and is about to open another one in China.

The Higher Education Statistics Agency reckons that there are about 70,000 foreign students on courses run by British universities overseas. But Neil Kemp, a specialist at the British Council, which promotes British culture abroad, says the real figure may be as high as 200,000.

British universities that take this seriously have found it rewarding. Foreign students pay realistic fees (in contrast to the loss-making business of teaching home students). Teaching them abroad may be cheaper. The profits are good. “It means we can pay our staff better and provide better facilities for our home students, better library stock, and our buildings are better maintained,” says Michael Driscoll, vice-chancellor of Middlesex University. Courses abroad also help recruit students into British-based study later. The result, says Roger King, a British-based expert on the global higher education business, can be more than 10% extra turnover for a university that runs its offshore business well.

Easy money can mean murky business. In a report on China, the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA), the higher education standards watchdog, says that a

number of British institutions had claimed to have “no collaborative arrangements with Chinese partners.” But on visiting Chinese universities, the QAA found that “some of these did, in fact, have established partnership links”. This, the report notes daily, “caused some confusion”.

Keeping tabs on deals done in distant countries by hard-up or inexperienced universities can be tricky. The QAA does not inspect foreign operations systematically. But it makes spot checks, sometimes with surprising results. Last month, for example, it criticised Bristol, one of the country’s best-known universities, for an amateurishly administered postgraduate course in music therapy run jointly with a charity in Italy.

But what of the host countries? According to Mr King they increasingly want the foreigners to develop a physical presence, rather than just selling courses. It also means stressing quality. Malaysia, for example, has just announced that only foreign institutions ranked highly at home—in the top 60, in the case of Britain—may set up shop there. Australia has just set up its equivalent of the QAA to try to stiffen offshore standards.

The big question now, though, is how Britain will fare against the competition. Australian and American universities, particularly private ones, are pushing their courses in the developing world hard. They teach in English too, and are particularly strong in the most popular subjects such as business and computing. British universities have an advantage for the time being, because their three-year courses look better value than the four-year courses offered by most competitors. But that could easily change. As the market becomes more quality-conscious and more competitive, some of the weaker British universities are likely to find the pickings as thin abroad as they are at home.

Exercise 1 Formulate 10 questions on above text and find answers

Exercise 2 Give a short description of

- 1) British universities overseas;
- 2) Global education business;
- 3) Australian and American private universities.

LESSON V

Sport: London's Olympic Spirit

Britain last hosted the Olympics in 1948. Londoners, like economists, aren't much more enthusiastic this time round

Given the amount of sniggering the Greek government has had to put up with over its stadium in Athens, currently sitting roofless in the dust like a discarded oyster shell, it is perhaps surprising that there is a queue to host the Olympics. Yet the shortlist of cities for the 2012 Games, announced by the International Olympic Committee (IOC) on Tuesday, is the most competitive ever. London is on it, along with three other capitals – Paris, Moscow and Madrid and New York.

London has some good plans too. They involve picturesque locations like Wimbledon for tennis and Lord's cricket ground for archery. Horse Guards Parade would be used for beach volleyball and Hyde Park for the triathlon.

Good plans are not enough, though. A winning city needs a professional team pushing the bid and the power of public opinion behind it. It is not clear that London has either. Barbara Cassani, an American whose charm and determination had won over many sceptics, resigned as head of the team when the shortlist was announced. The Olympic lobby was shocked. Some blamed anti-Americanism. She has been replaced by Sebastian Coe, who used to be a fine athlete but has yet to prove himself as a manager and hustler.

Nor are Londoners wildly enthusiastic (see chart). Politicians share their ambivalence. Britain got going late because the government dithered for nearly a year. Tony Blair has voiced his support, but not as loudly as France's president, Jacques Chirac, who likes to wander into Olympic press conferences and do a little publicity for the Paris bid. Tessa Jowell, the minister responsible for sport, has none of the clout of her French counterpart, Jean-Francois Lamour, twice a gold medal winner for fencing. Gordon Brown, the chancellor, is said to be against the bid.

Though financial disasters like the Montreal Games are now rare, few Olympics manage to turn a profit. The exceptions, like Los Angeles in 1984, do so by not building much new stuff. London, by contrast, is planning a 500-acre Olympic park, complete with athletes' village, indoor arenas and swimming pool, in the lower Lea Valley, an unloved bit of east London.

The Olympics' supporters argue that, even if they made a loss, the wider boost the Games will bring would be worth it. The evidence for this is shaky. Robert Baade, an economist at Chicago's Lake Forest College, says that the perceived benefits of successful Games like Sydney tend to be offset by the number of tourists who stay away. He also reckons that increased economic activity in the host city has come at the rest of the country's expense.

There is little data on the economic impact on Olympic cities, but Mr Baade studied what the 1994 soccer World Cup did to its nine American host cities. They had been expected to benefit from a \$4 billion economic boost. Mr Baade reckons that, instead, the event depressed growth, as some tourists kept away to avoid football fans. Stefan Szymanski, of Tanaka Business School at Imperial College in London, also doubts the economic claims made for such events. “The Olympics is like having a big party and building a bridge that everyone crosses once,” he says.

All the candidate cities face this problem. But London has a particular difficulty. In its report on the shortlist, the TOG described London’s rail system as “often obsolete” and the roads as congested.

Part of the problem is that, until recently, it had been assumed that the Olympics would hasten, and benefit from, Crossrail, a long-mooted plan for a high speed east-west railway across the city. An unpublished report by Arup, an engineering firm, for the British Olympic Association and the Greater London Authority, says that “without Crossrail and without event rescheduling (i.e. the worst-case scenario) the network cannot cope with the expected level of demand.” Event rescheduling-fitting the Games around London’s commuters – is not popular with the IOC. And now nobody expects Crossrail to be built in time.

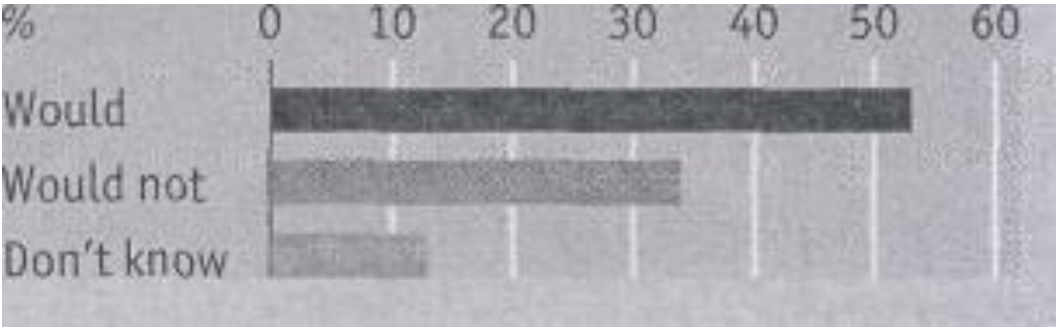
The Arup report is also gloomy on the economics of the Games. It estimates the balance of costs and benefits at somewhere between a surplus of £82 m (\$145 m.) and a loss of £145 m.

London’s Olympic bid does have one prominent friend, however. The mayor, Ken Livingstone, has recognised an opportunity to force central government to spend lots of money on London’s transport. The pressure has already started: as soon as the shortlist was announced, the bid’s leaders said that without increased spending London would lose.

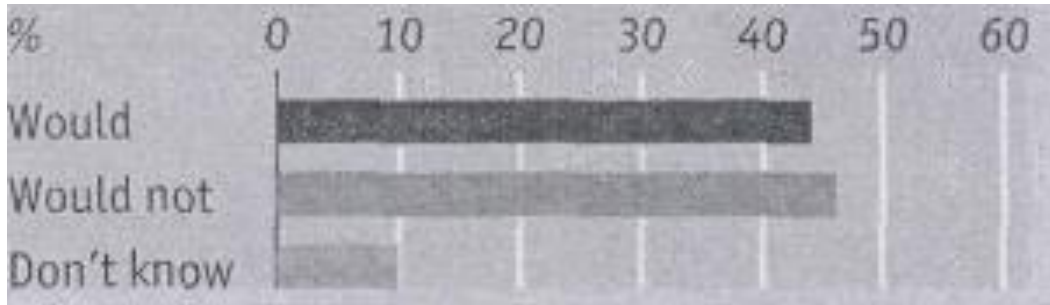
Fixing the transport would be popular. But Londoners, it seems, could do without the Olympics that go with it.

Medals or Millstones?

Would you like the 2012 Olympic Games to be held in London?



Holding the Olympic Games in London in 2012 will cost the average London household *279, spread over ten years, on top of *1.5 billion coming from the National Lottery Fund. Knowing this, would you like the 2012 Olympic Games to be held in London?



Exercise 1 Give Ukrainian equivalents:

The amount of, to put up with, like a discarded oyster shell, a queue to host the Olympics, the shortlist, to involve, would be used for, public opinion, hustler, the wider boost, to reckon, football fans, to face this problem, benefit, to estimate the balance of costs, a surplus, to announce, increased spending.

Exercise 2 List the points made in the article **for** and **against** hosting Olympic Games in London (Chart.)

LESSON VI

Science: The Last Giant

A long-planned mission to Saturn is about to arrive

On June 11th *Cassini*, an American spacecraft, flew past Phoebe, one of the moons of Saturn. Though the craft will take a further 20 days in reach Saturn itself, that flyby marked its entry into the solar-system-in-miniature which consists of the eponymous planet, 31 named moons and the myriad un-named moonlets that make up Saturn's famous rings.

It is journey's end in more ways than one. For *Cassini* (named after Giovanni Cassini, a 17th-century astronomer who studied Saturn) is both the last representative of an old way of doing space exploration, and the last scheduled mission to the outer part of the solar system. *Cassini*, when all the bills are in, will have cost about \$3 billion. This sum is 10-15 times more than unmanned

missions by NASA, America's space agency, are now supposed to cost under the "smaller, faster, cheaper" policy promulgated by Dan Goldin, NASA's administrator during most of the 1990s. But apart from tentative plans for a trip to Pluto and another look at Jupiter's moons, neither of which may actually fly, all the small, last, cheap missions in the pipeline are to bodies within the orbit of Jupiter. This, in other words, may be the last chance for decades to look at the outer solar system in close up.

In many ways *Cassini* is the twin of *Galileo*, a probe to Jupiter which was deliberately crashed into that planet in 2003, after spending eight years exploring the Jovian system. It was conceived at the same time as *Galileo*, in the 1970s. Like *Galileo*, it crept in under the wire before "smaller, faster, cheaper" took effect. Like *Galileo*, its target is one of the huge "gas giant" planets that inhabit the outer reaches of the solar system, rather than one of the small, rocky inner planets. And like *Galileo*, it has a small, detachable probe to get up-close and personal with an object of interest.

Saturn's Children

In the case of *Galileo*, though, the probe was launched into Jupiter itself. *Cassini*'s probe, called *Huygens*, and built by NASA's transatlantic counterpart, the European Space Agency, will descend to the surface of Titan, Saturn's largest moon. Titan, discovered in 1655 by Christian Huygens, was thought for a long time to be the only moon in the solar system with an atmosphere. This is now known to be false (three others have atmospheres, though Titan's is by far the densest), but its gaseous covering, which *Huygens* will investigate, still makes it of interest in the continuing search to find signs of life on a body other than Earth.

Titan's atmosphere—mostly nitrogen, with some hydrocarbons mixed in—is not promising as a habitat. But it might, so the story goes, resemble the atmosphere of the primitive, pre-biotic Earth, and thus yield clues about how life got going on the sun's third planet.

Well, perhaps. But what the exploration of Titan will really do is add another stamp to the album of planetary bodies that are reasonably well understood. All scientific disciplines begin with "stamp collecting" (in other words, gathering examples without really knowing what to do with them). They then progress to classification (when there are enough examples for patterns to emerge). After that, with a bit of luck, comes understanding. Though Titan does not orbit the sun directly, it is planet-sized, and will thus be a precious addition to the collection.

Saturn itself is rather a different sort of stamp. While Titan resembles the rocky inner planets, Saturn is mostly atmosphere. Here, the reference point is Jupiter, the solar system's largest planet. Saturn, the second largest, is similar to Jupiter even down to the rings (though Jupiter's rings are much less

ostentatious). *Cassini* is packed with instruments for studying Saturn's atmosphere, magnetic field and so on. But what most people really want to see are close-up pictures of the gorgeous swirls of the planet's atmosphere, and the curious braiding of its rings.

NASA, no slouch at public relations, will make sure the taxpaying public gets these while the scientists get on with the dull but necessary measurements that will help to bridge the gap between stamp collecting and understanding. Those measurements, and that understanding, should also prove that even \$3 billion is cheap science when compared with what has gone into, and come out of, the International Space Station.

Exercise 1 Answer the following questions:

- 1) What do Saturn's famous rings make up?
- 2) Who was Giovanni Cassini?
- 3) What probe was deliberately crashed by Jupiter in 2003?
- 4) What is Saturn's largest moon?
- 5) What do people really want to see?

Exercise 2 Give a short description of Saturn.

LESSON VII

Outstanding People: The Final Encyclopedist. Ilya Mechnikov

The Nobel Prize winner and outstanding scientist Ilya Mechnikov, whose 160th birth anniversary we are marking at this time (born on May 5, 1845) began his ascent to prominence in Ukraine's Smila district, Ilya Mechnikov owed his deliverance from loneliness, depression, and despair to his love for Olha Mykolayivna Bilokopytova. A native of the village of Popovka in Smila district, she entered his life as an angel of happiness and optimism. Thanks to his wife, Mechnikov was able to find harmony in life, which he had lacked in adolescence, and devote himself fully to science. It was after his marriage to Olha that he made his greatest discoveries. He started his research into the body's defenses, which led him to develop his brilliant phagocytosis theory of immunity while working in a simple home laboratory at the Popovka estate belonging to his in-laws.

Throughout her life Olha was a source of strength and support for her husband. She both comforted and assisted him. It's not surprising that Ilya Mechnikov not only loved his wife tenderly until his death, but also deeply

respected her as a person. It is no accident that Olha, who survived her husband by many years, wrote in her memoirs: “We lived in perfect unity and achieved total spiritual fusion and mutual understanding, which left no room for shadows, only all-pervading light.”

A young and promising assistant professor at Novorossiysk (Odessa) University, Ilya Mechnikov became disillusioned with St. Petersburg. In 1867 he travelled to the Russian Empire’s northern capital in the hopes of finding better conditions for research, only to find unheated university laboratories that were also chilling to the soul. Poor living conditions and lack of funds forced him to moonlight and pinch pennies.

He failed to obtain an appointment to chair the zoology department at the Medical Academy, a position for which he was recommended by Ivan Sechenov, the father of Russian physiology. This losing streak and unfulfilled ambitions led to depression, which brought the young scientist to the verge of despair. His only consolation was the family of Professor Andrei Beketov. Ilya Mechnikov had befriended Beketov’s children and even entertained the idea that by controlling the upbringing of Beketov’s oldest daughter he would be able to mold her into a perfect wife and prepare a companion for his future life. But this was not destined to happen, for it was Beketov’s niece, rather than his daughter, who soon became Mechnikov’s bride. In 1868 the hapless dreamer developed a severe form of angina. After learning about his young colleague’s ailment, the professor brought him to his home to recover. Beketov’s niece, Liudmyla Fedorovych, nursed him back to health in a most sensitive and touching manner. As they grew closer, their friendship turned to love.

In January 1869 St. Petersburg witnessed the unusual wedding ceremony of a robust young man and a pale young woman, who was brought into the church in a chair – Ilya Mechnikov and his bride, who was succumbing to tuberculosis. Mechnikov’s marriage to Liudmyla Fedorovych did not bring him the peace he so craved. His wife was dying, and he traveled with her from hospital to hospital, hoping for a miracle. He tried to cure her with koumiss at his parents’ estate in Kharkiv province. He secured a subsidy from his university to take her to Italy, and then to Switzerland and Normandy. When nothing seemed to be helping his wife, Mechnikov decided on a final desperate effort. After returning to Odessa, he arranged for a research trip abroad and took Liudmyla to the paradise island of Madeira in the Atlantic Ocean.

On one of his field trips Mechnikov discovered a cave with bones and skulls that belonged to the natives of the island, the tall, blue-eyed Guanches whom the Spaniards never conquered. They preferred to die rather than surrender. The bones and skulls that were discovered by Mechnikov, as well as the natives’ dolphin-like whistling language, which was subsequently adopted by their conquerors, is all that remained of the original inhabitants of these islands. Given a little more time and luck, the researcher from faraway Russia would have discovered the ancient mummies of the Guanches, which closely

resembled the Egyptian mummies. In his memoirs Mechnikov described Tenerife as an “island of heroes” and Madeira as a “grave smothered in flowers.” He couldn’t have been closer to the truth. The black-humored Englishmen also referred to the island as one of London’s many graveyards.

Liudmyla passed away on April 20, 1873. There was no wheeled transport on Madeira, so Mechnikov’s wife was placed on an ox-drawn sleigh. She was buried amid tropical flowers. Refusing to attend the funeral, Mechnikov tore his works to pieces, destroying many valuable studies and documents.

In his last will and testament dated April 20, 1908, Ilya Mechnikov recognized that he had lived a happy life. In his time the French literary great Henri Marie Beyle (Stendhal) devised a formula of happiness, which he believed to be the sum of love and work. Mechnikov loved and did plenty of his favorite work. It is difficult to overstate his contribution to science. He made countless discoveries in zoology, parasitology, and embryology. His greatest scientific achievement was the discovery of phagocytosis, which was based on his concepts of the evolution of the digestive function in animals. Mechnikov proved that phagocytes (specific cells found in animals) can engulf and digest foreign particles and invading bacteria. This defensive adaptation of organisms plays a tremendous role in their survival. Mechnikov’s phagocytosis theory met with vehement resistance from veteran scientists. But, through his research and exhaustive scientific discussions, Mechnikov succeeded in proving his skeptics wrong. Moreover, to some extent he managed to reconcile his concepts of immunity as a phagocytosis phenomenon with essentially chemical concepts of immunology that were reflected in the works of the prominent German bacteriologist Paul Erlich. It seems the Nobel Committee was of the same opinion, because in 1908 it awarded a Nobel Prize both to Mechnikov and Erlich.

Notably, Mechnikov’s theory explained not only the phenomena of inflammation and immunity. He expanded it to cover atrophy and ageing processes in animals. Mechnikov also researched the bacteriology, etiology, and epidemiology of such dangerous human diseases as cholera, plague, tuberculosis, typhoid fever, etc. Finally, he dedicated the last fifteen years of his life almost entirely to researching the problems of old age and death, and proposed the theory of orthobiosis – a happy old age and peaceful death. He claimed that freeing humans from disease could prolong their life span to 150 or 160 years. He dedicated countless studies to the problems of life span, ageing, and natural death. Mechnikov is thus the founder of gerontology, an important field in contemporary medical science. Incidentally, he also coined this term.

Mechnikov is also the founder of chemotherapy. His research into cytokines (antibodies) facilitated modern insights into the nature of transplant rejection. Therefore, he was also at the forefront of this nascent field in medical science.

Mechnikov's profound philosophical treatises – "Studies on Human Nature" (1903), "Studies on Optimism" (1907), and "Forty Years in Search of a Rational Worldview" (1913) – contain his philosophical credo and scientific testament for succeeding generations. Especially noteworthy is his conviction that "we must continue living, not ageing." Ilya Mechnikov also focused on such a complex issue as the moral aspects of science. He was known for his revolutionary views on upbringing and marriage, which resisted from his research on the influence of love on the creative potential of celebrated individuals.

Ilya Mechnikov was rightfully considered one of the world's last encyclopedists. His zeal for work was impressive and sometimes alarmed his wife. For example, it took him only one year to write his voluminous 600-page thesis entitled "Immunity to Infectious Diseases." Interestingly enough, only after producing a new chapter would he supplement it with accurate bibliographic references to books that he quoted from memory. Mechnikov had a phenomenal memory and ability to simultaneously contemplate and generalize various issues and data. Even though his predecessors had observed the phenomenon of phagocytosis, they failed to give meaning to it. Meanwhile, Mechnikov understood that he was dealing not with an isolated phenomenon but with a profound biological problem. This was the special attribute of his genius - he was reasoning in a way that nobody had done before him. Mechnikov was staunchly dedicated to science and spent his own money to buy humanlike apes and even crocodiles for his tests. On July 22, 1910, he sent a letter to his wife, who was then sketching in the foothills of the Pyrenees, saying, "There is nothing better than work. It is both pleasurable and useful, and better than any recreation. It is tremendously rewarding."

Exercise 1 Formulate 10 questions on above text and find answers

Exercise 2 Speak on the most important Mechnikov's discoveries.

LESSON VIII

Biotechnology: Sea of Dreams

Genetically modified microbes will lead to a revolution in industrial biotechnology

Craig Venter, the man who led the privately funded project to sequence the human genome, is someone who likes to mix business with pleasure. And

for a geneticist whose passion is sailing, there can be few more satisfying ways of doing so than sampling genes in the Sargasso sea, near Bermuda. The samples he took there last year yielded a surprise. The sea had looked as though it was the oceanic equivalent of a desert, bereft of nutrients, and with little life beyond the Sargassum weed that gives the sea its name. But when Dr Venter ran his samples through his newly developed method for sequencing the DNA of an entire environment, some 1.2 m new genes turned up from an estimated 1,800 species of microbe previously unknown to science. An apparently empty sea was teeming with bacterial life.

Such newly discovered genes are the raw material for the infant, but rapidly developing field that makes useful chemicals via genetically modified organisms. It is part of what is known as industrial biotechnology, where cells from animals, plants and bacteria are used to generate industrially useful products. The Sargasso results, outlined last week to the World Congress on Industrial Biotechnology and Bioprocessing, in Orlando, Florida, by Dr Venter's colleague Karin Remington, suggest there are a lot of useful raw materials to be found.

Dr Venter's Institute for Biological Energy Alternatives, based in Rockville, Maryland, is now taking further samples from around the world. Although Dr Venter is turning such bioprospecting from a sport using a fishing line to one using a trawling net, looking for new bacteria is already a well-established activity. The business models of firms such as Diversa, a company based in San Diego, are centred on it.

Blowing Hot and Cold

Diversa is prospecting in hot springs, ocean beds, soda lakes and on the Arctic tundra. The genes it, and others, are looking for are instructions for producing proteins-many of which are natural catalysts inside living cells. By searching in wild and wonderful environments, microbiologists hope to find new genes that might be of use to investors and customers.

Many people now hope that this year's Orlando congress will become an annual event. They see industrial biotechnology as the wave of the future-a phenomenon that will eventually rock entire economies. Whether this is the case or not, in the shorter term it does seem likely that industrial biotechnology will shake up the chemical industry. And it may provide a route to a future less dependent on fossil fuels, and one that puts less climate-changing carbon dioxide into the atmosphere.

Finding a gene, though, is only the first step towards a product of commercial interest. Philippe Soucaille, chief scientific officer of a company called Metabolic Explorer, based in Clermont-Ferrand, France, told the meeting that his firm is working with a database of all the biochemical pathways it can get its hands on and a computer model of the metabolism of a bacterium called

Escherichia coli. This is the most popular organism for bacterial geneticists to experiment upon, their equivalent to a laboratory rat.

Given a starting material and an end-product, Metabolic Explorer's system will assemble the best set of pathways and then work out how to fit them into *E. coli*, and say which existing *E. coli* pathways should be deleted. It will also identify potential biochemical bottlenecks where enzymes might need modifying to speed things up. Thus the company can pick-and-mix biochemical pathways from different organisms and put them together in a single bacterium, as a computer programmer might assemble a piece of software from pre-written sub-routines.

Once the pathways have been selected, and the new enzymes designed, it is just a question of adding the relevant genes to *E. coli*, removing the genes for the undesired pathways, and seeing whether the result lives up to expectations. Metabolic Explorer has already done such work under contract for several other firms. Currently it is using the process for its own benefit, to produce methionine, an amino-acid animal – feed supplement with a market worth \$1.4 billion a year. Bio-Technical Resources, of Manitowoc, Wisconsin, has used a similar technique to produce glucosamine, an amino-acid supplement favoured by many people with arthritis.

Such sums, of course, are peanuts compared with the money to be made outside the niche end of the chemicals market. But they represent a bonanza to small biotechnology firms. And industrial biotechnology looks set to make further inroads into the market for boutique chemicals. Many other products have fallen, or look ready to fall, to biotechnological processes that are cheaper than traditional chemistry, have higher yields or produce a cleaner product. These include other amino-acid supplements, vitamin supplements, antibiotics, anti-influenza drugs, foundation creams for cosmetics and even the solid rocket-fuel that is used in air-to-air missiles. According to Jens Riese, of McKinsey, a consultancy, about 5% by value of the world's chemical output is already biotech-based and this is expected to rise to 10% over the next six years.

All this progress is largely invisible to the public. Indeed, given the consternation about public reactions to agricultural biotech, there were some misgivings among delegates as to what would happen when the public realised what was going on. If the next phase of industrial biotechnology works, the field's profile will grow considerably more visible. The really serious money is to be made in bulk chemicals and fuels.

Fantastic Plastic

Genetic engineering can already deliver many traditional chemical-feedstock molecules. Metabolic Explorer, for example, can turn glucose into acrylate, a feedstock for the plastics industry. Cargill, a large agricultural company that has been interested in biotechnology" for some time, is turning its

attention to a glucose-derived substance called 3-hydroxypropionic acid. This can be made with modified microbes. Further microbes can then produce a dozen chemicals that are precursors for plastics. John Frost of Michigan State University (and the inventor of biotech rocket-fuel) has even worked out how to use bacterial enzymes to make a form of Nylon. It all sounds promising. But what biotechnology mostly cannot do yet is produce either feedstock or finished product more cheaply than the petrochemical industry.

There are a few well-trumpeted exceptions. Cargill-Dow, a joint-venture between Cargill and Dow Chemicals, produces a cost-effective polymer made from lactic acid that has, in turn, been made from maize-derived glucose. Metabolix, a small firm based in Cambridge, Massachusetts, has a suite of plastics called polyhydroxyalkanoates, which are grown inside genetically engineered bacteria and that the firm seems confident will be cost-competitive with at least some existing specialist plastics. And DuPont, another big chemical company, has Sorona, a plastic that is half biotech and half traditional. But the breakthrough everybody is waiting for is a way of producing glucose really cheaply. For glucose is to industrial biotech what crude oil is to petrochemicals.

Once again, microbes are the key. The main source of industrial glucose in North America is maize starch, which is relatively costly. But most of the dry weight of a plant is composed of cellulose. Cellulose, like starch, is a polymer of glucose. Unlike starch, though, it is tough. But if it could be used to make glucose, much agricultural waste, such as straw and the leftovers from maize farming, could be turned to account. It can be broken down biologically, and the enzymes to do such a job are found in many bacteria and fungi. The search is now on for the best enzymes and ways of upgrading these into industrial products.

Some significant progress has already been made. Novozymes is a Danish company with a research laboratory in Davis, California that is devoted to the question. And as Sarah Teter, one of the people in charge of the project, explained, the firm is working on a mixture of fungal enzymes that collaborate by attacking different parts of the cellulose chain.

Novozyme's target chemical is actually ethanol. This is fermented from glucose, and can be used as a substitute for petrol. The firm has improved the process of fermenting cellulose into glucose, and then glucose into ethanol, in ways that have reduced the cost ten-fold.

This still means that the enzyme processing for an American gallon of cellulose-derived ethanol costs 50 cents. But Novozyme hopes to bring that cost down another ten-fold over the next few years, to a point where ethanol derived from cellulose might be cost-competitive with petrol. And if ethanol can be made cheaply from cellulose, then so can a lot of other bulk chemicals. One idea is to use special chips known as DNA microarrays, which show what genes are active at a given moment, to work out what other enzymes the fungi are making

when they digest cellulose. Chucking those enzymes into the mixture should make a significant difference.

In an announcement whose timing was probably not coincidental, a Canadian company called Iogen proudly proclaimed at the meeting that its cellulose-ethanol plant in Ottawa-the first such commercial venture in the world-had just opened for business. That plant is, in part, the product of subsidies, so its true relevance remains to be seen. But it is, as it were, a straw in the wind.

Exercise 1 Formulate 10 questions on above text and find answers

Exercise 2 Give a short description of

- a) Sargasso Sea
- b) Newly discovered genes
- c) Modern chemicals and fuels.

SUPPLEMENT I

ПРИКЛАДИ СПЕЦИФІЧНОЇ ЛЕКСИКИ, ХАРАКТЕРНОЇ ДЛЯ АНГЛІЙСЬКИХ ЗАГОЛОВКІВ

Слово	Значення	Приклади
Accord	Agreement	Wages <i>accord</i> reached
Aid	Help	Man <i>aids</i> police.
Axe	cut, destroy	Labour <i>axe</i> colleges in Tory towns.
Back	Support	Unions <i>back</i> strikers.
Ban	Prohibition	Bus <i>ban</i> on pupils after attack on crew.
Bar	Exclude Prohibit	South African team <i>barred</i> .
Bid	Attempt	New Peace <i>bid</i> in Middle East.
Blast	Explosion	Ten dead in bomb <i>blast</i> .
Blaze	Fire	Family dies in <i>blaze</i> .
Blow	Injury, Disappointment	Thatcher poll <i>blow</i> .
Boost	help, incentive	Industry sets <i>boost</i> .
Clash	Dispute, Violent, Argument	Strikers in <i>clash</i> with Police.
Coup	Revolt, Revolution, Overthrow	Country suffered a <i>coup</i> .
Curb	Restraint, Limit	New <i>curbs</i> in immigration.
Cut	Reduction	Big <i>cuts</i> in working places.
Deal	Agreement	Pav <i>deal</i> signed.
Drive	Campaign, Effort	Peace <i>drive</i> succeeds.
Envoy	Diplomat	US <i>envoy</i> taken hostage.
Go-ahead	Approval	<i>Go-ahead</i> for dearer gas.
Gunman	Man with Gun	<i>Gunman</i> raids 3 banks.
Halt	Stop	Channel tunnel <i>halt</i> .
Haul	Large quantity of smth. which has been stolen and later discovered	Cannabis <i>Haul</i>
Head	head, direct	Mr. Neil <i>to head</i> Peace Mission.

Hold	Retain, Keep in custody	Murders: two men <i>held</i> .
Hit	Affect badly, Influence	Fuel strike <i>hits</i> peasants.
Jet	Airplane	300 killed in <i>jet</i> disaster.
Jobless	Unemployed	Number of <i>Jobless</i> increased.
Key	Essential, Vital	<i>Key</i> witness dies.
Link	Connection	No <i>link</i> found.
Man	Representative	Clinton <i>man</i> in US Congress.
Net	Total	Drug raid <i>nets</i> 1. m.
Ordeal	Drama	Jail <i>ordeal</i> ends.
Oust	push out, drive out, expell	China <i>ousts</i> US diplomat.
Output	Production	Industrial <i>output</i> increased.
Pact	Agreement, treaty	Pits <i>pact</i> ends.
Pay	Wages, Salary	<i>Pay</i> rise for miners.
Pit	coal mine	Pit talks <i>end</i> .
Plea	Request for	Free hostages <i>plea</i> .
Pledge	Promise	Labour <i>pledges</i> higher pensions.
Plunge	steep fall	Ford <i>plunges</i> .
Poll	El lection, Public opinion, Survey	Gennan <i>Poll</i> shows swing to right.
Press for	Demand, ask for	Teachers <i>press for</i> pay rise.
Probe	Investigate	New vaccine to be probed.
Quit	Resign, Leave	Will Clinton <i>quit</i> .
Raid	Attack, Robbery	\$ 2 m Drug <i>raid</i> .
Riddle	Mystery	Young couple death <i>riddle</i> .
Row	Argument, Dispute	BBC boss quits in <i>row</i> .
Scare	Public Alarm	US missiles in Europe <i>scare</i> public.
Split	Divide	Nationalism <i>splits</i> people.
Squeeze	Shortage, Scarcity, Lack	Petrol <i>squeeze</i> ahead.
Storm	Angry Reaction, Dispute	Clinton speech <i>storm</i> grows.
Strife	Conflict	Inter-union <i>strife</i> threatens collective actions.
Switch	Change, Deviation	New <i>switch</i> in Foreign Policy.

Swoop	Sudden Attack, raid	Alkhogol <i>swoop</i> in USSR.
Talks	Discussions	Peace talks in Moscow.
Top	Exceed	US profits in Africa <i>top</i> \$ 40b. annually.
Vow	Promise	President <i>vows</i> change in policy.
Walkout	Strike (often unofficial)	Factory <i>walkout</i> threat over Sacking.
Wed	Marry	Clinton's daughter is to <i>wed</i> millioner.

SUPPLEMENT II

Список скоречень, що зустрічаються в англомовних газетах

ABM	anti-ballistic missile – противоракета (для боротьби з балістичними ракетами)
ABS	American Broadcasting System – Амераканська компанія радіомовлення, Эй-би-си
AF	Air Force – військово-повітряні сили
Ala	Alabama – Алабама (штат США)
Am.	American – американський
A.M.; a.m.	ante meridiem – лат. час до полудня
Ariz.	Arizona – Аризона (штат США)
Ark.	Arkansas – Арканзас (штат США)
AS	Anglo-Saxon – англосаксонський
asst.	assistant – помічник
Atty Gen.	Attorney General – Міністр юстиції
Aus.; Aust.	Australia – Австралія
auto	automatic – автоматичний
Ave.	Avenue – авеню, проспект, вулиця
B .B.	Blue Book – Синя книга (в Англії збірник офіційних документів, парламентські стінограми і т. п.)
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation – Британська корпорація радіомовлення, радіо- й телевізійна компанія в Лондоне, Бі-бі-сі
B.C.N.	British Commonwealth of Nations – Британська Співдружність націй (об'єднання в складі Великої Британії та її колишніх колоній, що отримали незалежність)
BEA; BEAC	British European Airways Corporation – Британська корпорація європейських повітряних шляхів сполучення
BG	British Government – англійський уряд
BL	British Leyland – (найвеличніша в Великобританії компанія, що випускає автомобілі)
B.M.A.	British Medical Association – Британська медичне товариство
BMC.	British Motor Corporation – автомобільна компанія в Англії
BMT.	British Mean Time – англійський середній час
BOA; BOAC	British Overseas Airways Corporation – Британська корпорація транскеанських повітряних сполучень

B.P.	British Petroleum – „Бритиш петролеум” – англійська нафтова компанія, що володіє підприємствами по добичі, переробленню та збиту нафти й нафтопродуктів)
B.R.	British Railways – "Бритиш рейлуэйз" (мережа залізниць в Англії)
Brit.	British – британський, англійський
B.S.T.	British Summer Time – англійський літній час
B.W.T.	British Winter Time – англійський зимовий час
с	cent – цент
СААТ	Campaign Against Arms Trade – кампанія боротьби проти торгівлі зброєю
Calif.	California – Каліфорнія (штат США)
Can.	Canada – Канада
CBS	Columbia Broadcasting System – „Коламбіа бродкастинг систем” – в США компанія радіо- й телемовлення
cen.; cent.	central – центральний
СЕТ	Central European Time – центральноєвропейський час
СІА	Central Intelligence Agency – Головне розвідувальне управління, ГРУ (США)
СК	Cape Kennedy – ракетний дослідний полігон Кейп-Кеннеді
Fri.	Friday – п’ятниця
FY	fiscal year – фінансовий рік
CND	Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament – рух з ядерного роззброєння
Co.	company – компанія (промислова, торговельна й т. п.)
СОІ	Central Office of Information – Головне управління інформації (Англія)
Colo.	Colorado – Колорадо (штат США)
Cong.	Congress – конгрес
Conn.	Connecticut – Коннектикут (штат США)
contd.	continued – продовжений; далі буде
crim.	criminal – карний, злочиний
Ct.	Connecticut – Коннектикут (штат США)
D.; Dem.	Democrat – демократ, член демократичної партії
D.C.	District of Columbia – (федеральний) округ Колумбія (США)
Dec.	December – грудень.
dec.; decd	deceased – померлий
dep.	deputy – заступник
Dept	department – 1) управління, відділ; 2) міністерство, відомство

ed.	edition – видання
ed.	editor – редактор
e.g.	exempli gratia – лат. наприклад
Eng.	English – англійський
esp.; espec.	especially – особливо
Eur.	Europe – Європа
EU	European Union – Європейський Союз
exp.	export – експорт
exps.; exs	experiences – витрати
F; Feb.	February – лютий
FA	Football Association – футбольна асоціація
FBI	Federal Bureau of Investigation – Федеральне бюро розслідувань, ФБР (США)
Fla.	Florida – Флорида (штат США)
FO	Foreign Office – міністерство закордонних справ (Англія)
Fri.	Friday – п'ятниця
FY	fiscal year – фінансовий рік
GA	General Assembly – Генеральна Асамблея (ООН)
GB	Great Britain – Велика Британія
Gen	General – генерал
Ger.	German – германський, німецький
GI.	Government Issue – амер. 1) солдат; 2) солдатський; солдатського зразка
G.M.T.	Greenwich Mean Time – середній час по гринвічському меридіану
Govt; govt	government – уряд
G.W.P.	Government White Paper – Біла книга (офіційне урядове видання в Англії)
Haw.	Hawaii – Гавайї (острова і штат США)
HC	House of Commons – палата общин
HEW	Department of Health, Education and Welfare – міністерство охорони здоров'я, освіти й соціального забезпечення (США)
HL	House of Lords – палата лордів
HM	His (or Her) Majesty – його (її) величність
HMS	His (or Her) Majesty's Ship – англійський військовий корабель
HO	Home Office – міністерство внутрішніх справ
HQ; Hq	Headquarters – штаб

hr	hour – година
HR	House of Representatives – палата представників (США)
I; Id.	Idaho – Айдахо (штат США)
Ill.	Illinois – Іллінойс (штат США)
ill.; illus.	illustration – ілюстрація
IMF	International Monetary Fund – Міжнародний валютний фонд
inc.	incorporated – офіційно зареєстрований
Ind.	Indiana – Індіана (штат США)
Int.	International – міжнародний
INTERPOL	International Criminal Police Organization – Міжнародна організація карної поліції, ІНТЕРПОЛ
IQ	intelligence quotient – коефіцієнт розумових здібностей
Ir.	Ireland – Ірландія
IRA	Irish Republican Army – Ірландська республіканська армія (громадська організація)
IRC	International Red Cross – Міжнародний Червоний Хрест
Is.	island – острів
Ja.; Jan.	January – січень
Jap.	Japan – Японія
JCS	Joint Chiefs of Staff – комітет начальників штабів (США)
Je	June – червень
Jl	July – липень
JP	justice of the peace – мировий суддя
jr	junior – молодший
Kan.; Kans.; Kas.	Kansas - Канзас (штат США)
Ken.	Kentucky – Кентуккі (штат США)
KKK	Ku Klux Klan – ку-клукс-клан
KSC	Kennedy Space Center – Космічний центр імені Кеннеді
Ky	Kentucky – Кентуккі (штат США)
LA	Latin America – Латинська Америка
La	Louisiana – Луїзіана (штат США)
lb	libra – лат. фунт
LD	Labor Department – міністерство праці (США)

leg.	legal – 1) законий; 2) юридичний
Lib	Liberal – ліберал
LM	Lord Mayor – лорд-мер
LP	Labour Party – лейбористська партія
Ltd; ltd	limited – компанія з обмеженою відповідальністю
Ma.	Minnesota – Мінесота (штат США)
Maj.	Major – майор
Mass.	Massachusetts – Массачусетс (штат США)
MC	Member of Congress – член конгресу
ME	Middle East – (Ближній і) Середній Схід
Mex.	Mexican – мексиканський
MGM	Metro Goldwyn Mayer – “Метро-Голдвін-Мейер” (американська кінокомпанія)
Mich.	Michigan – Мічиган (штат США)
mil.	military – військовий
Minn.	Minnesota – Мінесота (штат США)
Miss.	Mississippi – Міссісіпі (штат США)
Mo.	Missouri – Міссурі (штат США)
Mo.	Monday – понеділок
MOD	Ministry of Defense – міністерство оборони
Mont.	Montana – Монтана (штат США)
MP	Member of Parliament – член парламенту
MP	Military Police – військова поліція
Mr.	Mister – містер, пан
Mrs.	Mistress – місис, пані
mun.	municipal – муніципальний
N	North – північ
Na.; Neb.; Nebr.	Nebraska – Небраска (штат США)
NABM	National Association of British Manufacturers – Національна асоціація британських промисловців
NAC	North Atlantic Council – рада Північноатлантичного союзу, рада НАТО (див. НАТО)
NASA	National Aeronautics and Space Administration – Національне управління по аеронавтиці та дослідженню космічного простору, НАСА (США)
nat.	national – національний

NATO	[neitou] North Atlantic Treaty Organization – Північноатлантичний союз
nav.	naval – військово-морський
NC	North Carolina – Північна Кароліна (штат, США)
NCO; noncom	noncommissioned officer – військовослужбовець сержантського складу
N.D.; N.Dak.	North Dakota – Північна Дакота (штат США)
NE	northeast – північно-східний
Nev.	Nevada – Невада (штат США)
NH	New Hampshire – Нью-Гемпшир (штат США)
NI	Northern Ireland – Північна Ірландія
NJ	New Jersey – Нью-Джерсі (штат США)
NM	New Mexico – Нью-Мексіко (штат США)
NORAD	North American Air Defence – об'єднана система протиповітряної оборони північноамериканського континенту, НОРАД
Nov.	November – листопад
N.S.	North Sea – Північне море
NW	northwest – північно-західний
NY	New York – Нью-Йорк (місто й штат США)
NYC	New York City – м. Нью-Йорк
NZ	New Zealand – Нова Зеландія
O.	Ohio – Огайо (штат США)
Oct.	October – жовтень
OED	Oxford English Dictionary – Оксфордський словник англійської мови
Okla.	Oklahoma – Оклахома (штат США)
Ore.; Oreg.	Oregon – Орегон (штат США)
Ox.; Oxf.	Oxford – Оксфорд Oxon of Oxford University – випускник Оксфордського університету
oz	ounce – унція ()
p.	page – сторінка
Pa.	Pennsylvania – Пенсильванія (штат США)
p.a.	per annum – лат. щорічно, у рік
Pac.	Pacific – 1) Тихий океан; 2) тихоокеанський
Pan.	Panama – Панама
parl.	parliamentary – парламентський
P. D.	Police Department – поліцейське управління

Penn.; Penna. Pennsylvania – Пенсильванія (штат США)
Phila. Philadelphia – Філадельфія (штат США)
P.M.; p.m. post meridiem – лат. час після полудня
PM prime minister – прем'єр-міністр
P.O. Pacific Ocean – Тихий океан
P.O.B. Post Office Box – поштова абонентська скринька
pol. political – політичний
pop. population – населення
POW prisoner of war – військовополонений
Pres. president – президент
Pvt Private – рядовий
R. Republican – республіканець, член республіканської партії

R.A.F. Royal Air Force – англійські військово-повітряні сили
R.A.S. Royal Academy of Science – Королівська академія наук (Велика Британія)
RC Red Cross – Червоний Хрест
R.C.A.F. Royal Canadian Air Force – канадські військово-повітряні сили
Rep. Republican – республіканець, член республіканської партії
Rev Reverend – преподобний
RN Royal Navy – військово-морські сили
Rwy; Ry railway – залізниця

S.A. Salvation Army – “Армія порятунку”
Sat. Saturday – субота
SB space booster – ракетноносій космічних об’єктів
Sc. Scottish – шотландський
SC Security Council – Рада Безпеки (ООН)
S.C. South Carolina – Південна Кароліна (штат США)
SC; S/C spacecraft – космічний корабель
S.C. Supreme Court – верховний суд
S.Dak. South Dakota – Південна Дакота (штат США)
SE southeast – південно-східний
Sec. Secretary – 1) секретар; 2) міністр
Sep.; Sept. September – вересень
SF San Francisco – Сан-Франціско
S/L space laboratory – космічна лабораторія
SM strategic missile – стратегічна ракета
So. South – південь
Soc. Society – суспільство

Sr	senior – старший
St	Street – вулиця
St.Ex.	Stock Exchange – фондова біржа
stg.	sterling – фунт стерлінгів
Sun.; Sund.	Sunday – неділя
S.W.	South Wales – Південний Вельс
SW	southwest – південно-західний
S.Yd.	Scotland Yard – Скотленд-Ярд (Лондонська поліція)
T; Tu.; Tues.	Tuesday – вівторок
TBM	tactical ballistic missile – тактична балістична ракета
temp.	temperature – температура
Term.	Tennessee – Теннессі (штат США)
Tex.; Tx.	Texas – Техас (штат США)
tg.; tgm	telegram – телеграма
Thur.; Thurs.	Thursday – четвер
TN	thermonuclear – термоядерний, водородний
treas.	treasury – казначейство
TS	top secret – цілком таємно
T.U.	trade union – тред-юніон; професійна спілка
TUG	Trades Union Congress (Council) – Конгрес (рада) британських тред-юніонів
TV	television – 1) телебачення; 2) телевізійний
tx.	tax – податок
U.; Ut.	Utah – Юта (штат США)
U.K.	United Kingdom (of Great Britain and Northern Ireland) – Об'єднане Королівство Великої Британії й Північної Ірландії)
u/k	unknown – невідомий
UKAEA	United Kingdom Atomic Energy Authority – управління атомною енергією Об'єданого Королівства
UN	United Nations – Організація Об'єднаних Націй, ООН
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization – Організація Об'єднаних Націй з питань освіти, науки та культури, ЮНЕСКО
UNGA	United Nations General Assembly – Генеральна Асамблея ООН
UNSC	United Nations Security Council – Рада Безпеки ООН
US	United States – Сполучені Штати Америки
USAEC	United States Atomic Energy Commission – Комісія з атомної енергії (США)
USAF	United States Air Force – військово-повітряні сили США

USC	United States Congress – Конгрес США
USG	United States Government – уряд США
USIA	United States Information Agency – Інформаційна агенція США, ЮСИ
USMC	United States Marine Corps – морська пехота США
USN	United States Navy – військово-морські сили США
USNG	United States National Guard – національна гвардія США

V.	victory – перемога
Va.	Virginia – Вірджинія (штат США)
Ver.; Verm.	Vermont – Вермонт (штат США)
vet	veteran – ветеран, учасник війни
VIP	very important person – дуже важлива особа
VP	Vice-President – віце-президент
vs.	versus – лат. проти
V-sign	знак „V”, символ перемоги
v.v.	vice versa – лат. навпаки

W.	Wales – Вельс
W.; Wed.	Wednesday – середа
W	West – захід
Wash.	Washington – Вашингтон (штат США)
Wash.	Washington D.C. – Вашингтон (столиця США)
Westm.	Westminster – Вестмінстер
W/F	weather forecast – прогноз погоди
WHO	World Health Organization – Всесвітня організація охорони здоров'я (ООН), ВОЗ
Wis.; Wise.	Wisconsin – Вісконсін (штат США)
wk	week – тиждень
wks	weeks – тижні
WPG	World Peace Congress – Всесвітній конгрес миру
WR	weather report – сводка погоди
WTO	World Trade Organization – Світова організація торгівлі (ООН), СОТ
W.Va.	West Virginia – Західна Вірджинія (штат США)
WW I	World War I – перша світова війна
WW II	World War II – друга світова війна

Xrds	crossroads – перехрестя шляхів
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y; yr year – рік
YB year-book – щорічник
yrs years – роки

ZIP Zone Improvement Plan – план поштових зон (США)
ZST Zone Standard Time – поясовий стандартний час

SUPPLEMENT III

КОРОТКИЙ АНГЛО-УКРАЇНСЬКИЙ СЛОВНИК ГАЗЕТНОЇ ЛЕКСИКИ

У словник входять слова та словосполучення, а також низка країнознавчих термінів, що часто зустрічаються в англomовних газетах. Словникові статті починаються з відповідного англійського слова, після якого подається український переклад, що відображає значення або систему значень, характерних для газетних текстів. Далі подаються сполучення з цим словом, що зустрічаються в газетах (в цьому випадку відповідне слово подається тільки першою літерою, а те, що вживається в множині – двома першими літерами, наприклад: world aa. = world affairs). В окремих випадках крім перекладу терміну подається його тлумачення

A

abolition *n* скасування, анулювання (закону, договору й т. п.)

abstain (from) *v* утримуватися (від); to a. from voting утримуватися від голосування

abstention *n* відмова від голосування; carried with two аа. прийнято при двох утримавшихся

access *n* доступ; to gain a. to nuclear weapon отримати доступ до ядерної зброї

accident *n* нещасний випадок, аварія; to meet with an a. потрапити до катастрофи; industrial a. нещасний випадок на виробництві

act *n* 1. дія, вчинок; 2. акт, закон; Industrial Relations A. закон про відносини в промисловості; Rent A. закон про арендну плату; *v* діяти; to a. in unity діяти в єднанні; to a. on the defensive оборонятися

acting *a* виконуючий обов'язки, тимчасовий; a. manager виконуючий обов'язки управляючого

action *n* дія, діяльність; industrial strike a. страйкові дії; Labour A. for Peace рух лейбористів за мир; united аа. об'єднані дії

adman *n* рекламіст, співробітник агенції (відділу), що готує рекламні об'яви

admass *n* публіка, на яку розраховано рекламу;

administration *n* 1. адміністрація, керівництво; 2. уряд (США)

admission *n* визнання (чо го-н.) правильним, дійсним

advance *n* просування вперед; *v* просуватися вперед, йти вперед

advertisement *n* об'ява, реклама; classified аа. тематичні об'яви; syn. ad

advisory *a* дорадчий, консультаційний

affairs *n* (pl) події; domestic, home, internal, national аа. події в країні; foreign, international, world аа. події за межами країни (закордонні події)

age *n* 1. вік; retirement a. пенсійний вік; 2. повноліття; to be of a. досягти повноліття; 3. епоха, сторіччя; the a. of atom сторіччя атому

agency *n* агенція, орган, управління; specialized аа. спеціалізовані установи (ООН), Central Intelligence A. Головне розвідувальне управління (ГРУ) News a. інформаційна агенція

agenda *n* порядок денний; an item on the a. пункт у порядку денному; on the a. на порядку; to adopt the a. затвердити порядок денний

aggravate *v* погіршувати, посилювати; to a. international tension посилювати міжнародну напругу

aggression *n* агресія; direct a. пряма агресія; unprovoked a. непровокована агресія; war of a. агресивна війна

aggressive *a* агресивний; a. policy (war) агресивна політика (війна); a. defence активна оборона

agreement *n* угода; under the a. згідно угоди; a long-term a. довгострокова угода; to conclude an a. укласти угоду; to reach an a.

досягнути угоди; to sign an a. підписати угоду; to cancel (to annul) an a. скасувати (анулювати) угоду

allegation *n* заява; затвердження; on the a. з приводу

allege *v* заявляти, стверджувати

allegedly *adv* як стверджують, нібито, мовби

alliance *n* союз, альянс; in a. with в союзі з; Atlantic A. Атлантичний альянс (НАТО)

ambassador *n* посол; A. Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary надзвичайний і повноважний посол

amendment *n* поправка (до резолюції, законопроекту), to place an a. to a bill вносити поправку до законопроекту (білль)

analyst *n* коментатор, оглядач

appear *v* виходити друком

argument *n* довід, доказ

arms *n* (*pl*) зброя; to pile up a. накопичувати зброю; a. race (drive) перегони озброєння; to halt the a. race зупинити перегони озброєння; syn. weapons

article *n* стаття (про); a full-page a. стаття на всю сторінку; a leading, an editorial a. передова стаття; syn. leader

В

back *v* підтримувати; official b.-ing підтримка урядом; union b.-ing підтримка профспілкою

backbencher *n* рядовий член англійського парламенту, що займає в палаті обшин останні місця

bail *n* судовий борг; on b. під заставу

balance *n* баланс, рівновага; trade b. торгівельний баланс; to bang in b. бути в небезпеці; *v* врівноважити

balanced *a* справедливий, врівноважений, неупереджений; b. society суспільство, засноване на принципах справедливості; b. diet раціон харчування, що відповідає стану здоров'я

ballot *n* виборче право, голосування, виборчий бюлетень; by secret b. таємним голосуванням; b. box урна для виборчих бюлетенів; to cast one's b. віддати голос, опустити бюлетень

ban (*on*) *n* заборона; the b. on nuclear weapons заборона ядерної зброї; to end, lift, withdraw the b. зняти заборону; a b. on overtime заборона на понаднормову роботу; blanket b. загальна заборона

bank holiday офіційний вихідний день крім неділі й суботи

banner headline заголовок на всю ширину газетної шпальти, шапка

behalf *n*: on b. of від імені; to convey an invitation on b. of передати запрошення від імені

be-in *n* присутність, що виражає підтримку здійсненому заходу

benefit *n* 1. користь, вигода; mutual b. обопільна вигода; 2. посібник; *v* 1. приносити користь, вигоду; 2. b. by одержувати користь, допомогу

bill *n* законопроект, білль; anti-union b. антипрофспілковий

законопроект; race b.
законопроект про расові
відношення; wage-vetting b.
законопроект про перегляд
ставок заробітної платні

bipartisan *a* двохпартійний;

bi-weekly *n* видання, що виходить
два рази на тиждень або раз на
два тижня

blacklist *v* вносити до чорного
списку

blue *n* консерватор (*світло-синій*
колір – символ консервативної
партії Великої Британії)

board *n* правління, рада; B. of
Trade міністерство торгівлі

bobby *n* розм. поліцейський
(*особливо лондонський*); (*Bobby –*
зменшене від Robert, по імені
Роберта Піля, що реорганізував
лондонську поліцію у 1829 р.)

body *n*: government b. урядовий
заклад; b. of electors виборці;
large bb. of unemployed великі
групи безробітних

boom *n* 1. швидкий під'єм ділової
активності, бум

bottom *n* нижня частини газетної
шпальти; at the b. of the page
унизу шпальти

box *n* стаття, замітка і таке інше,
що виділена на газетній шпальті
рамкою; an editorial b. редакційна
стаття, що виділена рамкою

broadsheet *n* періодичне видання у
вигляді аркуша з текстом тільки
на одному боці

buy-in *n* вигідна угода

С

cabinet *n* кабінет міністрів; Shadow
C. „тіньовий” кабінет (*уряд, що*
намічений до влади)

call (upon) *v* закликати (*когось*); to
c. upon peoples to act in defense of
peace закликати народи до
боротьби на захист миру

campaign *n* кампанія, peace c.
боротьба за мир; a c. button
нагрудний значок із портретом
кандидата на виборах; stop the
cuts c. кампанія проти скорочення
зайнятості

canvass *n* передвиборча агітація за
кандидатів

caption *n* підпис під ілюстрацією

carry *v* розміщати, друкувати;
short news items c.-d on the back
page короткі інформаційні
матеріали було розміщено на
останній сторінці

cartoon *n* карикатура; strip c. серія
ілюстрацій з продовженням,
розповідь в малюнках (комікс)

cater (for) *v* віддзеркалювати,
виражати (*інтереси*); The
newspaper c.-s for big business.
Газета віддзеркалює інтереси
великого бізнесу

cautious *a*: a c. policy обережна
(обачлива) політика

chain *n*: c. of newspapers група
газет, що належать єдиному
власнику

champion *n* прибічник; cc. of peace
борці за мир

circulate *v*. to c. a newspaper
розповсюджувати газету;
nationally c.-d publications
видання, що розповсюджуються
по всій країні

circulation *n* наклад,
розповсюдження (*газети,*
видання і т. п.); general c. широко
розповсюджене видання;

aggregate с. загальний наклад;
syn. total print

classified advertisement тематична
об'ява (розміщується під однією
з стандартних рубрик, напр.:
personal „особові” об'яви; *to let*
„здавати в найми”; *for sale* „на
продаж” і т.п.)

closure *n.*: с. of a newspaper
припинення видання газети; *pit* с.
зачинення шахти

coexistence *n* співіснування;
peaceful с. мирне співіснування

collect *v* збирати; с. news збирати
інформацію; с. for a newspaper
fund збирати гроші у фонд; *syn.*
raise a newspaper fund

column *n* 1. шпальта, колонка,
стовпець на сторінці; *four* с.
article стаття у чотири колонки; *in*
the ss. of на сторінках; 2. рубрика,
відділ; *advertizing* с. відділ
реклами; *daily* с. постійна
рубрика; *to have a c. in a*
newspaper вести (бути автором,
відповідати за) газетну рубрику

columnist *n* 1. автор постійного
відділу (колонки, рубрики) у
газеті; *gossip* с. автор відділу
світської хроніки; 2. фейлетоніст

comeback *n* повернення; *syn.* *return*

comment *n* коментар; *daily political*
с. щоденний коментар з
політичних питань *editorial* с.
редакційний коментар

commit *v* здійснювати (зазвичай
погане); *to c. war crimes*
здійснювати воєнні злочини

commitment *n* зобов'язання;
political, military сс. політичні,
воєнні зобов'язання

Commonwealth, the *n*
Співдружність (міждержавне

об'єднання Великої Британії й
більшості колишніх англійських
домініонів та колоній)

community *n* 1. співдружність; 2.
група, громадськість; *national* с.
національна група; *world* с.
світова громадськість;
international с. міжнародна
громадськість

compression *n* скорочення; с. of a
news-item скорочення
інформаційного матеріалу

concern *n* 1. значення, важливість;
primary major с. першорядне
значення; 2. занепокоєність; *to*
cause с. викликати занепокоєність

conduct *v* вести, руководити; *to c. a*
column вести відділ (рубрику); *to*
c. a newspaper керувати газетою

confrontation *n* конфронтація,
протиставлення сил

congress *n* з'їзд; *to convene a c.*
скликати з'їзд

constituency *n* виборчий округ (в
Англії)

constituent *n* виборець (в *Англії*)

constructive *a* конструктивний; *a c.*
proposal конструктивна
пропозиція

contribution (to) *n* 1. внесок (до);
to make a c. робити внесок; 2.
матеріал, що готується для газети

contributor *n* особа, що співпраціє
в газеті

cooperation *n* співпраця; *business*
(*like*) с. ділова співпраця; *broad* с.
широка співпраця; *close* с.
близька співпраця

correspondent *n* кореспондент;
diplomatic с. кореспондент з
питань дипломатії; *worker* с.
робкор; *non-staff* с. позаштатний
кореспондент

cover *v* висвітлювати у пресі; to c. the event повідомити репортаж
coverage *n* висвітлювання у пресі; foreign news с. висвітлювання міжнародних подій; photographic с. фоторепортаж; to get (receive) a wide с. широко висвітлюватися в печаті
curb *n* стримання, приборкати; war с. запобігання війні; с. to violence приборкання насильства
curfew *n* комендантська година
custody *n* ув'язнення (утримування під вартою); to be in с. бути в ув'язненні; to take smb into с. взяти когось до ув'язнення
cut *n* скорочення; сс. in public spending скорочення витрат на соціальні потреби; 2. звільнення; massive сс. масове звільнення; сс. plans плани по скороченню

D

daily *n* щоденна газета
deal (dealt) (with) *v* розглядати питання; The article d.-s with the present international situation. Стаття розглядає питання про сучасну міжнародну ситуацію.
delinquency *n* злочинність; juvenile d. злочинність неповнолітніх
demand *n* 1. вимога, запит; 2. попит
demo *n* розм. демонстрація
department *n* відділ у редакції газети; foreign d. іноземний відділ; home news d. відділ внутрішньої інформації
dependent *a* залежний; a d. country залежна країна
design *n*: newspaper d. оформлення газети

detente *n* ослаблення напруги (в міжнародній обстановці)
developments *n* (*pl*) події; the latest d. останні події
disarmament *n* роззброєння, розброювання; general (universal) d. всезагальне роззброєння; d. committee комітет по роззброєнню
distort *v*: d. news перекручування інформації (фактів)
do (away with) *v* завершити, покласти край
Downing Street 1. Даунінг-стріт (*невелика вулиця в центральній частині Лондону, на якій в будинку №10 знаходиться резиденція прем'єр-міністра*); 2. Даунінг-стріт, англійський уряд

E

economy *n* економіка, господарство; national е. народне господарство, економіка країни
edit *v* редагувати; 2. бути редактором
edition *n* видання, випуск; evening е. вечірний випуск; weekend е. суботній (недільний) випуск
editor *n* редактор; е.-in-chief головний редактор; foreign е. редактор іноземного відділу
editorial *n* редакційна стаття
effort *n* зусилля; collective ее. колективні зусилля
election *n* вибори; general е. загальні вибори; by-е. додаткові вибори; е. pledges предвиборчі обов'язки; е. returns результати голосування на виборах
electoral *a* виборчий; е. ward (*Велика Британія*) виборча дільниця; е. register список

виборців; e. college колегія
 виборців
embark *v*: to e. upon a new course
 взяти новий курс
enslave *v* поневолювати,
 уярмлювати, підкоряти; the e.-d
 nations підкорені народи
entry *n* вступ
environment *n* навколишнє
 середовище; e. hazards шкідливий
 вплив навколишнього
 середовища
equitable *a* справедливий; on an e.
 basis на справедливих засадах;
 fair and e. trade торгівля на
 справедливих засадах; syn.
 balanced, just
Establishment, the *n* істеблішмент,
 правлячі кола
event *n* подія, захід; the current ee.
 поточні події; the latest ee.
 останні події; social e. захід
 (зустріч, вечір і т. і.)
exchange *n* обмін; ee. in scientific
 (cultural) field обмін інформацією
 в галузі науки (культури); to e.
 delegations, visits, speeches, views,
 etc. обмінюватися делегаціями,
 відвідуваннями, промовами,
 поглядами і т. п.
expenditure *n* витрата(и); arms e.
 витрати на озброєння; syn.
 spending
explode *v*: to e. a prejudice
 розкривати, виявляти
 упередження
explosion *n* вибух; an underground
 nuclear e. підземний ядерний
 вибух
expose *v* викривати, виявляти
extra *n* додатковий випуск газети

fabricate *v* фальсифікувати,
 підробляти; to f. news
 фальсифікувати новини
 (інформацію)
fabrication *n* фабрикація, підробка
face *v*: to f. the sack бути під
 загрозою звільнення
fair *n* ярмарок
feature *n* 1. нарис; 2. виданий
 матеріал; daily f. матеріал, що
 публікується щоденно
feed-back *n* зворотній зв'язок,
 прийняття рішення на основі
 анкетування та застосування
 електронно-обчислювального при-
 ладу; f. effect результат
 анкетування; on a f. basis на
 засадах анкетування; f.
 programme програма анкетування
fictionalize *v* вигадувати
fight-back *n* застосування контрмір
 після дій адміністрації
fire *v* звільняти (з роботи)
fiscal year бюджетний рік
follow-up *n* висновок,
 продовження; наслідок
force *n* сила; to come (enter) into f.
 вступити в силу; to renounce f.
 відмовитися від застосування
 сили
fortnightly *n* видання, що
 видається один раз на два тижня
franchise *n* виборче право;
 universal f. всезагальне виборче
 право
frontier *n* кордон; f. dispute
 прикордонний конфлікт; syn.
 border
fund *n* фонд; Peace F. Фонд світу;
 to raise ff. збирати кошти; f.
 raising campaign кампанія по
 збиранню коштів

F

G

Gallup Poll опитування суспільної думки (названий по імені засновника американського Інституту суспільної думки Дж. Геллана)

general *a* 1. загальний, загального характеру; *g.* information загальна інформація; 2. генеральний; *G. Assembly* Генеральна Ассамблея (ООН)

goal *n* мета, задача; *syn.* aim

gossip *n* світська хроніка; *g.* column колонка світської хроніки

guidance *n*: under the *g.* під керівництвом

gutter press бульварна, „жовта” преса

H

handicap *v* 1. врівноважити сили; 2. перешкоджати

handle *v*: to *h.* a column вести рубрику; to *h.* letters to the Editor вести відділ листів читачів; to *h.* news опрацьовувати інформаційні матеріали

head *v* озаглавлювати, називати; *double-column h.-ed item* стаття з заголовком у дві колонки

heading *n* заголовок

headline *n* заголовок, головна новина; *banner h.* шапка (в газеті), *double-column h.* заголовок на дві колонки; to *make hh.* створювати сенсацію

Home Office міністерство внутрішніх справ (Велика Британія)

Home Secretary міністр внутрішніх справ (Велика Британія)

hostilities *n (pl)* воєнні дії; to *open h.* почати воєнні дії; to *cease (stop) h.* припинити воєнні дії; *syn.* incidents, actions

hotbed *n* осередок; to *create a new h. of war* створити новий осередок війни

house *n*: *H. of Commons* палата обшин; *H. of Lords* палата лордів; *H. of Representatives* палата представників (в Конгресі США)

I

identify (with) *v* солідаризуватися (з кимось); приєднатися (до когось); to *i.* with the majority бути солідарним з більшістю

impact *n* вплив; *international i.* міжнародний вплив

implement *v* виконувати

impose *v* нав'язувати; to *i.* one's will on smb нав'язувати комусь свою волю

industrial action дії проти підприємців (страйки та інші засоби боротьби робітників за свої економічні права)

informative *a* 1. змістовний; 2. повчальний

institutionalize *v* зводити до рангу державної політики

integration *n* інтеграція (об'єднання)

integrity *n* недоторканість, цілісність; *territorial i.* територіальна цілісність

interfere (in) *v* втручатися

issue *n* 1. номер, випуск (газети); *current i.* поточний номер; *today's i.* сьогоднішній номер; 2. примірник

item *n* 1. новина, повідомлення; 2. газетний матеріал; *news i.*

інформаційний матеріал; short і.
коротка нотатка

itemize *v* розглядати матеріал по пунктах, розбивати питання на підпитання

Ж

jeopardy *n*: in j. під загрозою

join *v* брати участь; to j. a mass rally брати участь в масовому мітингу; to j. the UN вступити до ООН; to j. together згуртовуватися; to j. the march брати участь у демонстрації

joint *a*: a j. committee об'єднаний комітет

journal *n* газета (особливо щоденна), журнал чи будь-яке періодичне видання

journalism *n* журналістика; untainted j. чесна (прозора) преса

judgement *n*: the Nuremberg J. Нюренберзький процес (над військовими злочинцями другої світової війни)

К

key-note *n* основна думка

Л

labor union *n* профспілка (в США)

landslide *n* переконлива велика перемога партії чи кандидата на виборах (букв. зсув, лавина)

launch *v* починати; to l. a campaign починати кампанію; to l. a satellite запуснути супутник

law *n* закон; to pass a l. прийняти закон; to break (to violate) a l. порушувати закон; to be equal before the l. бути рівним перед законом

lay off *v* звільнювати; syn. to give the sack

leader *n* передова

legislative *a*: 1. body законодавчий орган

legman *n* разг. репортер

libel *n* наклеп (у пресі й т.п.)

links *n* (pl) зв'язки; economic 1. економічні зв'язки; to strengthen 1. зміцнювати зв'язки

lobby *n* 1. кулуари (парламенту і т.п.); 2. група, що проштовхує вигідний їй законопроект і т.п.; 3. надсилання депутацій; вручення петицій з вимогами громадськості; to join the 1. приєднатися до звернення; *v* „оброблювати” членів конгресу, парламенту, вручати петицію

lobby in конференція з політичних питань

М

maintain *v*: to m. a newspaper друкувати, видавати газету; to m. day-to-day publication забезпечувати безперебійний, щоденний випуск газети

major *a* основний, головний; *m*. source of employment основне джерело працевлаштування; *m*. union ведуча профспілка; *v* спеціалізуватися, удосконалюватися; to *m*. in sociology обрати соціологію основним предметом

make-up *n* верстка; sensational *m*. „кричуща” верстка; sober *m*. строга верстка; *v* верстати; The „Morning Star” is made up of six pages. Газета „Морнинг стар” складається (зверстана) з шести шпальт.

mandate *n* підтримка виборцями передвиборчої платформи політичної партії

manifesto *n* передвиборчий маніфест політичної партії

map *v* складати план

march *n* 1. рух (громадський); civil rights *m.* рух за цивільні права; peace *m.* рух на захист миру; the *m. of events* хід подій; 2. демонстрація

marcher *n* учасник демонстрації, громадського руху

market *n* ринок збуту; home *m.* внутрішній ринок; foreign *m.* зовнішній ринок;

matter *n* матеріал(и); advertising *m.* реклама, об'яви; editorial *m.* всі власне газетні матеріали (виключаючи рекламу, об'яви і т.д.); reading *m.* матеріал, призначений для читання (на відміну, наприклад, від ілюстрацій, реклами і т.д.)

means *n* засіб, спосіб; by peaceful *m.* мирним шляхом, мирними засобами; by *m. of* за допомогою

media *n* (*pl*) засоби інформації; mass *m.* засоби масової інформації; *m. owners* власники засобів масової інформації

merge *v* зливатися, об'єднуватись (про газети, партії і т.д.)

missile *n* снаряд, ракета; a guided *m.* управляемый снаряд; a nuclear *m.* ракета з ядерною боеголовкою

mission *n* місія; to be on a *m. of* good will бути з місією доброї волі

momentum *n* рушійна сила, поштовх; to gain *m.* набирати силу

monthly *n* щомісячник

motion *n* пропозиція процедурного характеру, що вноситься членом парламенту

N

newsagent *n* продавець газетного кіоску

newspaper (paper) *n* газета; a daily *n.* щоденна газета; a national *n.* газета, що циркулює по всій країні; a local *n.* місцева газета; a shop *n.* заводська газета

non-aggression *n:* a n-a. pact пакт про ненапад

non-aligned *a:* n-a. nations країни, що не приєдналися (до блоків)

non-alignment *n* політика неприєднання (до блоків)

non-proliferation *n* нерозповсюдження; the n-p. of nuclear weapons нерозповсюдження ядерної зброї

non-union *a* той, хто не є членом профспілки

notice *n* попередження (про звільнення); to give *n.* попередити про звільнення; to give a short (90 days) *n.* попередити незадовго (за 90 днів) до звільнення; to lay off without *n.* звільнити без попередження

Number Ten Даунінг-стріт, 10 (офіційна лондонська резиденція прем'єр-міністра й місце засідань англійського кабінету)

nuclear *a* ядерний; a *n.* power ядерна держава; *n.* stockpile запаси ядерної зброї; *n.* fail-out радіоактивні опади

O

objective *n* ціль, мета; syn. goal, aim

obstacle *n* перешкода; to put oo. наводити перешкоди; to overcome oo. долати перешкоди
occasion *n* випадок; on the o. of за випадком
office *n*: editorial o. редакція газети; printing o. друкарня; Foreign O. міністерство зовнішніх справ (Великої Британії), “Форін офіс”
official *n* службовець, чиновник; trade-union o. профспілковий робітник
one-sided *a* однобічний, упереджений
one-time *a* колишній
opposition *n* протидія, опозиція; to meet with o. зустріти протидію; to be in o. бути в опозиції; o. newspaper опозиційна газета
oppress *v* пригнічувати, утискувати
oppression *n* гноблення, пригнічення
organize *v*: o. news підготувати інформаційний матеріал
overthrow *v* скинути

Р

package *n*: a p. disarmament plan план комплексного роззброєння
page *n* газетна шпальта, сторінка; front p. перша сторінка; back p. остання сторінка; book p. літературна сторінка; eight-column p. газетна шпальта у вісім рядків; inside p. внутрішня сторінка; leader p. сторінка, на котрій розміщена передова
pamphlet *n* 1. брошура; 2. (рідше) памфлет
paragraph *n* газетна замітка; a column of pp. рядок, відведений під замітки

parent company *n* головне підприємство
parity *n* рівність; on p. basis на паритетній основі
part-time *a*: p-t. worker робітник, зайнятий неповний робочий день; частково безробітний
path *n* шлях; to take the p. of стати на шлях
pay *n* заробітна платня; base p. основна заробітна платня; take-home p. чистий заробіток; p. promise обіцянка (про збільшення) заробітної платні; p. freeze заморожування заробітної платні; p. boost збільшення заробітної плати
peace *n* мир; a lasting (durable) p. міцний мир; to secure p. забезпечувати мир; to advocate p. виступати за мир; a champion of p. борець за мир; a p. rally мітинг, присвячений боротьбі за мир
peaceful *a* мирний; p. coexistence мирне співіснування
peace-loving *a* миролюбний; a p-l. nation (country) миролюбна країна
periodical *n* періодичне видання
persecution *n* переслідування, гоніння, репресії; political p. політичне переслідування
picketing *n* пікетування (підприємства бастуючими робітниками)
pictorial *a* ілюстративний
play up *v* акцентувати; p. u. sensational news приділяти особливу увагу сенсаціям
plot *n* заколот; *v* складати заколот
point out *v* вказувати, звертати увагу; article p.-s o. that стаття вказує на те, що

policy *n* політика; а р. of non-alignment політика неприєднання; а р. of non-interference політика невтручання; the р. of a newspaper позиція газети; editorial р. характер висвітлення фактів у редакційних матеріалах; news р. добір (висвітлення) новин

poll *n* голосування, кількість поданих голосів; р. tax виборчий податок; р.-ing day день виборів; р.-ing booth кабіна для голосування

position *n* місце на сторінці (в газеті); regular р. (in the paper, on the page) постійне місце (в газеті, на сторінці)

power *n* держава, влада, могутність; повноваження; the Great Рр. великі держави; emergency рр. надзвичайні повноваження

present *v*: to р. news подавати, висвітлювати інформаційний матеріал; to р. in compressed form подати матеріал у стислій формі

presentation *n*: р. of news (news р.) надання інформаційних матеріалів

primaries *n* (pl) передвиборче висування кандидатів (США)

proceeding *n* праця комісії; (pl) протоколи суду

prominence *n* виділення, акцентування; to give р. to sensations приділяти увагу сенсаціям

promote *v* сприяти, розвивати; to р. exchanges, contacts, links, etc. розвивати обмін (досвідом), контакти, зв'язки

proposal *n* пропозиція; to put forward (to advance) а р. висувати

пропозицію; to adopt (to accept) а р. прийняти пропозицію; to disapprove (of) а р. відхилити пропозицію; syn. motion

proprietor *n*: newspaper р. власник газети

provide (for) *v* 1. передбачувати; to р. for cooperation передбачувати співпрацю; 2. поставляти різні матеріали читачам

provisions *n* (pl) умови (пункти) угоди

psywar *n* психологічна війна (від *psychological warfare*)

publication *n* періодичне видання; mammoth sale р. видання з дуже великим накладом

put *v* розміщувати матеріал у газеті; to р. a newspaper видавати газету

Q

quality *n*: а q. newspaper солідна („якісна”) газета

R

rally *n* масовий мітинг; а r. in support of мітинг у підтримку; better life r. мітинг за покращення життєвого рівня

rank and file *n* рядові члени партії, профспілки

rapprochement *n* зближення відносин між державами

redundancy *n* надлишок робочої сили; r. notice повідомлення про скорочення робітників

refrain (from) *v* утримуватися (від)

regime *n*: режим

register *v* вносити своє і'мя до списку виборців; to r. а protest with the authorities виражати

протест адміністрації; to r. a complaint подавати скаргу

regular *a*: r. column постійна рубрика; r. readers постійні читачі

relaxation *n* послаблення; the r. of international tension послаблення міжнародної обстановки; syn. detente

renounce *v* відмовлятися; to r. the use of force відмовлятися від застосування сили

resolution *n*: a draft r. проект резолюції; to adopt a r. прийняти резолюцію; to approve (of) a r. схвалити резолюцію; to disapprove (of) a r. відхилити резолюцію

resort (to) *v* удаватися (до); to r. to force удаватися до застосування сили

respect (for) *n*: r. for the rights повага до прав; mutual r. взаємна повага

returns *n* (*pl*) результати виборів; preliminary r. попередні результати виборів

Reuters „Рейтер” (*найбільша англійська інформаційна агенція*)

revenue *n* прибуток; advertizing r. прибуток, отриманий від реклами; circulation r. прибуток від накладу (газети)

review *n* огляд; book r. книжковий огляд; film r. кіноогляд

round-up *n* зведення новин; press r. огляд преси

rule *n* влада, режим; colonial r. колоніальний режим

run *n*: to keep on the r. не давати зупинятися; a long r. of power довге перебування у владі; common r. of men пересічні громадяни; to have a general r.

мати широкий попит; a r. of a newspaper наклад газети; *v*

1. поширюватися на певній території (*про закон, згоду*); a

clause r.-s пункт говорить; 2.

керувати (установою); to r. a business вести діло; 3. розміщати у газеті; 4. балотуватися

run-over *n* матеріал, перенесений з однієї сторінки на іншу

S

sack *n*: to give the s. звільнювати; to get the s. бути звільненим; *v*

звільнювати; to s. profit привласнити прибуток

sale *n* наклад; income from ss. прибуток від накладу; five-million s. наклад у п'ять мільйонів

scoop *n* жарг. сенсаційна новина, що опублікована у будь-якій газеті раніше, ніж в інших

secretary of state міністр, держсекретар **security** *n* безпека; to

promote international s. забезпечити міжнародну безпеку;

collective s. колективна безпека; the S. Council Рада Безпеки ООН

semi-weekly *n* видання, що виходить два рази на тиждень

sensationalism *n* сенсаційний характер, сенсаційні повідомлення

serial *n* матеріал, що продовжується з номера до номера; picture s. комікс

(розповідь у малюнках) з продовженням

series *n* серія статей на одну тему, що друкуються з номеру до номеру

serve *v* обслуговувати, забезпечувати; to s. the interests

слугувати інтересам; s. news забезпечувати інформацією

service *n*: news s. агенція новин (преси)

settlement *n* врегулювання; to negotiate a s. вести перемови про врегулювання

sheet *n* газета-аркуш; news-s. аркуш новин

slump *n* спад економічної активності

sob-sister *n* журналістка відділу жіночих листів, що консультує читачок з особистих питань (дослівно *сестра по сльозам*)

sovereignty *n* суверенітет; to observe one's s. дотримуватися суверенітету

space *n* 1. площа газети; advertizing s. місце, зайняте рекламою; white s. пробіл; 2. космос; s. craft (ship) космічний корабель

speaker *n* спікер (*старша посадова особа у британському парламенті; головує на засіданнях палат*)

spirit *n*: in the s. of realism в душі реалізму

staff *n* штат; editorial s. штат редакції; s.-ed correspondent штатний кореспондент

standing *a*: a s. committee постійний комітет; a s. body постійний орган (*ООН*)

stay-down strike „підземний” страйк шахтарів, що залишаються в шахті, але не працюють

state *n* 1. держава; associated ss. країни що приєдналися; delinquent s. держава-правопорушник; 2. штат; the Ss, розм. США; *v* заявляти,

констатувати; to s. time for a meeting встановити час мітингу

statesman *n* державний діяч

story *n* газетний матеріал, крім передових; down the page s. підвал; news s. інформаційний матеріал; s. in print розповідь для читання (*на відміну від розповіді в малюнках*)

streamer *n* шапка; eight-column s. заголовки на вісім рядків

strength *n* сила; positions-of-s. policy політика з позиції сили

strike *n* страйк; general s. загальний страйк; sympathy s. страйк солідарності; to go on s. застрайкувати; to call off a s. припинити страйк; to stage a s. проводити страйк; to break a s. зірвати страйк; sit-in s. сидячий страйк; syn. walk-out

string *n*: s. of newspapers низка газет, що належать одному власнику

strip *n* сторінка гумору; comic s. комікси

struggle *n* боротьба; ideological s. ідеологічна боротьба; to wage a s. вести боротьбу

subject (to) *v* 1. підкоряти; 2. піддавати; to s. to exploitation піддавати експлуатації

submit *v* подавати; to. s. for consideration подавати на розгляд

suffrage *n* виборче право; universal s. загальне виборче право

Sunday *n* недільна газета

supplement *n* додаток; pictorial Sunday s. недільний ілюстрований додаток

suppress *v* 1. забороняти (*газету та ін.*); 2. замовчувати (*факти, новини*); 3. пригнічувати

suppression *n* 1. заборона (*газети та ін.*); 2. замовчування (*фактів, новин*); 3. пригнічування

surface *v* вийти на поверхню; стати відомим

sympathy **strike** страйк солідарності у підтримку страйку робітників інших підприємств

T

tabloid *n* малоформатна газета, таблоїд

take-over *n* перехід газети (*та ін.*) до іншого власника

talk-in *n* мітинг, зібрання, диспут

talks (*on*) *n* (*pl*) перемови; to hold (*conduct*) *t.* вести перемови; to interrupt (*breach off*) *t.* припинити перемови; to resume *t.* відновити перемови; top-level *t.* (*summit t.*) перемови на вищому рівні; round-table *t.* перемови за круглим столом; *syn.* negotiations

teach-in *n* студентське зібрання протесту

tension *n* напруженість; to relax international *t.* послаблювати міжнародну обстановку

test *n* випробування; nuclear weapons *t.* випробування ядерної зброї

ties *n* (*pl*) зв'язки; economic *t.* економічні зв'язки; to strengthen *t.* укріпляти зв'язки

titling *n* заголовок; bold *t.* заголовок, друкований жирним шрифтом

Tory *n* розм. торі, консерватор (*член Британської консервативної партії*)

touch (*upon*) *v* торкатися; The article *t.-s* upon the latest development in the Middle East. У

статті говориться про останні події на Близькому Сході.

trade *n* 1. торгівля; foreign *t.* зовнішня торгівля; inner *t.* внутрішня торгівля; to expand *t.* поширювати торгівлю; *t.* turnover торгівельний обіг; 2. професія, фах; by *t.* за фахом

trade union *n* профспілка; *t.* u. branch (*local*) місцеве відділення профспілки; *t.* u. dues профвнески; affiliated *t.* u. профспілка, що входить до більш великого об'єднання; amalgamated *t.* u. об'єднана профспілка; *t.* u.-ist член профспілки, робітник профспілки

treat *v.* to *t.* news подавати (висвітлювати) інформацію

treatment *n* подання (висвітлювання) матеріалу; sensational *t.* of news перетворення новин у сенсацію

treaty *n* угода; to conclude *a t.* укласти угоду; to ratify *a t.* ратифікувати угоду; to violate *a t.* порушити угоду

tri-weekly *n* видання, що виходить три рази на тиждень

troops *n* (*pl*) війська; ground *t.* наземні (сухопутні) війська; occupation *t.* окупаційні війська; to station *t.* розміщати війська; to withdraw *t.* виводити війська

twist *v:* to *t.* news перекручувати інформацію

U

understanding *n* розуміння; deep *u.* глибоке розуміння; mutual *u.* взаєморозуміння

Union Jack „Юніон Джек“, державний флаг Об'єданого

Королівства Великої Британії та Північної Ірландії

urgent *a* терміновий, невідкладний; *u.* question нагальне питання *u.* request наполегливе прохання; *u.* steps термінові заходи

V

veto *n* вето; *to put a v. on smth* накладати вето на щось; *to have the power of v.* мати право вето; *to withdraw one's v.* зняти вето; *to abuse one's v.* зловживати правом вето; *v* накладати вето; *to v. a proposal* накласти вето на пропозицію; *the police v.-ed the procession* поліція заборонила хід; *to v. the candidature* відхилити кандидатуру

victimization *n* протизаконне звільнення

violence *n* насильство, примушення; *to use v.* застосовувати силу; *to do v.* грубо порушувати, зневажати (*закон і т.п.*); *перекручувати (інформацію і т.п.)*

visit *n* відвідування, візит; *to pay a v. (to) відвідати*; *to be on a v. (to) знаходитись з візитом (у)*; *an official v.* офіційний візит; *an unofficial v.* неофіційний візит; *a return (reply) v.* відповідний візит; *a v. of good will* візит доброї волі

vital *a* нагальний, вкрай необхідний; *v. interests* нагальні (найважливіші) інтереси; *v. question* нагальне питання; *v. statistics* демографічна статистика; *v. issue* важлива проблема; *v. importance (effect)* життєво важливе значення; *v.*

field важлива галузь; *v. gap* важлива лакуна

voice *v:* *to v. the interests (of)* виражати інтереси

vote *n* право голосу, виборчий голос, голосування, загальна кількість голосів; *casting v.* вирішальний голос; *popular v.* кількість поданих голосів (*США*); *v. by proху* голосувати за дорученням

W

wages *n* заробітна плата; *w. claim* вимога про збільшення заробітної плати; *w. cut* зниження заробітної плати *w. rise* підвищення заробітної плати; *w. freeze* заморожування заробітної плати

war *n* війна; *a global w.* глобальна війна; *a nuclear w.* ядерна війна; *to unleash w.* роз'язати війну; *to prevent (avert) w.* запобігти війні; *w.-monger* розпалювач війни

weapon *n* зброя; *ww. of mass extermination (annihilation, destruction)* зброя масового знищення; *nuclear ww.* ядерна зброя

weekly *n* щотижневе видання; щотижневик

welcome *n* привітання, привітний прийом; *to give a warm (cordial, hospitable) w.* зробити теплий (гостинний) прийом

Who's Who „Хто є хто” (*щорічний біографічний довідник*)

worker *n* робочий, робітник, працівник; *piесе w.* відрядник; *time-w.* робітник на тимчасовій оплаті; *white-collar ww.* робітники розумової праці; *blue-collar ww.* робітники фізичної праці

work force *n* працівник; highly-skilled w. f. висококваліфіковані працівники; redundancies for the w. f. скорочення (звільнення) працівників

work-in „залишаємось на робочих місцях” (*форма протесту робочих проти незаконних звільнень*)

writer *n*: news w. журналіст, що спеціалізується на інформаційних

матеріалах; newspaper w. журналіст

Y

yellow *a*: „у.” newspaper / press „жовта” (бульварна) газета / преса

Z

zone *n* зона; a nuclear free z. без’ядерна зона

3MICT

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МЕТОДИЧНІ ВКАЗІВКИ
для СРС та навчальний матеріал по роботі
з англomовним суспільно-політичним текстом
для студентів I, II курсів очної форми навчання
Напрямок підготовки – усі напрямки

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