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N.N. Kirillovich
E.T. Kostousova

GENERAL ENGLISH FOR DISTANCE LEARNING

Ekaterinburg
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Электронный архив УГЛТУ

МИНОБРНАУКИ РОССИИ

ФГБОУ ВО «Уральский государственный лесотехнический университет»

Н.Н. Кириллович
Э.Т. Костоусова

ОБЩИЙ АНГЛИЙСКИЙ ЯЗЫК

для 2-го курса заочной формы обучения

Учебное пособие

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Бортников В.И. , канд. фил. наук, доцент кафедры иностранных языков и перевода УрФУ,
ГАОУ ДПО СО «Институт развития образования»; заместитель зав. отделом исследований состояния СО Мамонтова М.Ю.

Кириллович, Н.Н.

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Учебное пособие «*General English for distance learning*» является продолжением учебника, изданного в 2019 году, и предназначено для второкурсников заочной формы обучения всех направлений технических вузов. Учебное пособие состоит из введения, теоретической и практической частей и содержит программный лексико-грамматический материал. Это одновременно и пособие, и рабочая тетрадь. Все задания практической части выполняются непосредственно в упражнениях.

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ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Пособие «General English for distance learning» предназначено для второкурсников заочной формы обучения всех направлений технических вузов и рассчитано на большое количество часов самостоятельной работы, в процессе которой обучающийся должен последовательно овладеть совокупностью компетенций, основными из которых являются:

1) коммуникативная компетенция, включающая:

– лингвистическую компетенцию, т.е. способность адекватно воспринимать и корректно использовать единицы речи на основе знаний о фонологических, грамматических, лексических, стилистических особенностях английского языка (в сравнении с родным языком),

– социолингвистическую компетенцию, т.е. способность адекватно использовать реалии, фоновые знания, ситуативно обусловленные формы общения,

– социокультурную компетенцию, т.е. способность учитывать в общении речевые и поведенческие модели, принятые в соответствующей культуре,

– социальную компетенцию, т.е. способность взаимодействовать с партнерами по общению, вступать в контакт и поддерживать его, владея необходимыми стратегиями,

– дискурсивную компетенцию, т.е. способность осуществлять коммуникацию с учетом инокультурного контекста,

– стратегическую компетенцию, т.е. способность применять разные стратегии (как для понимания устных/письменных текстов, так и для поддержания успешного взаимодействия при устном / письменном общении),

– прагматическую компетенцию, т.е. способность понимать и порождать иноязычный дискурс с учетом культурно обусловленных различий,

– общую компетенцию, включающую наряду со знаниями о стране и мире, об особенностях языковой системы также и способность расширять и совершенствовать собственную картину мира, ориентироваться в медийных источниках информации;

2) когнитивная компетенция, т.е. способность планировать цель, ход и результаты образовательной и исследовательской деятельности, использовать опыт изучения родного и других языков, самостоятельно раскрывать закономерности их функционирования;

3) межкультурная компетенция, т.е. способность достигать взаимопонимания в межкультурных контактах;

4) компенсаторная компетенция, т.е. способность избегать недопонимания, преодолевать языковой барьер за счет использования известных речевых и метаязыковых средств;

5) профессиональная компетенция, т.е. способность осуществлять деловое и официальное общение в профессиональной среде в России и за рубежом.

В качестве материала для обучения использован программный лексико-грамматический материал учебно-познавательной, социально-культурной и профессиональной сфер общения (Я и моя специальность. Я и моя профессия.), представлены тексты различных стилей: прагматические и публицистические тексты справочно-информационного и другого характера, научно-популярные с последующей системой упражнений.

Структурно учебное пособие состоит из двух основных частей: теоретической и практической. Теоретическая часть включает в себя краткое изложение основных разделов грамматики английского языка, необходимых для развития навыков свободного чтения, понимания, перевода, устной и письменной речи. Весь грамматический материал в пособии представлен в виде схем и таблиц. Практическая часть включает две практические работы, в которых представлены тексты, упражнения лексико-грамматического характера и задания для активизации разных видов речевой деятельности. Все задания выполняются непосредственно в упражнениях, так как практическая часть данного пособия является также рабочей тетрадью.

Основными ресурсами для эффективной работы с учебным пособием являются словари, справочники, сайты сети Интернет.

ЧАСТЬ 1 (PART 1)

Ударение в английском языке (Stress)

Словесное ударение

Выделение в слове одного или двух слогов среди других называется *словесным ударением*. В двусложных словах часто встречаются два ударных слога: один слог имеет главное ударение, а второй — второстепенное.

В транскрипции *главное ударение* обозначается значком [ˈ], который ставится сверху перед ударным слогом: [ˈtɪkɪt].

Второстепенное ударение обозначается значком [ˌ], который ставится снизу перед соответствующим слогом: [ˌɪntouˈneɪjŋ].

Ударный слог	Часть речи	Примеры
Первый ударный слог	существительные	tAble fOrest prOgress fOUntain
	прилагательные	clEver hAppy prEsent
	сложные существительные	bAtman crAnberry
	числительные с суффиксом -ty	fIfty sIxty
	числительные с суффиксом -teen , если с ними употребляется существительное	fIfteen people
Второй ударный слог	сложные прилагательные	self-cOnfident warm-hEArted bad-tEmpered
	сложные глаголы	overcOme understAnd
Последний ударный слог	глаголы	to presEnt to progrEss to contAIn to obtAIn
	существительные, оканчивающиеся на -ee(r)	pionEEr enginEEr addressEE

Предпоследний ударный слог	перед суффиксами -ious, -ion, -ial, -iance, -ian, -iant, -ience, -ient	hesit A tion myst E rious
	перед суффиксом -ic или перед его производным -ical	geom E tric symb O lic
Сложные слова, которые имеют два равноценных ударения		
arm-chair – кресло ice-cream – мороженное up-stairs – вверх по ступенькам passer-by – прохожий north-east – северо-восток	go on – продолжать come back – возвращаться turn off – выключать find out – выяснять think over – обдумывать	

Фразовое ударение

Выделение голосом одних слов в предложении среди других называется <i>фразовым ударением</i> . Фразовое ударение помогает построить своеобразный <i>ритм</i> английской речи.	
Ударные слова в английском предложении	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Существительные ➤ Прилагательные ➤ Числительные ➤ Наречия ➤ Смысловые глаголы ➤ Вопросительные местоимения Who, What, Why, Where, When и т.д. ➤ Указательные местоимения That, This, Those, These (в начале предложения) 	<p>The cat is under the sofa.</p> <p>This girl is very nice.</p> <p>This room is number four.</p> <p>My friend speaks French very well.</p> <p>He wants to have a party on Friday.</p> <p>When did you come home yesterday?</p> <p>These pens are mine.</p>
Безударные слова в английском предложении	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Вспомогательные глаголы ➤ Модальные глаголы ➤ Глагол to be 	<p>They have just finished this work.</p> <p>You can do it together.</p> <p>Her name is Kate.</p>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Предлоги ➤ Частицы ➤ Союзы ➤ Артикли ➤ Личные и притяжательные местоимения 	<p>There is an apple on the plate.</p> <p>We want to have one extra lesson.</p> <p>I like pizza and my girlfriend likes chocolate.</p> <p>I have a nice book. The book is in my bag.</p> <p>My friend has invited me to travel with her. She is going to the UK.</p>
<p>Примечание Первые три безударных компонента могут стоять под ударением, если они</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • начинают вопрос • находятся в кратких ответах • стоят в кратких отрицаниях • в конце предложения после безударного слова 	<p>Can you give me the pen? Yes, he has.</p> <p>I don't know it. She doesn't know where she is.</p>

Логическое ударение

<p>Выделение в предложении одного или нескольких слов, важных по смыслу для говорящего, называется <i>логическим ударением</i>. Под логическим ударением могут стоять любые слова, как знаменательные, так и служебные.</p>
<p>The 'box is 'under' the 'table. - Коробка лежит под столом. (логическое ударение выделяет слово <i>under</i> "под", а не "на".)</p>

Эмфатическое ударение

<p>В утвердительных и повествовательных предложениях вместо фразового ударения часто употребляется <i>эмфатическое ударение</i>, т.е. более высокий тон по сравнению с предшествующим ударным слогом. Эмфатическое ударение употребляется для выделения слов, выражающих какое-либо особое качество, число, размер.</p>
<p>'Tom is a 'very' good 'doctor. – Том очень хороший врач.</p>

Интонация в английском языке (Intonation)

Английская интонация включает в себя несколько компонентов: тон (мелодика речи), ритм, темп речи, логические паузы, фразовое ударение и логическое ударение.

Все предложения делятся на интонационные группы (синтагмы).

Каждая интонационная группа заканчивается либо понижением, либо повышением тона последнего (единственного) ударного слога.

Это называется *нисходящей и восходящей интонацией*.

Восходящая интонация в английском языке

используется в следующих случаях

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ В распространенном подлежащем: ✓ В обстоятельствах в начале предложения: ✓ При обращении: ✓ При перечислении каждого слова (кроме последнего слова в списке): ✓ В предложениях, чтобы показать свою заинтересованность, недоверие, вежливость, переспрос и т.д.: ✓ В вопросе, на который отвечают «да» или «нет»: ✓ В предложении-просьбе: ✓ В первой части альтернативного вопроса: ✓ В разделительном вопросе, если нужно узнать ответ на него, а не уточнить информацию: ✓ В повелительных предложениях, выражающих вежливую просьбу: ✓ В придаточных предложениях, стоящих перед главным: ✓ В словах прощания и благодарности: 	<p>My son and I went on an excursion. — <i>Мой сын и я ездили на экскурсию.</i></p> <p>As a rule I buy books. — <i>Как правило, я покупаю книги.</i></p> <p>I Tom, come here. — <i>Том, иди сюда.</i></p> <p>I'm going to buy chocolate, cheese, and eggs. — <i>Я собираюсь купить шоколад, сыр и яйца.</i></p> <p>Really? — <i>Действительно?</i></p> <p>Do you like reading books? — <i>Ты любишь читать книги?</i></p> <p>Could you help me? — <i>Не могли бы вы помочь мне?</i></p> <p>Do you work or study? — <i>Ты работаешь или учишься?</i></p> <p>You are a doctor, aren't you? — <i>Вы врач, не так ли?</i></p> <p>Will you close the door please? — <i>Закройте дверь, пожалуйста.</i></p> <p>As soon as I receive the letter, I'll tell you. — <i>Как только я получу письмо, я скажу тебе.</i></p> <p>Good-bye! - <i>До свидания!</i></p>
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Нисходящая интонация в английском языке используется в следующих случаях	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ При утверждении: ✓ При команде или распоряжении: ✓ В восклицательном предложении: ✓ Произнося приветствие при встрече: ✓ Выделяя приложение в конце предложения: ✓ В специальном вопросе: ✓ Во второй части альтернативного вопроса: ✓ В разделительном вопросе, если ответ известен и просто уточняется информация (по факту происходит утверждение): ✓ В конце придаточного предложения, стоящего перед главным, если последнее предложение произносится с восходящим тоном: 	<p>I like ↘reading. — <i>Я люблю читать.</i></p> <p>↘Help her. — <i>Помогите ей.</i></p> <p>How ↘interesting! — <i>Как интересно!</i></p> <p>Good ↘afternoon! — <i>Добрый день!</i></p> <p>This is my friend, ↘an artist. — <i>Это мой друг, художник.</i></p> <p>↘Where are you? — <i>Где ты?</i></p> <p>Is it ↗Mary or ↘Kate? — <i>Это Мэри или Кейт?</i></p> <p>You haven't bought any milk, ↘have you? — <i>Ты не купил молоко, не так ли?</i></p> <p>When you come ↘ home, will you call me? — <i>Когда ты придёшь домой, ты позвонишь мне?</i></p>
<p>Нисходяще-восходящий тон помимо утверждения определённого факта содержит различного рода подтекст, т.е. то, что подразумевается (коррекция, уточнение; мягкое, дружелюбное возражение; сомнение, предположение; контраст, противопоставление).</p> <p>I believe her name is Lisa. — Mary. — <i>Я полагаю, её зовут Лиза. — Мэри.</i> I am afraid that's not so. — <i>Боюсь, что это не так.</i></p>	

Видовременные формы глаголов в активном залоге

Активный (действительный) залог (The Active Voice)				
	Simple (простое)	Continuous / Progressive (длительное)	Perfect (совершенное)	Perfect Continuous (совершенное длительное)
<i>meaning</i>	<i>common aspect</i>	<i>process</i>	<i>priority</i>	<i>priority and process</i>
<i>period of time</i>	usually, often, seldom, always, every day (week, month, year)	now, at the moment	ever, never, just, already, yet	since, for
Present	V (s) <i>I play</i> <i>He plays</i>	am/is/are + Ving <i>I am playing</i> <i>He is playing</i> <i>We are playing</i>	have/has + V3/ed <i>I have played</i> <i>He has written</i>	have/has been + Ving <i>I have been playing</i> <i>He has been playing</i>
<i>period of time</i>	yesterday, 2 days ago, last year (month, week)	yesterday at 3pm, yesterday from 2 till 6, when you came	yesterday by 3pm, before some time in the past	yesterday since 3pm, for some time in the past
Past	V2/ed <i>I played</i> <i>I wrote</i>	was/were + Ving <i>I was playing</i> <i>We were playing</i>	had + V3/ed <i>I had written</i> <i>I had played</i>	had been + Ving <i>I had been playing</i>
<i>period of time</i>	tomorrow, next week (month, year)	tomorrow at 3pm, tomorrow from 2 till 6, when you came	tomorrow by 3pm, by some time in the future	tomorrow since 3pm, for some time in the future
Future	will + V <i>I will play</i>	will be + Ving <i>I will be playing</i>	will have + V3/ed <i>I will have written</i> <i>I will have played</i>	will have been + Ving <i>I will have been playing</i>

Времена группы *Perfect*

Present Perfect (настоящее совершенное)		
Утвердительная форма	Отрицательная форма	Вопросительная форма
I have finished / spoken He (she, it) has finished / spoken We (you, they) have finished / spoken *I've, he's, she's, it's, we've, you've, they've	I have not finished / spoken He (she, it) has not finished / spoken We (you, they) have not finished / spoken *haven't, hasn't	Have I finished / spoken? Has he (she, it) finished / spoken? Have we (you, they) finished / spoken?
Употребление Present Perfect		
1. Выражает действие, совершившееся к настоящему моменту, результат которого имеется в настоящем времени. Переводится на русский язык прошедшим временем. 2. Употребляется, если говорящему важен сам факт произошедшего действия, а не его время или обстоятельства. 3. Употребляется, если период, в который произошло действие, еще не закончился. 4. Употребляется вместо Present Perfect Continuous с глаголами, которые не употребляются во временах группы Continuous: to be, to know, to want, to like, to see и др. 5. Употребляется вместо Future Perfect для выражения совершенного будущего действия в придаточных предложениях времени и условия после союзов if – если, when – когда, unless - если не, as soon as - как только и т.д.		
Маркеры времени Present Perfect		
never - никогда, ever – когда-либо, just-только что, already-уже, yet-уже, ещё, before-раньше, lately- за последнее время, by now-к настоящему моменту, so far-пока, до сих пор, since-с тех пор как, today-сегодня, this week(month, year)-на этой неделе (в этом месяце, в этом году), this is the first time...-первый раз		
Past Perfect (прошедшее совершенное)		
Утвердительная форма	Отрицательная форма	Вопросительная форма
I (he, she, it) had finished / spoken We (you, they) had finished / spoken *I'd, he'd, she'd, we'd, you'd, they'd	I (he, she, it) had not finished / spoken We (you, they) had not finished / spoken *hadn't	Had I (he, she, it) finished / spoken? Had we (you, they) finished / spoken?
Употребление Past Perfect		
1. Обозначает действие, закончившееся до определенного момента в прошлом, на которое может указывать точная дата или час, начало другого действия или контекст. 2. Используется, чтобы показать, что какое-то действие произошло раньше другого, («другое» завершённое действие употребляется во времени Past Simple).		

Маркеры времени Past Perfect		
by 5 o'clock – к 5 часам, by Monday- к понедельнику, by the fifth of December – к пятому декабря, by the end of the year – к концу года, by that time- к тому времени, before some time in the past-до определенного момента в прошлом		
Future Perfect (будущее совершенное)		
Утвердительная форма	Отрицательная форма	Вопросительная форма
I (he, she, it) will have finished / spoken We (you, they) will have finished / spoken *I'll, he'll, she'll, it'll, we'll, you'll, they'll	I (he, she, it) will not have finished / spoken We (you, they) will not have finished / spoken *won't	Will I (he, she, it) have finished / spoken ? Will we (you, they) have finished / spoken?
Употребление Future Perfect		
1. Выражает действие, которое случится до определенного момента в будущем. 2. Не употребляется в придаточных предложениях времени и условия. В этих случаях употребляется Present Perfect.		
Маркеры времени Future Perfect		
by – к (какому-то времени), by some time in the future – к определенному времени в будущем		

Времена группы *Perfect Continuous*

Present Perfect Continuous (настоящее совершенное длительное)		
Утвердительная форма	Отрицательная форма	Вопросительная форма
I have been reading He (she, it) has been reading We (you, they) have been reading *I've, he's, she's, it's, we've, you've, they've	I have not been reading He (she, it) has not been reading We (you, they) have not been reading *haven't, hasn't	Have I been reading? Has he (she, it) been reading? Have we (you, they) been reading?
Употребление Present Perfect Continuous		
1. Выражает длительное действие, которое началось в прошлом и еще совершается в настоящее время.		

2. Выражает длительное действие, которое началось в прошлом и закончилось непосредственно перед моментом речи.
3. Не используется с глаголами, которые не употребляются во временах группы Continuous: to be, to know, to want, to like, to see и др. В этих случаях употребляется Present Perfect.

Маркеры времени Present Perfect Continuous
for an hour – в течение часа, for a month – в течение месяца,
since yesterday- со вчерашнего дня, since 5 pm – с 5 часов,
how long?- как долго? since when? – с каких пор?

Past Perfect Continuous (прошедшее совершенное длительное)

Утвердительная форма	Отрицательная форма	Вопросительная форма
I had been reading He (she, it) had been reading We (you, they) had been reading *I'd, he'd, she'd, we'd, you'd, they'd	I had not been reading He (she, it) had not been reading We (you, they) had not been reading *hadn't	Had I been reading? Had he (she, it) been reading? Had we (you, they) been reading?

Употребление Past Perfect Continuous

1. Обозначает длительное прошедшее действие, совершившееся в момент наступления другого прошедшего времени, с указанием, как долго оно совершалось.
2. Обозначает длительное прошедшее действие, закончившееся непосредственно перед моментом наступления другого прошедшего времени.

Маркеры времени Past Perfect Continuous
for a week – в течение недели, since 5 o'clock- с 5 часов

Future Perfect Continuous (будущее совершенное длительное)

Утвердительная форма	Отрицательная форма	Вопросительная форма
I will have been reading He (she, it) will have been reading We (you, they) will have been reading *I'll, he'll, she'll, it'll, we'll, you'll, they'll	I will not have been reading He (she, it) will not have been reading We (you, they) will not have been reading *won't	Will I have been reading? Will he (she, it) have been reading? Will we (you, they) have been reading?

Употребление Future Perfect Continuous

1. Выражает длительное будущее действие, которое начнется ранее другого будущего действия (или момента) и будет еще совершаться в момент его наступления.

Маркеры времени Future Perfect Continuous
for a week – в течение недели, since 5 o'clock- с 5 часов

Видовременные формы глаголов в пассивном залоге

Пассивный (страдательный) залог (The Passive Voice)				
	Simple (простое)	Continuous / Progressive (длительное)	Perfect (совершенное)	Perfect Continuous (совершенное длительное)
Present	am/is/are + V3/ed <i>I am asked</i> <i>It is written</i>	am/is/are + being + V3/ed <i>I am being asked</i> <i>It is being written</i>	have/has been + V3/ed <i>I have been asked</i> <i>It has been written</i>	×
Past	was/were + V3/ed <i>I was asked</i> <i>They were written</i>	was/were + being + V3/ed <i>I was being asked</i> <i>They were being written</i>	had been + V3/ed <i>I had been asked</i> <i>It had been written</i>	×
Future	will be + V3/ed <i>I will be asked</i>	×	will have been + V3/ed <i>I will have been asked</i>	×
Future-in-the-Past	would be + V3/ed <i>I would be asked</i>	×	would have been + V3/ed <i>I would have been asked</i>	×

Глаголы состояния (Stative verbs)

<p><i>Статические, или глаголы состояния, передают состояния, чувства, отношения, умственные процессы и другие характеристики предмета. Они не употребляются во временах группы Continuous, т. е. не могут иметь длительного времени.</i></p> <p>К этим глаголам относятся следующие группы:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> глаголы, выражающие эмоции и желания, глаголы, выражающие физическое восприятие, глаголы, выражающие умственное состояние, глаголы, выражающие владение чем-либо. 		
to adore – обожать	to hear – слышать	to know — знать
to care for – заботиться	to see* – видеть, понимать	to believe — верить
to hate – ненавидеть	to observe – замечать	to notice — замечать

to like – нравиться	to recognize – узнавать, признавать	to realize – осознавать
to love – любить	to seem – казаться	to understand — понимать
to dislike – не любить	to smell* – иметь запах	to forget — забывать
to respect – уважать	to sound – звучать	to remember — помнить
to doubt – сомневаться	to taste* – быть на вкус	to mean – иметь в виду, означать
to regret – сожалеть	to weigh – весить	to be* – быть, являться
to hope – надеяться	to distinguish – различать	to belong – принадлежать
to envy – завидовать	to recognize– узнавать	to own – обладать
to desire – страстно желать	resemble – быть похожим	to contain – содержать в себе
to want – хотеть	to agree – соглашаться	to cost – стоить
to wish – желать	to disagree – не соглашаться	to depend on – зависеть
to need – нуждаться	to consider – считать	to possess – обладать
to prefer – предпочитать	to estimate – оценивать	to imagine – представлять
to hesitate – не решаться	to expect – ожидать	to guess – считать
to think – иметь мнение, верить (но не «обдумывать»)	to look* – выглядеть, казаться (но не «смотреть»)	to have* – иметь (обладать)
to come from –быть родом (по происхождению)	to feel* – считать, полагать	

*Глаголы, которые могут быть и статичными, и динамичными в зависимости от значения.

Неправильные глаголы (Irregular verbs)

Глаголы, у которых совпадают все формы			
Перевод	Infinitive	Past Simple	Past Participle
класть	put [put]	put [put]	put [put]
позволять	let [let]	let [let]	let [let]
резать	cut [kʌt]	cut [kʌt]	cut [kʌt]
ставить (устанавливать)	set [set]	set [set]	set [set]
стоять	cost [kɒst]	cost [kɒst]	cost [kɒst]
бить	hit [hit]	hit [hit]	hit [hit]
причинять боль	hurt [hɜ:t]	hurt [hɜ:t]	hurt [hɜ:t]
вязать	knit [nɪt]	knit [nɪt]	knit [nɪt]
распространять	spread [spred]	spread [spred]	spread [spred]
Глаголы, у которых совпадают 1-я и 3-я формы			
бежать	run [rʌn]	ran [ræn]	run [rʌn]
приходить	come [kʌm]	came [keɪm]	come [kʌm]
становиться	become [bi:kʌm]	became [bi:keɪm]	become [bi:kʌm]
Глаголы, у которых совпадают 1-я и 2-я формы			
читать	read[ri:d]	read[red]	read[red]
учить (получать знания)	learn[lɜ:n]	learnt[lɜ:nt] (learned)	learnt[lɜ:nt] (learned)
думать	think[θɪŋk]	thought[θɔ:t]	thought[θɔ:t]
учить (обучать)	teach[ti:tʃ]	taught[tɔ:t]	taught[tɔ:t]
пахнуть (чувствовать запах)	smell[smel]	smelt[smelt]	smelt[smelt]
слышать	hear[hɪə]	heard[hɜ:d]	heard[hɜ:d]
держать	hold[hould]	held[held]	held[held]
приносить	bring[brɪŋ]	brought[brɔ:t]	brought[brɔ:t]
стоять	stand[stænd]	stood[stʊ:d]	stood[stʊ:d]
терять (проигрывать)	lose[lu:z]	lost[lɒst]	lost[lɒst]

встречать	meet[mi:t]	met[met]	met[met]
вести	lead[li:d]	led[led]	led[led]
понимать	understand [ʌndə'stænd]	understood [ʌndə'stʊd]	understood [ʌndə'stʊd]
побеждать	win[win]	won[wʌn]	won[wʌn]
покупать	buy[bai]	bought[bɔ:t]	bought[bɔ:t]
отправлять	send[send]	sent[sent]	sent[sent]
продавать	sell[sel]	sold[sould]	sold[sould]
ловить	catch[kætʃ]	caught[kɔ:t]	caughtkɔ:t]
драться	fight[faɪt]	fought[fɔ:t]	fought[fɔ:t]
сидеть	sit[sit]	sat[sæt]	sat[sæt]
связывать	bind[baind]	bound[baund]	bound[baund]
строить	build[bild]	built[bilt]	built[bilt]
гореть	burn[bɜ:n]	burnt[bɜ:nt]	burnt[bɜ:nt]
иметь дело	deal[di:l]	dealt[delt]	dealt[delt]
копать	dig[dɪg]	dug[dʌg]	dug[dʌg]
кормить	feed[fi:d]	fed[fed]	fed[fed]
вешать	hang[hæŋ]	hung[hʌŋ]	hung[hʌŋ]
прятать	hide[haɪd]	hid[hɪd]	hidden[ˈhɪdn]
одалживать (кому-то)	lend[lend]	lent[lent]	lent[lent]
освещать	light[lait]	lit[lit]	lit[lit]
ехать верхом	ride[rɪd]	rode[rouð]	ridden[ˈrɪdn]
шить	sew[sou]	sewed[souð]	sewed (sewn)[souð]
писать или говорить по буквам	spell[spel]	spelt[spelt]	spelt[spelt]
проливать	spill[spɪl]	spil [spɪlt]	spil [spɪlt]
портить	spoil[spɔɪl]	spoilt[spɔɪlt]	spoilt[spɔɪlt]
подметать	sweep[swi:p]	swept [swept]	swept[swept]
плакать	weep[wi:p]	wept[wept]	wept[wept]

Глаголы, у которых все формы разные			
идти	go[gou]	went[went]	gone[gɒn]
знать	know[nou]	knew[nju:]	known[noun]
брать	take[teik]	took[tuk]	taken[ˈteik(ə)n]
видеть	see[si:]	saw[sɔ:]	seen[si:n]
давать	give[giv]	gave[geiv]	given[givn]
писать	write[rait]	wrote[rout]	written[ˈritn]
говорить	speak[spi:k]	spoke[spouk]	spoken[ˈspouk(e)n]
вести машину	drive[draiv]	drove[drouv]	driven[ˈdrivn]
ломать	break[breik]	broke[brouk]	broken[ˈbrouk(e)n]
носить (одежду)	wear[wɛə]	wore[wɔ:]	worn[wɔ:n]
есть	eat[i:t]	ate[et]	eaten[ˈi:tn]
пить	drink[drɪŋk]	drank[dræŋk]	drunk[drʌŋk]
рисовать (тянуть)	draw[drɔ:]	drew[dru:]	drawn[drɔ:n]
бросать	throw[θrəu]	threw[θru:]	thrown[θrəun]
дуть	blow[blou]	blew[blu:]	blown[bloun]
падать	fall[fɔ:l]	fell[fel]	fallen[ˈfɔ:lən]
начинать	begin[biˈgɪn]	began[biˈgæn]	begun[biˈgʌn]
забывать	forget[fəˈget]	forgot[fəˈgɒt]	forgotten[fəˈgɒt(ə)n]
прощать	forgive[fɔˈgɪv]	forgave[fɔˈgeiv]	forgiven[fɔˈgɪvn]
летать	fly[flai]	flew [flu:]	flown[floun]
замерзать	freeze[fri:z]	froze[frouz]	frozen[ˈfrouzn]
расти	grow[grou]	grew[gru:]	grown[groun]
звонить	ring[rɪŋ]	rang[ræŋ]	rung[rʌŋ]
трясти	shake[ʃeɪk]	shook[ʃuk]	shaken[ˈʃeɪk(ə)n]
петь	sing[sɪŋ]	sang[sæŋ]	sung[sʌŋ]
клясться	swear[sweə]	swore[swɔ:]	sworn[swɔ:n]
рвать	tear[tɛə]	tore[tɔ:]	torn[tɔ:n]

Модальные глаголы и их эквиваленты (Modal verbs)

<p><i>Модальные глаголы</i> — это небольшая группа особых глаголов, которые не выражают действие или состояние, а отражают отношение говорящего к действию. Некоторые из них не имеют форм прошедшего или будущего времени, и для выражения отношения в других временах используются, так называемые, <i>эквиваленты</i>, которые заменяют их в определенных случаях.</p>				
Модальные глаголы	Значение	Present	Past	Future
can	мочь, уметь, быть в состоянии, быть способным	can	could	-
<i>be able to</i>		<i>I am able to V</i> <i>he/she/it is able to V</i> <i>we/you/they are able to V</i>	<i>I/he/she/ it was able to V</i> <i>we/you/they were able to V</i>	<i>will be able to V</i>
may	мочь, иметь разрешение	may	might	-
<i>be allowed to</i>		<i>I am allowed to V</i> <i>he/she/ it is allowed to V</i> <i>we/you/they are allowed to V</i>	<i>I/he/she/ it was allowed to V</i> <i>we/you/they were allowed to V</i>	<i>will be allowed to V</i>
must	должен, обязан	must	-	-
<i>have to</i>	вынужден, приходится (из-за внешних обстоятельств)	<i>I/we/you/they have to V</i> <i>he/she/ it has to V</i>	<i>had to V</i>	<i>will have to V</i>
<i>be to</i>	должен (по плану)	<i>I am to V</i> <i>he/she/ it is to V</i> <i>we/you/they are to V</i>	<i>I/he/she/ it was to V</i> <i>we/you/they were to V</i>	<i>will be to V</i>
should ought to	следует, следовало бы (совет)	should ought to	-	-
Особенности употребления отрицательных и вопросительных форм некоторых модальных глаголов и их эквивалентов				
mustn't		нельзя	You mustn't smoke here.-	

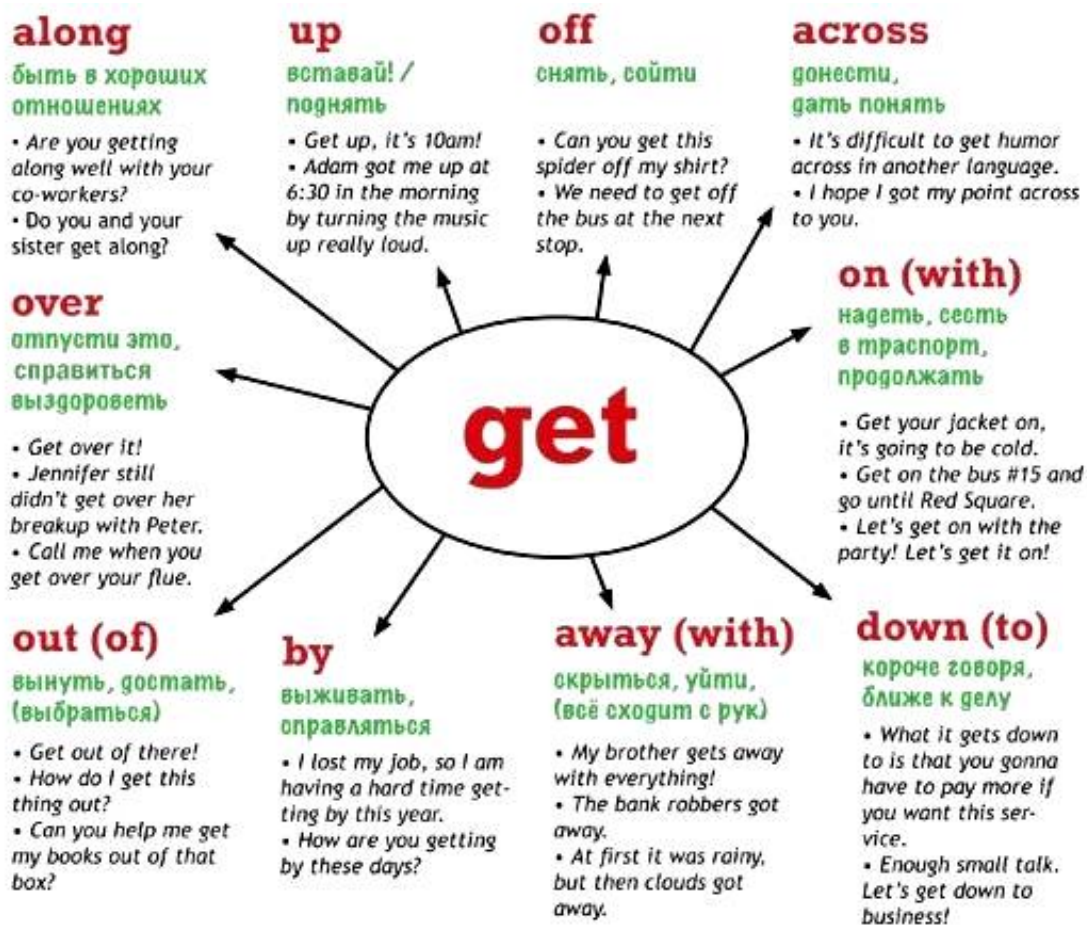
can't	(запрет)	Здесь нельзя курить.
needn't don't have to/doesn't have to	не нужно (отсутствие необходимости)	You needn't go to school. — Тебе не надо идти в школу.
shouldn't	не следует (совет)	You shouldn't drink this coffee.- Тебе не стоит пить этот кофе.
May/can/could...?	можно (разрешение)	May I buy these trousers? — Можно я куплю эти брюки?
Can/could/would/will....?	не могли бы (просьба)	Could you give me your pen?— Не могли бы вы дать мне свою ручку?
Shall/will.....?	(предложение сделать что-либо)	Shall I open the door?— Мне открыть дверь? Will you give me the salt?— Не передадите мне соль?

Фразовые глаголы (Phrasal verbs)

<p><i>Фразовые глаголы</i> — это глаголы в сочетании с предлогом или наречием. В этом сочетании глаголы приобретают новое значение, которое не всегда связано с отдельными значениями глагола и частицы.</p>	
<p>1. Фразово-предложные глаголы – это глагол + наречие + предлог. 2. Предложные глаголы – это глагол + предлог. 3. Фразовые глаголы – это глагол + наречие.</p>	
Разделяемые фразовые глаголы	Неразделяемые фразовые глаголы
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Если глагол разделяемый, то дополнение, выраженное <i>существительным</i>, может стоять либо после фразового глагола, либо между глаголом и частицей: I took off my shoes. I took my shoes off. (Я снял свои ботинки.) Если дополнение представлено <i>местоимением</i>, то фразовый глагол всегда разделяется и местоимение помещается между двух его частей: I took them off. (Я снял их.) I took off them. – не верно. 	<p>1. I won't put up with your attitude. – Я не примирюсь с твоей позицией/отношением.</p> <p>2. He is looking after the dog. – Он ухаживает за собакой.</p> <p>3. He was late because his car broke down. – Он опоздал, потому что его машина сломалась.</p>

Примеры фразовых глаголов	
<p>cut something off (отрезать; прерывать; отключать), figure something out (понимать; постигать), give something back (возвращать) put something off (отложить) put something away (убрать) put something on (надевать) look something up (смотреть в словаре) ask someone out (приглашать) call something up (вызывать, напоминать) give something away (отдавать)</p>	<p>go in for (интересоваться, увлекаться), catch up with (догонять) think about (обдумывать), stop off (зайти; сделать короткую остановку в пути) came across (случайно натолкнуться) get over (преодолевать) go on (продолжать) get on (садиться на) get off (слезать с, сходить) look after (присматривать за) care for (заботиться о) hear from (получить ответ от) run into (столкнуться с)</p>

Фразовые глаголы (get, come, look, take, go)







Инфинитив (Infinitive)

<p><i>Инфинитив</i> – это неличная форма глагола. Как и личная форма глагола, инфинитив называет действие, но в отличие от глагола, не указывает на лицо и число. Инфинитив по-другому называют “неопределенная форма глагола”, которая отвечает на вопрос «<i>Что делать?</i>» и употребляется с частицей <i>to</i>.</p>		
Формы инфинитива		
	Активный залог	Пассивный залог
Simple	to ask	to be asked
Continuous	to be asking	-
Perfect	to have asked	to have been asked
Perfect Continuous	to have been asking	-
<p>Отрицательная форма инфинитива образуется с помощью частицы <i>not</i>: He asked me not to be late. – Он попросил меня не опаздывать.</p>		
Употребление инфинитива		
Инфинитив бывает с частицей to	Инфинитив бывает без частицы to .	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ После следующих глаголов: tell to– говорить\велеть что-то, want to, would like to – хотеть, - plan to – планировать, try to – пробовать, пытаться, hope to – надеяться, promise to – обещать, decide to – решать, принимать решение, offer to – предлагать, forget to - забывать, learn to – учиться. ✓ После прилагательных: be afraid – бояться, be (un) able – быть (не) способным, be angry – сердиться, be glad –быть довольным, be happy – быть счастливым, be ready – быть готовым, be sad – быть грустным, be sorry – сожалеть. ✓ Для обозначения цели действия: She came to collect her letter. – Она пришла (чтобы) забрать свое письмо. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ После модальных глаголов They must leave. ✓ После глаголов <i>let, make</i> и глаголов восприятия Her parents let her visit us. ✓ После <i>had better</i> They had better work harder. ✓ После вопросительного местоимения <i>why</i> Why wait until tomorrow? 	

Герундий (Gerund)

<p><i>Герундий</i> – это неличная форма глагола, которая называет действие и совмещает в себе признаки глагола и существительного. Как глагол, герундий называет действие, имеет различные формы, а как существительное, герундий может употребляться с предлогом. На русский язык переводится то существительным, то глаголом.</p>		
Формы герундия		
	Активный залог	Пассивный залог
Simple	asking	being asked
Perfect	having asked	having been asked
<p>Отрицательная форма герундия образуется с помощью частицы not: not asking, not being asked, not having asked, not having been asked</p>		
Употребление герундия		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ В роли подлежащего: Brushing your teeth is important. – Чистить зубы – важно. ✓ После следующих глаголов: avoid – избегать, finish – заканчивать, stop, give up – прекращать, keep (on) – продолжать, put off, postpone, delay – откладывать, переносить. require – требовать, enjoy – наслаждаться, получать удовольствие, mind – возражать. ✓ После предлога, перед которым стоит глагол, причастие, прилагательное или существительное: I was surprised at seeing them together. – Я был удивлен увидеть их вместе. I'm afraid of doing a wrong thing. – Я боюсь поступить неправильно. 		
ПРИМЕЧАНИЕ		
<p>В английском языке есть отглагольные существительные с - ing на конце, их можно перепутать с герундием, но они отличаются тем, что являются на 100% существительными и обозначают предмет\лицо\явление, но НЕ действие. Перед отглагольным существительным может стоять артикль или притяжательное местоимение, как перед существительным.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Герундий: I like painting — Мне нравится рисование (процесс). • Отглагольное существительное: How much is the painting? — Сколько стоит эта картина? (предмет) 		

Глаголы, после которых герундий или инфинитив используются с разницей в значении

Forget – забывать	Forget + инфинитив = забыть сделать что-то Forget + герундий = забыть, как делал что-то
Remember – помнить	Remember + инфинитив = помнить сделать что-то Remember + герундий = помнить, как делал что-то
Go on – продолжать	Go on + инфинитив = перейти к другому действию Go on + герундий = продолжить делать что-то
Quit – прекращать	Quit + инфинитив = прекращать, чтобы... Quit + герундий = прекращать делать что-то
Stop – прекращать, останавливаться	Stop + инфинитив = останавливаться, чтобы... Stop + герундий = прекращать делать что-то
Regret – сожалеть	Regret + инфинитив = делать что-то с сожалением Regret + герундий = сожалеть о чем-то
Try – пытаться, пробовать	Try + инфинитив = пытаться сделать что-то, прилагать усилия Try + герундий = попробовать сделать что-то, проверить догадку, экспериментировать
Mean – подразумевать, иметь в виду, хотеть, делать что-то всерьез	Mean + инфинитив = хотеть, делать что-то всерьез Mean + герундий = подразумевать, иметь в виду
Need – нуждаться	Need + инфинитив = нуждаться сделать что-то Need + герундий = нуждаться в чем-то

Причастие (Participle)

<p><i>Причастие</i> — это неличная форма глагола. Причастие в английском языке имеет свойства глагола и прилагательного или наречия. Причастие в английском языке соответствует причастию и деепричастию в русском языке.</p>		
Формы причастия		
причастие настоящего времени (Present Participle) Active/Passive	причастие прошедшего времени (Past Participle) Passive	перфектное причастие (Perfect Participle) Active/Passive
Ving being + Ved/V3	- Ved/V3	having + Ved/V3 having been + Ved/V3
speak - speaking come – coming sit – sitting travel – travelling (<i>BrE</i>) travel – traveling (<i>AmE</i>) lie – lying being asked being taken	watch - watched love – loved admit – admitted hurry – hurried speak – spoken	having cooked having lived having spent having bought having been cooked having been taken
Примеры употребления		
A running boy – бегущий мальчик. That man shouting at people seems familiar. – Тот человек, орущий на людей, кажется мне знакомым. Cooking dinner, she forgot spices. — При приготовлении (готовя) ужина она забыла о специях.	They fixed the broken cup. – Они починили разбитую чашку. The show, watched by my sister, was funny. Шоу, которое смотрела моя сестра, было смешным.	Having cooked , he set the table. - Закончив готовить , он накрыл на стол. Having bought a bike, she cycled home. Купив велосипед , она поехала на нем домой.
The house being demolished (which is being demolished) is old. – Дом, который сносят, старый. Being asked , he didn't refuse to answer. – Когда его попросили, он не отказался отвечать.	When reminded of her promise she always blushed. – Когда ей напоминали о ее обещании, она всегда краснела.	Having been cooked , the food looked delicious. - Когда еда была приготовлена, она выглядела очень вкусно.

Сложное подлежащее (Complex subject)

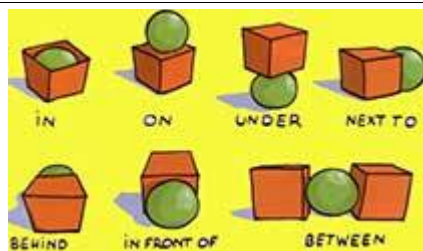
<p>Сложное подлежащее состоит из двух частей: существительное\местоимение + инфинитив с частицей <i>to</i>.</p>	
<p>Complex Subject и глаголы в активном залоге</p>	
<p>seem – казаться, appear – казаться, вы- глядеть, появляться, happen – случаться, оказываться, prove – оказываться, turn out – оказываться</p>	<p><u>The study</u> appears to show a good result. – Кажется, что исследование показало хороший резуль- тат. <u>He</u> turned out to be a cheater. – Оказалось, что он мошенник.</p>
<p>Complex Subject и глаголы в пассивном залоге</p>	
<p>is (are) said – говорят is (are) known – известно is (are) reported- сообщается is (are) announced- объявлено is (are) believed – полагают is (are) expected – ожидается is (are) considered – считается was (were) seen – видели was (were) heard – слышали was (were) noticed- заметили</p>	<p><u>They</u> are expected to pass the exam. – Ожидается, что они сдадут экзамен. <u>My cat</u> was seen to chase a dog. – Видели, как моя кошка бежит за собакой.</p>
<p>Complex Subject и прилагательные</p>	
<p>be likely – вероятно be unlikely – маловеро- ятно be certain – определен- но, несомненно be sure – обязательно, наверняка.</p>	<p><u>This car</u> is sure to be expensive. – Наверняка эта машина дорого стоит.</p>

Сложное дополнение (Complex object)

<p>Сложное дополнение состоит из прямого дополнения, которое выражено существительным или местоимением в объектном подеже (me, her, him, you, us, them) + инфинитив с частицей to или без to / Ving.</p>	
<p>Complex object + инфинитив с частицей to</p>	
<p>want – хотеть need – нуждаться wish – желать desire – страстно желать would like (d’like) – хотел бы like – любить, нравиться hate – ненавидеть</p> <p>think – думать believe – полагать, верить suppose – полагать know – знать consider – считать find – находить (считать) expect – ожидать</p> <p>order – приказывать tell – в значении <i>велеть</i> command – командовать, приказывать, ask for – просить allow – разрешать, позволять</p>	<p>I want <u>him to go</u> to the shop. – Я хочу, чтобы он пошел в магазин.</p> <p>We believe <u>her to be</u> right. – Мы полагаем, что она права.</p> <p>The police officer told <u>them to detain</u> the suspect. – Полицейский сказал им задержать подозреваемого. The police officer told <u>the suspect to be</u> detained. – Полицейский сказал задержать подозреваемого.</p>
<p>Complex object + инфинитив без частицы to</p>	
<p>make – заставлять let – позволять, разрешать</p>	<p>She makes <u>me drink</u> milk. – Она заставляет меня пить молоко.</p>
<p>Complex object после глаголов восприятия + инфинитив без частицы to или Ving.</p>	
<p>see – видеть watch, observe – наблюдать hear – слышать feel – чувствовать</p>	<p>She saw <u>them enter</u> the house. – Она видела, как они вошли в дом. (инфинитив обычно выражает законченное действие)</p> <p>She saw them entering the house. – Она видела, как они входили в дом. (причастие обычно выражает длительное действие)</p>

Предлоги (Prepositions)

Предлоги места (Prepositions of Place)



Предлог ON

- | | |
|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ на, на поверхности ▪ указывает на сторону: справа / слева ▪ по радио, по телевизору, в интернете ▪ в общественном транспорте | <p>on the floor – на полу
on the wall – на стене</p> <p>on the right – справа,
on the left — слева</p> <p>on the radio – по радио
on TV – по телевидению
on the Internet – по интернету</p> <p>on the bus – в автобусе
on the train – в поезде</p> |
|---|--|

Предлог IN

- | | |
|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ в городе / стране / на континенте ▪ в, внутри (комнаты, здания, закрытого пространства) ▪ в автомобиле ▪ на картине ▪ на улице | <p>in Moscow – в Москве
in France – во Франции
in Africa – в Африке</p> <p>in the room – в комнате
in the shop – в магазине
in the park – в парке</p> <p>in the car – в автомобиле</p> <p>in the picture – на картине</p> <p>in the street – на улице</p> |
|--|---|

Предлог AT

- | | |
|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ у, около ▪ на, в (события, места, открытые пространства) ▪ за столом | <p>at the door – у двери</p> <p>at the conference – на конференции
at the party - на вечеринке
at the station – на станции
at the airport – в аэропорту
at home/work/university – дома, на работе,
в университете (на учебе)</p> <p>at the table – за столом</p> |
|--|--|

Предлоги времени (Prepositions of Time)

Предлог IN	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ с месяцами, годами, десятилетиями, веками ▪ с временем суток (кроме <i>ночь, полдень</i>) ▪ с сезонами ▪ через (промежуток времени) 	<p>in May – в мае in 2000 – в 2000 in the 1970s – в 70-е годы in the 18th century – в 18-м веке</p> <p>in the morning - утром in the afternoon - днем in the evening - вечером</p> <p>in summer - летом</p> <p>in 2 hours – через 2 часа</p>
Предлог ON	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ с днями недели, временем суток в определенный день ▪ с датами ▪ с праздниками(если есть слово DAY) ▪ устойчивые выражения 	<p>on Monday – в понедельник on Friday evening – в пятницу вечером</p> <p>on the 5th of December – 5-го декабря = on 5, December</p> <p>on Victory Day – в День Победы on Valentine’s Day – в День Св.Валентина</p> <p>on vacation/holiday/business – на каникулах, в отпуске, в командировке</p>
Предлог AT	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ при указании времени ▪ с праздниками ▪ во время приема пищи ▪ со словами night, dawn, midnight, midday, sunrise, sunset ▪ со словами beginning, end, moment, weekend (BrE) 	<p>at 5 o’clock – в 5 часов</p> <p>at Christmas – в Рождество</p> <p>at breakfast – за завтраком</p> <p>at dawn – на рассвете at night – ночью at midday – в полдень</p> <p>at the end of the conference – в конце конференции at the weekend – в выходные</p>

Предлоги движения (Prepositions of Movement)

Предлоги OFF/OUT OF/INTO	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ off – с, с поверхности ▪ out of – из, изнутри ▪ into – в, (внутри чего-либо) 	<p>Take the book off the shelf. – Возьми книгу с полки.</p> <p>She went out of the room. – Она вышла из комнаты.</p> <p>I put my pens into the box. – Я кладу ручки в коробку.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ off (с общественным транспортом), out of (с автомобилями) ▪ in(to) (при посадке в автомобиль), on (при посадке в общественный транспорт, велосипед) 	<p>off the bus – из автобуса</p> <p>out of the car – из машины</p> <p>He got into his car. – Он сел в свою машину.</p>
Предлоги FROM/TO	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ to – к, в, до ▪ from – от, из 	<p>to the bank – к банку</p> <p>from the bank – от банка</p>
Предлоги UP/DOWN	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ up – вверх, по ▪ down – вниз 	<p>She is going up the street. – Она идет вверх по улице.</p> <p>He led his way down the stairs. – Он пошел вниз по лестнице.</p>
Предлоги ACROSS/TROUGH/OVER	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ across – через, поперек ▪ through — через, сквозь ▪ over – через, над 	<p>across the river– через реку</p> <p>through the forest— через лес</p> <p>over the city– над городом</p>
Предлоги PAST/ALONG	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ past – мимо ▪ along — вдоль, по 	<p>past the park - мимо парка</p> <p>along the border – вдоль границы</p>
Предлог ROUND	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ round — вокруг, кругом, за 	<p>Let's go round the garden. – Давай обойдем вокруг сада.</p>

Предлоги и глагол GO (Prepositions with GO)

<p>Go to:</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • class – идти на урок • work – идти на работу • school / college / university – идти в школу, колледж, университет • bed – идти спать • prison / jail – отправляться в тюрьму (сесть в тюрьму) • Washington, Italy, Europe, Asia
<p>Go to a: *когда речь не идет о чем-то конкретном</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • party – идти на вечеринку • conference – идти на конференцию • concert – идти на концерт
<p>Go to the: *когда речь идет о чем-то конкретном</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • doctor – идти к доктору • bank – идти в банк • supermarket / mall – идти в супермаркет, торговый центр • airport – идти (ехать) в аэропорт
<p>Go on:</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • holiday – уходить в отпуск • a trip – отправляться в поездку • a tour – отправляться в тур, на экскурсию • a cruise – отправляться в круиз • a date - на свидание • strike – идти на забастовку, объявлять (забастовку)
<p>Go for:</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a walk – идти на прогулку • a run – идти на пробежку • a picnic – идти на пикник
<p>Go: -в значении “идти, ехать” -в значении “становиться”</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • go home – идти домой • go here/there – идти сюда/туда • go abroad – ехать за границу • go upstairs/downstairs – идти вверх/вниз по лестнице (спускаться или подниматься по ступенькам) • go crazy – сходить с ума • go blind / go deaf – стать слепым / глухим • go bald – облысеть • go bad – испортиться, пропасть (о еде)
<p>Go + глагол на -ing:</p>	<p>go shopping – идти за покупками</p> <p>go fishing – идти на рыбалку</p> <p>go swimming – идти поплавать</p>

Союзы (Conjunctions)

Сочинительные союзы (Coordinating Conjunctions)

<p>Соединительные (copulative)</p>	<p>and – и as well as – так же, как nor – также не neither ... nor – ни ... ни not (only) ... but (also) – не только ... но и both ... and – и ... и, как ... так и</p>
<p>Разделительные (disjunctive)</p>	<p>or – или either ... or – или ... или, либо ... либо</p>
<p>Противительные (adversative)</p>	<p>and – а, но but – но, а, однако still – всё же, тем не менее nevertheless – однако, несмотря на yet – тем не менее, однако however – однако, тем не менее anyhow – так или иначе, что бы то ни было</p>
<p>Причинно-следственные (causative-consecutive)</p>	<p>hence – поэтому, следовательно so – так что, поэтому; следовательно thus – таким образом, итак, соответственно therefore – по этой причине, вследствие этого for – ввиду того, что</p>

Подчинительные союзы (Subordinating Conjunctions)

<p>Изъяснительные (objective, subjective, predicative)</p>	<p>that – что if – ли, если</p>
<p>Временные (of time)</p>	<p>as soon as – как только as long as – пока, до тех пор as – когда, пока till – пока, до тех пор пока until – пока before – прежде чем, до того как after – после того как when – когда, в то время как since – с тех пор как while – пока, в то время как</p>
<p>Целевые (of purpose)</p>	<p>that – что, чтобы in order to – для того, чтобы so that – так что, чтобы lest – чтобы не, как бы не</p>

<p>Причинные (of reason/cause)</p>	<p>as – так как because – потому что because of – вследствие, из-за since – так как seeing – принимая во внимание, поскольку so ... that – так ... что lest – чтобы не, как бы не considering – учитывая, принимая во внимание</p>
<p>Условные (of condition)</p>	<p>if – если, если бы unless – если не, пока не provided (that) – при условии, если providing (that) – при условии, что supposing (that) – если, предположим (что) once – лишь, хоть</p>
<p>Образа действия и сравнения (of manner and comparison)</p>	<p>as – таким образом, что as if – как будто, будто as though – как будто the way – таким образом (делать что-либо) than – чем as ... as – такой (же) ... как not so ... as – не такой ... как so... as – такой ... как the ... the – чем ... тем</p>
<p>Следствия (resultative)</p>	<p>that – что so that – так что</p>
<p>Уступительные (concessive)</p>	<p>although – хотя, если бы даже though – хотя, несмотря на</p>

Союзные слова

<p><i>Союзные слова</i> – это относительные местоимения, которые не только связывают части сложного предложения, но и являются членами придаточного предложения.</p>
<p>who – кто, который what – что whose – чей, чьё when – когда which – каковой, (тот) который that – который, кто where – где, который how – как why – почему</p>

Безличные предложения (Impersonal sentences)

В *безличных предложениях*, когда нет подлежащего с конкретным предметным значением, в качестве формального грамматического подлежащего обычно используется местоимение *it*.

It is + существительное	It is + прилагательное It is + наречие	It is + глагол	It is + числительное
<p>It is <i>spring</i>. – Весна. It is <i>morning</i>. – Утро. It was a warm <i>spring day</i>. – Был теплый весенний день. It will be <i>winter</i> soon. – Скоро будет зима.</p>	<p>It is <i>hot</i>. – Жарко. It is <i>wet</i>. – Сыро. It is <i>cold</i>. – Холодно. It is <i>dark</i>. – Темно. It is <i>sunny</i>. – Солнечно. It is <i>windy</i>. – Ветрено. It is <i>easy</i> for me to study English. – Мне легко изучать английский язык. It is <i>very far</i> for us to walk there. – Туда очень далеко идти.</p>	<p>It <i>rains</i>. – Идет дождь. It <i>snows</i>. – Идет снег. It <i>takes</i> me about an hour to do my morning exercise. – У меня занимает около часа зарядка утром. <i>It is believed</i> that English is easy to study. – Считается, что английский язык изучать легко. It <i>is getting</i> dark. – Становится темно.</p>	<p>It is <i>eight</i> o'clock. – 8 часов. It is <i>one kilometre</i> from our house. – От нашего дома один километр.</p>

Безличное предложение используется для выражения модальности с глаголами **can, may, must**. В этом случае формальным подлежащим является слово **one**, которое при переводе на русский язык опускается.

One must not smoke here. – Здесь нельзя курить.
One should wash hands before having meals. – Нужно мыть руки перед едой.
One cannot do all the work at once. – Невозможно сделать всю работу сразу.

Придаточные предложения (Clauses)

Придаточные предложения подлежащие	
<p>Придаточные подлежащие выполняют функцию <u>подлежащего</u> и отвечают на такие же вопросы, что и подлежащее: <i>кто? что?</i> Они соединяются с главным предложением союзами и союзными словами</p>	<p>that – что whether, if – ли who, whom – кто, кого which – который when – когда where – где, куда how – как why – почему whose – чей what – что, какой</p>
Придаточные предложения сказуемые	
<p>Придаточные сказуемые выполняют функцию <u>сказуемого</u> и отвечают на вопросы: <i>каково подлежащее? что оно такое?</i></p>	<p>Они соединяются с главным предложением теми же союзами и союзными словами, что и придаточные предложения подлежащие.</p>
Придаточные предложения дополнения	
<p>Придаточные дополнения выполняют функцию <u>дополнения</u> и отвечают на вопросы: <i>что? о чем? за что?</i> и т. д.</p>	<p>Они соединяются с главным предложением теми же средствами, что и придаточные подлежащие и сказуемые.</p>
Придаточные предложения определения	
<p>Придаточные определения выполняют функцию <u>определения</u> и отвечают на вопросы: <i>какой? какая?</i> Они соединяются с главной частью союзными словами</p>	<p>who, whom, that – который, которого whose – чей, которого which, that – который when – когда where – где, куда why – почему</p>
Придаточные предложения обстоятельства	
<p><i>Придаточные времени</i> Отвечают на вопросы: <i>когда? с каких пор? как долго?</i> Соединяются с главной частью союзами</p>	<p>when – когда whenever – всякий раз, когда while – в то время как as – когда, в то время как after – после того как before – до того как till, untill – пока, до тех пор пока as soon as – как только as long as – пока since – с тех пор как by the time (that) – к тому времени как</p>

<p><i>Придаточные места</i></p> <p>Отвечают на вопросы: <i>где? куда? откуда?</i> Они соединяются с главным предложением союзными словами</p>	<p>where – где, куда wherever – где бы ни, куда бы ни</p>
<p><i>Придаточные причины</i></p> <p>Отвечают на вопрос: <i>почему?</i> Присоединяются с помощью союзов</p>	<p>because – потому что as – так как since – так как, поскольку, потому что that – потому что</p>
<p><i>Придаточные следствия</i></p> <p>Выражают следствие, вытекающее из содержания главного предложения в составе сложноподчиненного. Они соединяются с главной частью союзами</p>	<p>so that, so... that – так что so (в разговорной речи часто используется вместо so that) such that, such... that that.</p>
<p><i>Придаточные образа действия и сравнения</i></p> <p>Отвечают на вопросы: <i>как? каким образом?</i> Соединяются с главной частью предложения союзами</p>	<p>like – как as – как as if – как если бы, как будто that – что</p>
<p><i>Придаточные уступительные</i></p> <p>Указывают на обстоятельство, вопреки которому совершается действие главного предложения. Они соединяются с главной частью с помощью союзов</p>	<p>though – хотя although – хотя even though – хотя, несмотря на то, что even if – даже если in spite of the fact that – не смотря на тот факт, что</p>
<p><i>Придаточные цели</i></p> <p>Указывают на цель действия, выраженного в главном предложении, и отвечают на вопросы: <i>зачем? для чего? с какой целью?</i> Они выражаются следующими способами</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. to + инфинитив – чтобы сделать что-то. 2. in order to/so as to + инфинитив – для того чтобы сделать что-то. 3. so that + can/will(could/would) – используется для выражения цели в настоящем или будущем (в прошлом) 4. in case + глагол (в настоящем или прошедшем времени) – на случай, если. 5. for + существительное – за чем-то. 6. for + глагол на “-ing” – используется для выражения цели или функции чего-то.
<p><i>Придаточные условия</i></p> <p>Соединяются с главной частью с помощью союзов</p>	<p>if – если unless – если... не provided that – при условии что</p>

Определительные придаточные предложения (Relative clauses)

<p><i>Определительное придаточное предложение – это предложение, которое является частью сложного предложения и начинается с относительных местоимений (relative pronouns) или относительных наречий (relative adverbs).</i></p>			
Существительные	Подлежащее придаточного предложения (не может быть опущено)	Дополнение придаточного предложения (может быть опущено в англ. варианте предложения, а в русском — нет)	Принадлежность (не может быть опущено)
Люди	<p>Who / that <i>That's the man who / that owns that house.</i> Это именно тот человек, который владеет тем домом.</p>	<p>Who / whom / that <i>He's the man (who / that / whom) I met at the party.</i> Он тот человек, которого я встретил на вечеринке.</p>	<p>Whose <i>This is Mr. Green, whose son has moved to our city.</i> Это мистер Грин, чей сын переехал в наш город.</p>
Неодушевленные предметы и животные	<p>Which / that <i>Give me the book which / that is behind you.</i> Дай мне книгу, которая позади тебя.</p>	<p>Which / that <i>Have a look at the cards (which / that) I bought yesterday.</i> Взгляни на открытки, которые я купил вчера.</p>	<p>Whose / of which <i>That's the house whose interior / the interior of which was decorated.</i> Это тот дом, чей интерьер был украшен.</p>

Время Time	when	<p><i>I will never forget the day when I first saw the Alps.</i> Я никогда не забуду день, когда я увидел Альпы.</p>
Место Place	where	<p><i>The house where he lives is very old.</i> Дом, где он живет, очень старый.</p>
Причина Reason	why	<p><i>That's the reason why he left Moscow.</i> Это и есть причина, почему он уехал из Москвы.</p>

Условные предложения (Conditional sentences)

<p>Условные предложения в английском языке – это предложения, состоящие из условия и следствия (результата), как правило, соединенных союзом if (если).</p>		
<p>Первый тип условных предложений</p>		
<p>Выражают реальные, осуществимые предположения, относящиеся к будущему времени</p>	<p>В условии глагол употребляется в <u>Present Simple</u>, в следствии – в <u>Future Simple</u></p>	<p>If you <u>give</u> me a lift, I <u>will pay</u> you. – Если вы меня <u>подвезете</u>, я вам <u>заплачу</u>.</p>
<p>Второй тип условных предложений</p>		
<p>Выражают маловероятные или невероятные предположения, относящиеся к настоящему или будущему (но не к прошедшему) времени</p>	<p>В условии глагол употребляется в <u>Past Simple</u>, в следствии – <u>would</u> + <u>инфинитив</u> (без частицы to)</p>	<p>If she <u>knew</u> your email, she <u>would send</u> you my message. – Если <u>бы</u> она <u>знала</u> вашу электронную почту, она <u>бы</u> <u>отправила</u> вам мое сообщение. If I <u>were</u> you, I <u>would do</u> it. – На твоём месте я <u>бы</u> <u>сделал</u> это.</p>
<p>Третий тип условных предложений</p>		
<p>Выражают предположения, относящиеся к прошедшему времени, а поэтому являющиеся невыполнимыми – это те действия, которые могли бы произойти, но они не произошли</p>	<p>В условии используется <u>Past Perfect</u>, а в следствии – <u>would have</u> + <u>Past Participle</u></p>	<p>If I <u>had had</u> more money, I <u>would have bought</u> it. – Если <u>бы</u> у меня <u>было</u> больше денег, я <u>бы</u> <u>купил</u> это.</p>
<p>Нулевой тип условных предложений</p>		
<p>В этих предложениях фактически нет предположения (которое может сбыться, а может нет), но есть условие и следствие.</p>	<p>И в условии, и в следствии используется глагол в форме <u>Present Simple</u>.</p>	<p>If you <u>heat</u> water, it <u>boils</u>. – Если <u>нагреть</u> воду, она <u>вскипит</u>.</p>

Согласование времен (Sequence of tenses)

<p>О согласовании времен в английском языке речь идет, когда в главном предложении сложного предложения сказуемое выражено глаголом в прошедшем времени.</p>		
Действие	Главное предложение	Придаточное предложение
<p>Одновременные действия в главном и придаточном предложениях</p>	<p><u>Past Simple</u> I knew...</p> <p>*<u>Past Simple</u> The lecturer said.....</p>	<p><u>Past Simple / Past Continuous</u> what you were thinking of.</p> <p>*<u>Present Simple (общеизвестный факт)</u> that there are six continents in the world.</p>
<p>Действие придаточного предложения предшествует действию главного предложения</p>	<p><u>Past Simple</u> I thought....</p>	<p><u>Past Perfect / Past Perfect Continuous</u> that you had left.</p>
<p>Действие придаточного предложения относится к будущему времени</p>	<p><u>Past Simple</u> He said.....</p>	<p><u>Future-in-the-Past</u> that he would visit us tomorrow.</p>

Косвенная речь (Indirect speech)

<p><i>Прямая речь</i> – высказывание другого лица передается дословно, точной цитатой. В английском языке, как и в русском, прямая речь на письме заключается в кавычки. <i>Косвенная речь</i> – высказывание передается в виде придаточных предложений.</p>		
Изменение предложения в косвенной речи	Прямая речь	Косвенная речь
<p><u>Повелительное наклонение в прямой речи</u> ↓ Инфинитив в косвенной речи</p>	<p>She <i>said to him</i>, “Tell me the truth.”</p> <p>We <i>warned them</i>, “Do not feed the animals.”</p>	<p>She <i>told him to tell</i> her the truth.</p> <p>We <i>warned them not to feed</i> the animals.</p>
<p><u>Повествовательное предложение в прямой речи</u> ↓</p>	<p>She told me, “I will come to see you tomorrow.”</p>	<p>She told me that she would come to see me the next day.</p>

<p>Придаточное предложение с союзом <i>that</i> в косвенной речи</p>	<p>I said, "It is March."</p>	<p>I said that it was March.</p>
<p><u>Вопросительное предложение в прямой речи</u> ↓ Придаточное предложение в косвенной речи:</p> <p>1) <i>общие вопросы</i> присоединяются союзами <i>if (whether)</i> и порядок слов становится прямым</p> <p>2) в <i>специальных вопросах</i> порядок слов становится прямым</p>	<p><i>Общий вопрос</i> I asked, "Have you seen my pen?"</p> <p><i>Специальный вопрос</i> He asked her, "Where do you live?"</p>	<p>I asked him if he had seen my pen. (I asked him whether he had seen my pen.)</p> <p>He asked her where she lived.</p>
<p>При переходе из прямой речи в косвенную речь, <i>все личные, указательные местоимения, наречия времени и места</i> в придаточном предложении изменяются по смыслу предложения:</p>		
<p style="text-align: center;">this → that these → those</p> <p style="text-align: center;">now → then today → that day</p> <p style="text-align: center;">tomorrow → next day the day after tomorrow → 2 days later yesterday → the day before</p> <p style="text-align: center;">the day before yesterday → 2 days before ago → before</p> <p style="text-align: center;">here → there</p>		

Пунктуация в английском языке (Punctuation)

Comma — запятая	
➤ разделяет простые предложения, объединенные с помощью союзов	<i>The lesson was over, but the students remained in the classroom.</i>
➤ используется после вводных слов, фраз, обращений или придаточных предложений, которые предшествуют главному	<i>By the way, the rain has stopped. James, do you remember me? If you are not well, you should stay at home.</i>
➤ отделяет утвердительное слово <i>yes</i> , отрицательное слово <i>no</i> , а также вводные слова <i>well, you know, I mean etc</i>	<i>Yes, you can come in.</i>
➤ отделяет пояснительную вводную фразу	<i>Tom and Kate, my former classmates, got married last week.</i>
➤ ставится при перечислении однородных членов предложения и также перед союзом <i>and</i>	<i>I bought sugar, tea, and coffee.</i>
➤ используется для выделения прямой речи	<i>He said indifferently, "I don't mind."</i>
➤ используется для выделения всех географических названий, дат, (кроме месяца и дня), адресов (кроме номера улицы и названия) и заголовков в названиях.	<i>February 25, 2013, was an important day in my life.</i>
Period or Full Stop — точка	
➤ используется для завершения предложения	<i>The meeting has been cancelled.</i>
➤ используется в большинстве аббревиатур *если последняя буква сокращения является последней буквой слова <i>Mr – Mister</i> , то точка не ставится	<i>Gen. (Secretary) – General Secretary.</i>

Question Mark — вопросительный знак	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ используется в конце предложения, содержащего вопрос, например: * не ставится в косвенных вопросах, * не ставится, если предложение начинается с фраз <i>I wonder / He doesn't know / I don't remember:</i> <i>I wonder how long this film lasts.</i> 	<i>How many people are there in the room?</i>
Exclamation Mark — восклицательный знак	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ используется только для выражения команды или приказа или для выражения эмоции 	<i>Stop talking!</i>
Quote Marks — кавычки	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ используются, когда нужно точно передать слова другого человека (прямая речь) 	<i>He said, "We are not going to help them."</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ могут использоваться для выражения иронии или сарказма, или чтобы отметить что-то необычное 	<i>Your so called "friend"</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ употребляются для выделения цитаты 	
Colon — двоеточие	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ используется после утверждения, чтобы затем ввести одну (или более) непосредственно связанную с ним идею 	<i>The following countries were represented at the meeting: France, Greece, and Italy.</i>
Semicolon — точка с запятой	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ используется для связи независимых предложений, не соединенных союзом 	<i>Some teachers think that students must be given homework; others do not agree with it.</i>

<p>➤ используется, чтобы соединить части предложения или сложные предложения, в которых уже есть запяты</p>	<p><i>My friend lived in a small cottage, rather far from the nearest town; there was no running water or electricity in his cottage.</i></p>
<p>Parentheses — скобки</p>	
<p>➤ используются, если нужно выделить дополнительный, несущественный материал, включенный в предложение как вводная информация</p>	<p><i>He was appointed a Head of the department (some people say, this is because he was a relative of the Director) and worked for four years in this company.</i></p>
<p>Dash or Hyphen — тире или дефис</p>	
<p>➤ тире используется для выделения сути предложения или пояснительного комментария</p>	<p><i>To some of you, my proposals may seem radical – even revolutionary.</i></p>
<p>➤ дефис используется в сложных словах</p>	<p><i>chocolate-covered seventy-nine re-sign</i></p>
<p>➤ дефис используется с префиксами ex- (в значении бывший), self-, all-, non-; между префиксом и словом с большой буквы, с цифрами или буквами</p>	<p><i>ex-wife self-employed mid-July all-inclusive non-commercial T-shirt</i></p>
<p>Apostrophe — апостроф</p>	
<p>➤ используется, если сокращается грамматическая конструкция</p>	<p><i>It's your fault (=it is). Didn't he know this? (=Did not)</i></p>
<p>➤ используется для образования притяжательного падежа существительных</p>	<p><i>the cat's dinner women's clothes dentist's</i></p>

ЧАСТЬ 2 (PART 2)

ПРАКТИКУМ № 3

Практикумы № 1 и № 2 приведены в учебном пособии для 1-го курса.

Reading	Speaking/Writing	Grammar
Recruitment	Я и моя будущая профессия, моя карьера и работа. Письмо о приеме на работу	1. Предлоги места и времени <i>at, in, on</i> . 2. Предлоги движения. 3. Фразовые глаголы. 4. Настоящее совершенное время <i>Present Perfect</i> . 5. Настоящее совершенное длительное время <i>Present Perfect Continuous</i> . 6. Эквиваленты модальных глаголов. 7. Инфинитив и герундий. 8. Причастия <i>Present Participle (I), Past Participle (II)</i> .

Требования к выполнению

1. **Выполнить все задания (1-14) ПРАКТИКУМА №3** в письменном виде чернилами, чётким почерком в данном пособии.
2. **Использовать** во время выполнения ПРАКТИКУМА №3 часть 1 данного пособия, а также словари и другую справочную литературу.
3. **Предоставить** выполненный письменный ПРАКТИКУМ №3 преподавателю во время практических занятий по иностранному языку к устной защите.
4. **Устная защита включает:**
 - 1) чтение и перевод текстов,
 - 2) грамматические темы,
 - 3) устное сообщение на английском языке по теме «Я и моя будущая профессия, моя карьера и работа».

I. GRAMMAR TEST

1. Choose the correct *preposition of place* or *preposition of time* and translate the sentences into Russian.

(See pages 30, 31)**

1. The test will take place in / on Wednesday. →
2. My son was born in / on January. →
3. My friend would like to live in / on the 15th century. →
4. Carol always leaves the office in / at seven o'clock. →
5. In / at two hours you must be at home. →
6. Who is the man in / on the photograph? →
7. Their office is at / on the first floor. →
8. My sister lives at / in Warsaw. →
9. The post office is in / on the left. →
10. Paul is very busy at / on work. →

2. Choose the correct *preposition of movement* and translate the sentences into Russian.

(See pages 32, 33)**

1. There weren't any trees along / past the street. →
2. You'll need to drive along / past the hospital. →
3. The bus station is right through / across the road. →
4. They are riding a horse through / over the tunnel. →
5. The cat likes jumping through / over the ball. →
6. Go along the street and turn over / round the corner. →
7. He goes from / off one country to another. →

8. It is dangerous to climb up / down the cliff. →
9. Say hello when you come out of / into the room. →
10. I am tired. I am going to / into bed. →

3. Choose the correct *particle of phrasal verbs* and translate the sentences into Russian.

(See pages 20 - 23)**

1. Turn on / off the heating. It is too hot. →
2. He told me to write up / down his address. →
3. We can look up / down a few words in the dictionary. →
4. I usually try on / out new clothes. →
5. I think I'll throw old papers back / away. →
6. Your bag is on the floor. Pick it up / out. →
7. Here are your glasses. Put them on / off. →
8. She's asleep. Don't wake her up / out. →
9. Are you looking forward to / for your holiday? →
10. Ann was very nervous as the plane took on / off. →

4. Choose the correct form of the underlined *verbs in the present perfect* and translate the sentences into Russian.

(See pages 11, 16-18)**

1. She have washed / has washed her hair. Now it is clean. →
2. They have gone / gone to Italy. →
3. I have already posted / have already post the letter. →
4. We have just have / have just had lunch. →

5. She has see / has seen this film eight times. →
6. This is the first time he has ridden / have ridden a bike. →
7. Mary hasn't told / haven't told them about the accident. →
8. Ron and Mike hasn't played / haven't played tennis so far this year. →
9. I have never played / haven't never played golf. →
10. He's the most boring person I've ever met / I's ever met. →

5. Choose the correct form of the underlined verbs in the present perfect continuous and translate the sentences into Russian.

(**See pages 12-14)

1. Mike is out of breath. He has been running / has been run. →
2. Bob has a black eye. He has been fighting / has fighting. →
3. They have been looking / have been for a job for five months. →
4. He have been selling / has been selling washing machines since April. →
5. How long has it been snowing / it has been snowing? →
6. How long you have been waiting / have you been waiting here? →
7. How long has he been doing / he has been doing his homework? →
8. She has been learning / been has learning French since she was seven. →
9. The lift hasn't been working / haven't been working since 10 o'clock. →
10. We hasn't been feeling / haven't been feeling very well recently. →

6. Choose the correct form of the underlined modal verbs and translate the sentences into Russian.

(**See pages 19, 20)

1. The fire spread quickly but everyone was able to / was allowed to escape. →
2. We aren't able to / aren't allowed to eat ice cream. →
3. You should / ought eat red meat. →
4. The lecture is to / are to begin at nine. →
5. They had / had to stay at home because it is very cold. →
6. She has to / have to wear glasses for reading. →
7. You should / shouldn't work 12 hours a day. →
8. They don't have to / doesn't have to wear a uniform. →
9. I don't have to / doesn't have to get up early tomorrow. →
10. Could / would you like a cup of tea? →

7. Choose the correct form of the underlined verb with *to* or *-ing* and translate the sentences into Russian.

(See pages 24-26)**

1. What do you want to do / doing this evening? →
2. To do / Doing yoga is good for your health. →
3. He decided not to buy / buying a new car. →
4. She offered to look / looking after our children. →
5. Don't forget to phone the café to book / booking a table. →
6. I enjoy to read / reading in bed. →
7. It isn't easy to find / finding a job. →
8. My grandmother is bad at to remember / remembering. →
9. I am thinking of to visit / visiting my relatives. →

10. Would you mind to open / opening the door? →

8. Choose the correct form of the underlined *participles* and translate the sentences into Russian.

(**See page 27)

1. The woman speaking / spoken to him is our secretary. →

2. People looked at the dancing / danced girl. →

3. This is a bridge building / built two years ago. →

4. Read the translating / translated text once more. →

5. I saw some people in the post office sending / sent the letters. →

6. The window washing / washed by my mother is very clean. →

7. Last week we were at the conference organizing / organized by our friends. →

8. The losing / lost book was found at last. →

9. Be careful when crossing / crossed the street. →

10. Entering / entered the room, she turned on the light. →

9. Choose *do* or *make* and translate the sentences into Russian.

1. Can you do / make me a favour? →

2. I do / make the ironing every week. →

3. He forgot to do / make his homework. →

4. Can you do / make an exception for us? →

5. Please try not to do / make a noise. →

6. I have a lot of work to do / make. →

7. Do / Make sure you don't forget your ticket. →

8. Don't do / make any coffee. We'll have tea. →

II. READING

10. Read the dialogue *Recruitment of engineers*. Write out all the unknown words and look them up in the dictionary. Translate the dialogue into Russian.

Pay your attention to the stressed syllable:

about forget already reruitment

agree discuss exactly description

project candidate benefits evening

issue interview salaries meeting

availability

Recruitment of engineers

Ben: Tom, I wanted to talk to you about the KL project.

Tom: Ah, yes. Where are we with recruitment exactly?

Ben: Well, I've already shortlisted ten candidates.

Tom: That's good. Can you give me their CVs?

Ben: I emailed them to you on Wednesday evening. Have you looked at your emails?

Tom: No, sorry. I've been very short of time this week.

Ben: I need to call the candidates early next week to arrange the interviews.

Tom: I'll read everything this weekend. Don't worry. Leave it with me.

Ben: And what about the interviews at the end of the month?

Can you tell me when you are free?

I'll need you for two days.

Tom: Well, I am not sure at the moment. I've got one all-day meeting, But I haven't heard what date yet.

Ben: Look, Tom, the interviews are very soon.

Can you let me know in two or three days?

Tom: OK, I'll do it. By the way, have you finished the job description yet?

Ben: No, I haven't had time. I want to work on it in the morning.

I also need to speak to Mr B about salaries and benefits.

It seems that you and he don't agree.

Tom: I'm having a meeting with him this afternoon.

Ben: OK, so can you deal with the salaries issue when you see him?

Tom: No problem.

Ben: Thanks, Tom. So that's salaries to discuss this afternoon,

CVs to read this weekend, and your availability for interviews in two or three days. You won't forget all that?

Tom: No, I won't.



Vocabulary

<p>1. Project - проект 2.</p>	
-----------------------------------	--

Translation

Перевод диалога:

11. Read the dialogue *Recruitment of engineers* again and choose the correct answers to the questions.

1. What is the conversation about?
 - A a company's history
 - B recruitment for a company
 - C candidate qualifications
 - D civil engineers

2. Who is the company looking for?
 - A engineers
 - B projects
 - C accountants
 - D interviews

3. Which of the following is true?
 - A The job description has been finished.
 - B The books have been read.
 - C The list of candidates has been made.
 - D The salaries have been discussed.

4. Which of the following is not true?
 - A They need to arrange the interviews.
 - B They need to call the candidates.
 - C They need to speak to Mr B.
 - D They need to write the letters.

5. Which of the following is an interview?
 - A a conversation when questions are asked and answered
 - B a conversation between two friends
 - C a speech at a meeting
 - D a farewell speech

12. Choose the correct variant according to the dialogue.

1. Ben /Tom has already shortlisted ten candidates.

2. Ben /Tom has been very short of time this week.

3. Ben /Tom hasn't looked at his emails.

4. Ben /Tom hasn't finished the job description yet.

5. Ben /Tom hasn't heard the date.

III. SPEAKING

13. You are going to give a talk about yourself and your future profession. Use the information below, complete and translate it into Russian. Talk about your future profession (10-20 sentences).

My future profession

I. Education

1. Let me introduce myself. I am.....(name)
2. I am a second-year student at the(university)
3. I study at the(institute)
4. I am doing a bachelor's degree in.....(branch of engineering)

II. Description

5. My future profession is.....(type of engineer)
6. An engineer is a professional who.....(definition)
7. He is responsible for.....(something/somebody)
8. He needs a good knowledge of.....(subjects)
9. The good qualities for engineers are
10. They can work
11. They can use.....

III. Opinion

12. There are some reasons why this profession is interesting to me:
First,.....

Also,.....
13. It is (not) easy to find the job in this sphere because.....
14. A job in this sphere would suit me because

IV. WRITING

14. Here is an application letter for a temporary job. Write 3 paragraphs in English to complete the letter and translate it into Russian.

- ✓ Paragraph 1 Write about your profession and how long you have been working;
- ✓ Paragraph 2 Write about your professional characteristics (qualifications and skills);
- ✓ Paragraph 3 Write about your personal characteristics:
*I am good at +Ving, I enjoy+Ving,
I'd like to+V, I find it easy to+V, It's important for me to+V*
*listen to people, help people, make quick decisions, take risks, work by myself, work as part of a team, be creative, solve problems, improvise

Dear Sir / Madam,

I am writing to apply for a job of _____.
I need a part-time job.

1)

2)

3)

I look forward to hearing from you,

Yours faithfully
_____ (name)

ПРАКТИКУМ № 4

Reading	Speaking/Writing	Grammar
Engineering	Обобщение информации текста. Нереальные условия идеального мира	1. Безличные предложения. 2. Сочинительные союзы. 3. Придаточные дополнения. 4. Придаточные определения. 5. Придаточные обстоятельства. 6. Условные предложения. 7. Сложное подлежащее. 8. Сложное дополнение.

Требования к выполнению

1. **Выполнить все задания (1-14) ПРАКТИКУМА №4** в письменном виде чернилами, чётким почерком в данном пособии.
2. **Использовать** во время выполнения ПРАКТИКУМА №4 часть 1 данного пособия, а также словари и другую справочную литературу.
3. **Предоставить** выполненный письменный ПРАКТИКУМ №4 преподавателю во время практических занятий по иностранному языку к устной защите.
4. **Устная защита включает:**
 - 1) чтение и перевод текстов,
 - 2) грамматические темы,
 - 3) устное обобщение информации текста на английском языке.

I. GRAMMAR TEST

1. Choose the correct form of the underlined words in the *impersonal sentences* and translate the sentences into Russian.

(See pages 36)**

1. There is / It's quite far from the hospital. →
2. There is / It's 15 degrees below zero. →
3. It's / It always rains in autumn. →
4. Why is it/ it is so frosty outside? →
5. It is/ Is it rather windy here. →
6. It were / it was quiet and mysterious up in the mountains. →
7. It / It is much cheaper to get there by train. →
8. It will / It won't be easy to find an experienced baby-sitter. →
9. How long does it / it's take your niece to cook an omelette? →
10. It's / It takes her 10 minutes to get dressed. →

2. Choose the correct *coordinating conjunction* and translate the sentences into Russian.

(See page 34)**

1. The rope was thin and / but it was strong. →
2. Jim wrote the letters and / but Alice posted them. →
3. Both / And Tom both / and John passed the test. →
4. You must or / either obey my instructions or / either quit. →
5. They brought neither / nor apples neither / nor oranges. →
6. We go there also / not only in winter, only / but also in summer. →
7. She's got a cat as well as / because a dog. →

8. Would you like meat or / so fish? →
9. He says that he saw nothing, how / however, I don't believe. →
10. I was hungry, or / so I made myself a sandwich. →

3. Choose the correct conjunction or connective word in the *object clauses* and translate the sentences into Russian.

(**See page 37)

1. You didn't say whether / what you can swim. →
2. I thought that / what you were asleep. →
3. It depends on that / what you mean. →
4. Tell me whether / what you need water. →
5. We did not know that / what had happened. →
6. He told us what / where it was dangerous. →
7. I do not understand that / what I must do now. →
8. She said that / what the cat ran out of the house. →
9. Ask him whether / that he is going to New Zealand. →
10. I'd like to know what / where he wants. →

4. Choose the correct relative pronoun or adverb in the *relative clauses* and translate the sentences into Russian.

(**See pages 37, 39)

1. The woman who / which lives next door is very friendly. →
2. They know a lot of people who / which live in Prague. →
3. Where are the tomatoes who / which were on the table? →
4. An architect is someone who / which designs buildings. →

5. She works for a company who / which makes typewriters. →
6. A dictionary is a book who / which gives you the definitions. →
7. What was the girl's name whose / whom luggage disappeared? →
8. The man who / which I wanted to see was on holiday. →
9. The girl with whom / that he fell in love left him. →
10. Do you remember the day whom / that we first met? →

5. Choose the correct conjunction or connective word in the *adverbial clauses* and translate the sentences into Russian.

(**See pages 37, 38)

1. I couldn't sleep although / in case I was very tired. →
2. I'll draw the map although / in case you can't find our house. →
3. She apologized because / so that she came late. →
4. Wherever / whenever he is, John always calls me. →
5. I planted two pine trees in the garden so that / because we had some shade. →
6. After / Before you leave, you must visit the museum. →
7. My son was writing after / when I came home. →
8. We'll let you know since / as soon as we make our decision. →
9. As / after they live near us, we see them quite often. →
10. Turn off the light although / as you go out. →

6. Choose the correct form of the underlined *verbs* in the *conditionals* and translate the sentences into Russian.

(**See page 40)

1. If she doesn't hurry, we will / would miss the bus. →
2. If I were you, I will / would apologize to her. →
3. If Tom had enough money, he will / would go to the USA long. →
4. If the weather is fine, they will / would go out. →
5. If you buy a cake, we will / would have a nice tea party. →
6. This soup will / would taste better if it had more salt in it. →
7. What will / would you do if you won a million? →
8. I will / would have said hello if I had seen you. →
9. If she had been angry, she would have / would eaten something. →
10. If you live in Australia, January is/ will in the middle of summer. →

7. Choose the correct form of the underlined verbs using the complex subject and translate the sentences into Russian.

(**See page 28)

1. Many books are known / know to be published every year. →
2. She is believed / believe to know all about it. →
3. The exhibition thought / was thought to open by the end of the week. →
4. He said / was said to be one of the most promising scientist. →
5. She appeared / was appeared to be an excellent actress. →
6. This work is seemed / seems to take much time. →
7. The new methods is turned out / turned out to be very effective. →
8. They are sure / is sure to give us some information. →
9. That man is likely / are likely to win the prize. →

10. She is not likely to change her opinion. →

8. Choose the correct form of the underlined verbs and pronouns using the complex object and translate the sentences into Russian.

(**See page 29)

1. My father wanted me to bring / I to bring him a chair. →

2. I'd like she to come / her to come to my birthday party. →

3. I expect they to send / them to send us the letter. →

4. We know him to be / him be a kind man. →

5. I heard him close / him to close the door. →

6. Our teacher likes us ask / us to ask the questions. →

7. Sara never lets us drive / us to drive her car. →

8. I saw her slip and fall / her slipped and fell. →

9. He saw them to dance / them dancing on the stage. →

10. Don't make me eat / me eating the onion soup. →

9. Choose and translate the sentences into Russian.

1. They are so pretty. They look / look like their mother. →

2. They look / look like sad. →

3. Are you going to wear / carry your new dress tonight? →

4. He offered to wear / carry my bag. →

5. I've left my bag at work / job. →

6. I like working here. It's a good work / job. →

7. Say / Tell us about yourself. →

8. She didn't say / tell my name. →

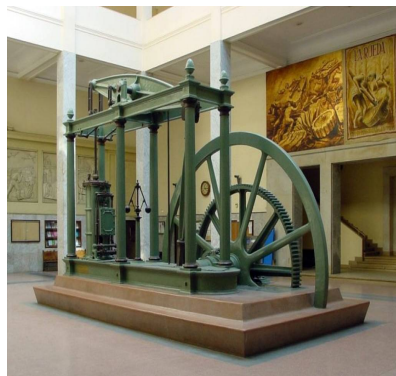
II. READING

10. Read the text. Write out all the unknown words and look them up in the dictionary. Translate the text into Russian.

Pay your attention to the stressed syllable.:

<u>process</u>	<u>object</u>	<u>origin</u>	<u>design</u>	<u>machine</u>	<u>engineering</u>
<u>concept</u>	<u>engine</u>	<u>focus</u>	<u>develop</u>	<u>between</u>	<u>application</u>

Engineering



Engineering is the creative application of “scientific principles to design or develop structures, machines, apparatus, or manufacturing processes, or works utilizing them singly or in combination; or to construct or operate the same with full cognizance of their design; or to forecast their behaviour under specific operating conditions; all as respects an intended function, economics of operation and safety to life and property.”

The *concept* of engineering has existed since ancient times as humans made fundamental inventions such as the pulley, lever, and wheel. Each of these inventions is important for the modern engineering, using basic mechanical principles to develop useful tools and objects.

The *term* engineering is considered to date back to 1325, when an engineer (one who operates an engine) originally referred to “a constructor of military engines.” The word “engine” is of even older Latin origin, *ingenium*, meaning “invention.” Later, as the design of civilian structures such as bridges and buildings developed, the term civil engineering distinguished between the construction of such non-military projects and the older discipline of military engineering.

Engineering is the discipline and profession of applying technical and scientific knowledge and using natural laws and physical resources in order to design and implement materials, structures, machines, devices, systems, and processes. Engineering is a broad discipline which is often divided into several sub-disciplines. Engineering is believed to have four main branches: chemical engineering, civil engineering, electrical engineering, and mechanical engineering. Electrical engineering deals with the generation, transmission and distribution of electricity. Civil engineering focuses on the design, construction and maintenance of the physical and naturally built environment, including bridges, roads, dams and buildings. Mechanical engineers design, test, build and operate machinery of all types. Chemical engineers are employed in the design and development of both processes and plant items. In each case, data and predictions often have to be obtained or confirmed with pilot experiments.

Vocabulary

<p>1. Creative – творческий, созидательный</p> <p>2.</p>	
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Translation

Перевод текста:

11. Read the text *Engineering* again and choose the correct answers to the questions.

1. What is the text about?
 - A inventions
 - B mechanical engineers
 - C the subdisciplines of engineering
 - D the main terms and concepts of engineering

2. Which engineering branches are mentioned in the text?
 - A mechanical and electrical
 - B mechanical and nuclear
 - C software and electrical
 - D civil and genetic

3. Which of the following is true?
 - A An engineer originally referred to “an inventor of the wheel.”
 - B An engineer originally referred to “a constructor of military engines.”
 - C An engineer originally referred to “a builder of military bridges.”
 - D An engineer originally referred to “a designer.”

4. Which of the following is not true?
 - A Engineering is the application of scientific principles.
 - B Engineering is the discipline of applying technical knowledge.
 - C Engineering is the branch of knowledge that analyzes past events.
 - D Engineering is the discipline using natural laws.

5. Which of the following is an engine?
 - A a tool for doing work, particularly for scientific or artistic purposes
 - B a type of transportation
 - C a machine or instrument that uses energy to create mechanical power
 - D an automobile or the part of an elevator, train, etc.

12. Choose the correct variant according to the text.

1. Electrical / mechanical engineering deals with the study and application of electricity.

2. Electrical / mechanical engineering deals with the machinery of all types.

3. Civil / chemical engineering deals with the design and operation of plants.

4. Civil / chemical engineering deals with the design and construction of roads, dams.

III. SPEAKING

13. You are going to give a summary of the text *Engineering*. Use the information below, complete and translate it into Russian. Talk about *Engineering* (10 – 20 sentences).

Summary of the text

1. The title of the text is
2. The author of the text is / it is written by
3. The text is devoted to ... / considers ... / focuses on
(the problem of..., the question of..., the research of..., aspects of...)
4. The aim of the text is.....
(to give the information about, to compare ... with ..., to analyze...,
to explain..., to study ..., to criticize)
5. The key words of the text are
6. The text is divided into / consists of paragraphs (parts).
7. The first part deals with ... / is about
8. The second part deals with ... / is about
9. The third part deals with ... / is about
10. The fourth part deals with ... / is about
11. The text is mainlydescriptive/ narrative/ argumentative.
12. The text is written incolloquial/ formal/ neutral English.
13. The style issimple/ clear/ abstract.
14. The text is of interest (of use) for.....

IV. WRITING

14. Imagine your ideal world. Complete the sentence beginnings below in a way which is true for you and translate them into Russian.

Use would +Verb.

1. If I had more time, I would learn.....
2. If I won a dream holiday, I would.....
3. If I bought a big house, I would
4. If I could choose my ideal job, I would
5. If I found a lot of money in my bank account, I would
6. If I knew a lot of foreign languages, I would
7. If I went to live in another country, I would
8. If I didn't need the phone, I would
9. If I didn't eat fast food, I would
10. If I were the Minister, I would

Дополнительные тексты для чтения (Additional texts for reading)

Forestry

Trees have been raised from seed or cuttings since biblical times, but the earliest record of a planned forest nursery is that of William Blair, cellarer to the Abbey of Coupar Angus in Scotland, who raised trees to grow in the Highland Forest of Ferter as early as 1460. After the dissolution of the monasteries, many newly rich landowners in Scotland and England found a profitable long-term investment in artificial plantations established on poor land.

Formal education in forestry began about 1825 when private forestry schools were established. These were the outgrowth of the old master schools such as Cotta Master School, which developed into the forestry college at Tharandt—one of the leading forestry schools in Germany. The National School of Forestry was established in Nancy, France, in 1825.

During the 19th century the reputation of German foresters stood so high that they were employed in most continental European countries. Early American foresters, including the great conservation pioneer Gifford Pinchot, gained their training at European centres. But the doctrine of responsible control had to fight a hard battle against timber merchants who sought quick profits.

The 20th century has seen the steady growth of national forest laws and policies designed to protect woodlands as enduring assets. Beginning in the 1940s vast land reclamation was undertaken by Greece, Israel, Italy, Spain, and the Maghrib countries of North Africa to restore forests to the slopes laid bare by past abuse. The main objective of the tree planting is to save what remains of the soil and to protect the watersheds. In China, where forests once extended over 30 percent of the land, centuries of overcutting, overgrazing, and fires reduced this proportion to approximately 7 percent. China has taken major steps to improve land use, including construction of reservoirs and a huge forest planting program, which reported the planting of 15.8 million hectares (38.9 million acres) between 1950 and 1957 alone.

The character of forest policies around the world reflects national political philosophies. In the United States both the federal and the state governments have deemed it prudent to hold substantial areas of natural forest, while allowing commercial companies and private individuals to own other areas outright. Similar patterns of ownership are found throughout most of Asia, western Europe, and the Commonwealth countries. In Japan the extensive forests are largely state owned. Tribal ownership is found in many African countries and proves a serious obstacle to effective modern management.

URL: <https://www.britannica.com/science/forestry/Purposes-and-techniques-of-forest-management>

Aspects of landscape architecture

Garden and landscape design is a substantial part but by no means all of the work of the profession of landscape architecture. Defined as “the art of arranging land and the objects upon it for human use and enjoyment,” landscape architecture also includes site planning, land planning, master planning, urban design, and environmental planning.

Site planning involves plans for specific developments in which precise arrangements of buildings, roadways, utilities, landscape elements, topography, water features, and vegetation are shown. Land planning is for larger-scale developments involving subdivision into several or many parcels, including analyses of land and landscape, feasibility studies for economic, social, political, technical, and ecological constraints, and detailed site plans as needed.

Master planning is for land use, conservation, and development at still larger scales, involving comprehensive areas or units of landscape topography or comprehensive systems such as open space, park-recreation, water and drainage, transportation, or utilities. Urban design is the planning and designing of the open-space components of urbanized areas; it involves working with architects on the building patterns, engineers on the traffic and utility patterns, graphic and industrial designers on street furniture, signs, and lighting, planners on overall land use and circulation, economists on economic feasibility, and sociologists on social feasibility, needs, and desires.

Environmental planning is for natural or urbanized regions or substantial areas within them, in which the impact of development upon land and natural systems, their capacity to carry and sustain development, or their needs for preservation and conservation are analyzed exhaustively and developed as constraints upon urban design and master, land, and site planning. Within this framework of comprehensive survey, study, analysis, planning, and design of the continuous environment, garden and landscape design represents the final, detailed, precise, intensive refinement and implementation of all previous plans.

Ideally, all of these planning and design phases follow one another closely in a continuous sequential process, but this rarely happens. Various levels of planning and design are performed by different people at different times; often the more-comprehensive phases are not performed at all or are performed in an oversimplified manner. The wise gardener or landscape architect, therefore, always begins with a careful analysis of conditions surrounding the project.

[URL:https://www.britannica.com/art/garden-and-landscape-design](https://www.britannica.com/art/garden-and-landscape-design)

Oak

Oak, (genus *Quercus*), is any of about 450 species of ornamental and timber trees and shrubs constituting the genus *Quercus* in the beech family, distributed throughout the north temperate zone and at high altitudes in the tropics. Many plants commonly called “oak” are not *Quercus* species—e.g., African oak, Australian oak, poison oak, river oak, silky oak.

Quercus species are characterized by alternate, simple, deciduous or evergreen leaves with lobed, toothed, or entire margins. The male flowers are borne in pendent yellow catkins, appearing with or after the leaves. Female flowers occur on the same tree, singly or in two- to many-flowered spikes; each flower has a husk of overlapping scales that enlarges to hold the fruit, or acorn, which matures in one to two seasons.

Oaks can be separated into three groups, sometimes considered subgenera: white oaks and red or black oaks have the scales of the acorn cups spirally arranged; in the third group the scales are fused into concentric rings. White oaks have smooth, non-bristle-tipped leaves, occasionally with glandular margins. Their acorns mature in one season, have sweet-tasting seeds, and germinate within a few days after their fall. Red or black oaks have bristle-tipped leaves, hairy-lined acorn shells, and bitter fruits, which mature at the end of the second growing season.

In North America several oaks are of ornamental landscape value, including pin oak and northern red oak. Many oaks native to the Mediterranean area have economic value: galls produced on the twigs of the Aleppo oak are a source of Aleppo tannin, used in ink manufacture; commercial cork is obtained from the bark of the cork oak, and the tannin-rich kermes oak is the host of the kermes insect, once harvested for a dye contained in its body fluids.

Two eastern Asian oaks also are economically valuable: the Mongolian oak (*Q. mongolica*) provides useful timber, and the Oriental oak (*Q. variabilis*) is the source of a black dye as well as a popular ornamental. Other cultivated ornamentals are the Armenian, or pontic, oak, chestnut-leaved oak, golden oak, Holm, or holly, oak, Italian oak, Lebanon oak, Macedonian oak, and Portuguese oak. Popular Asian ornamentals include the blue Japanese oak (*Q. glauca*), daimyo oak (*Q. dentata*), Japanese evergreen oak (*Q. acuta*), and sawtooth oak (*Q. acutissima*). The English oak, a timber tree native to Eurasia and northern Africa, is cultivated in other areas of the world as an ornamental.

[URL:https://www.britannica.com/plant/oak](https://www.britannica.com/plant/oak)

History of environmental policy making

Public policies aimed at environmental protection date back to ancient times. The earliest sewers were constructed in Mohenjo-daro (Indus, or Harappan, civilization) and in Rome, which date back some 4,500 years and 2,700 years ago, respectively. The city-states of ancient Greece created laws that governed forest harvesting some 2,300 years ago, and feudal European societies established hunting preserves, which limited game and timber harvesting to royalty, effectively preventing overexploitation, by 1000 CE. The city of Paris developed Europe's first large-scale sewer system during the 17th century.

When the effects of industrialization and urbanization increased during the late 19th and early 20th centuries and threatened human health, governments developed additional rules and regulations for urban hygiene, sewage, sanitation, and housing, as well as the first laws devoted to protecting natural landscapes and wildlife (such as the creation of Yellowstone National Park as the world's first national park in 1872). Wealthy individuals and private foundations, such as the Sierra Club (founded 1892) and the National Audubon Society (founded 1905), also contributed to efforts to conserve natural resources and wildlife.

People became aware of the harmful effects of emissions and use of chemicals in industry and pesticides in agriculture during the 1950s and '60s. The emergence of Minamata disease in 1956 in Japan, which resulted from mercury discharges from nearby chemical companies, and the publication of *Silent Spring* (1962) by American biologist Rachel Carson, which highlighted the dangers of pollution, led to a greater public awareness of environmental issues and to detailed systems of regulations in many industrialized countries.

In those regulations, governments forbade the use of hazardous substances or prescribed maximum emission levels of specific substances to ensure a minimum environmental quality.

Nevertheless, some environmental problems persisted, often because of the many nonpoint (diffuse) sources, such as exhaust from private automobiles and pesticide and fertilizer runoff from small farms, that contributed to air and water pollution. Individually, those small sources may not be harmful, but the accumulation of their pollution can exceed the regulative minimum norms for environmental quality. Pollution problems of all types underscored the message that Earth's natural resources were being depleted and degraded.

[URL:https://www.britannica.com/topic/environmental-policy](https://www.britannica.com/topic/environmental-policy)

Mapping

Many societies and other types of organizations are now engaged in activities associated with maps and mapping. In general, they encourage cooperation through meetings and articles in their journals; some are more directly concerned with the dissemination of information on the progress of particular kinds of mapping and charting. Standardizations of map treatments and conventional signs as well as the promotion of progress in technical processes are further objectives of such groups.

The United Nations Office of Cartography plays an important role in all of the activities noted above. It maintains records of progress on the International Map of the World and performs related services formerly handled by the Central Bureau of the IMW. Technical assistance in the development of mapping facilities and programs is provided on request. Occasional regional meetings are arranged for groups of countries having similar problems, while the journal *World Cartography* publishes related papers.

The Inter-American Geodetic Survey is a special unit of the U.S. Corps of Engineers organized to forward the completion of geodetic surveys and mapping in the Americas. Through technical training and assistance with programs, geodetic surveys in Central and South America have been greatly advanced in recent years. Training in photogrammetry is offered and has promoted the establishment of mapping facilities and programs in many of the collaborating countries.

The Pan American Institute of Geography and History has sponsored regular meetings and consultations on cartography, much in the manner of scientific societies. The consultations are held in different countries each year.

The International Hydrographic Bureau was founded in 1921 in Monaco, where it has been headquartered through the years. It serves as a clearinghouse for information related to hydrography and charting and maintains a General Bathymetric Chart of the World, which is revised periodically to include data furnished by the maritime nations participating in their programs and conferences. Other organizations that promote progress in the various aspects of mapping and charting are the International Association of Geodesy, the International Cartographic Association, the International Civil Aviation Organization, the International Geographical Union, the International Federation of Surveyors, the International Society for Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing, and the International Union of Geodesy and Geophysics.

[URL:https://www.britannica.com/science/map/Types-of-maps-and-charts-available](https://www.britannica.com/science/map/Types-of-maps-and-charts-available)

Water resources

Water resources are any of the entire range of natural waters that occur on the Earth, regardless of their state (vapour, liquid, or solid) and that are of potential use to humans. Of these, the resources most available for use are the waters of the oceans, rivers, and lakes; other available water resources include groundwater and deep subsurface waters.

Human use of natural waters, particularly of freshwater resources, has increased steadily over the centuries. It is unlikely that this trend will change given the continued growth of population and the ever-widening utilization of water for agricultural, industrial, and recreational purposes. This situation has given rise to growing concern over the availability of adequate water supplies to accommodate the future needs of society. Surface-water resources are already being used to their maximum capacity in various regions of the world, as, for example, in the southwestern United States.

Quantity of water is not the only concern. Overuse has resulted in the progressive deterioration of water quality. Seepage of mineral fertilizers, pesticides, and herbicides into surface and subsurface waters has not only rendered them unfit for human consumption but also disrupted aquatic ecosystems. Lakes and rivers also have been contaminated by the improper disposal of sewage, the discharge of untreated industrial wastes (including such toxicants as polychlorinated biphenyls, or PCBs), and the release of heated wastewater from nuclear-power plants and other industrial facilities, which results in thermal pollution and its attendant problems.

Efforts are being made to curb the contamination of water resources. For example, regulatory action by the U.S. government to reduce phosphorous input into the Great Lakes has had measurable results, as has the implementation of improved waste-purification technology by certain municipalities in the region. The latter not only helps to restore water resources but also conserves the water supply by effective recycling.

Advanced sewage-treatment facilities have made it possible to obtain potable water purer than most stream water. Projects to remove salt and other dissolved solids from brackish surface water as well as from seawater have been undertaken in such countries as Australia, Kuwait, and the United States. Water from desalination plants is generally suitable for household use and for irrigation. Other procedures employed for relieving water shortages include control of runoff and the reduction of evaporation by means of agricultural-engineering measures.

URL:<https://www.britannica.com/science/water-resource>

Plastics

Many of the chemical names of the polymers employed as plastics have become familiar to consumers, although some are better known by their abbreviations or trade names. Thus, polyethylene terephthalate and polyvinyl chloride are commonly referred to as PET and PVC, while foamed polystyrene and polymethyl methacrylate are known by their trademarked names, Styrofoam and Plexiglas (or Perspex).

Industrial fabricators of plastic products tend to think of plastics as either “commodity” resins or “specialty” resins. (The term *resin* dates from the early years of the plastics industry; it originally referred to naturally occurring amorphous solids such as shellac and rosin.) Commodity resins are plastics that are produced at high volume and low cost for the most common disposable items and durable goods. They are represented chiefly by polyethylene, polypropylene, polyvinyl chloride, and polystyrene.

Specialty resins are plastics whose properties are tailored to specific applications and that are produced at low volume and higher cost. Among this group are the so-called engineering plastics, or engineering resins, which are plastics that can compete with die-cast metals in plumbing, hardware, and automotive applications. Important engineering plastics, less familiar to consumers than the commodity plastics listed above, are polyacetal, polyamide (particularly those known by the trade name nylon), polytetrafluoroethylene (trademark Teflon), polycarbonate, polyphenylene sulfide, epoxy, and polyetheretherketone. Another member of the specialty resins is thermoplastic elastomers, polymers that have the elastic properties of rubber yet can be molded repeatedly upon heating. Thermoplastic elastomers are described in the article elastomer.

Plastics also can be divided into two distinct categories on the basis of their chemical composition. One category is plastics that are made up of polymers having only aliphatic (linear) carbon atoms in their backbone chains. All the commodity plastics listed above fall into this category. The structure of polypropylene can serve as an example.

The other category of plastics is made up of heterochain polymers. These compounds contain atoms such as oxygen, nitrogen, or sulfur in their backbone chains, in addition to carbon. Most of the engineering plastics listed above are composed of heterochain polymers. An example would be polycarbonate, whose molecules contain two aromatic (benzene) rings.

[URL:https://www.britannica.com/science/plastic](https://www.britannica.com/science/plastic)

Concrete

Concrete, in construction, is a structural material consisting of a hard, chemically inert particulate substance, known as aggregate (usually sand and gravel), that is bonded together by cement and water.

Among the ancient Assyrians and Babylonians, the bonding substance most often used was clay. The Egyptians developed a substance more closely resembling modern concrete by using lime and gypsum as binders. Lime, derived from limestone, chalk, or (where available) oyster shells, continued to be the primary pozzolanic, or cement-forming, agent until the early 1800s. In 1824 an English inventor, Joseph Aspdin, burned and ground together a mixture of limestone and clay. This mixture, called portland cement, has remained the dominant cementing agent used in concrete production.

Aggregates are generally designated as either fine (ranging in size from 0.025 to 6.5 mm or coarse (from 6.5 to 38 mm or larger). All aggregate materials must be clean and free from admixture with soft particles or vegetable matter, because even small quantities of organic soil compounds result in chemical reactions that seriously affect the strength of the concrete.

Concrete is characterized by the type of aggregate or cement used, by the specific qualities it manifests, or by the methods used to produce it. In ordinary structural concrete, the character of the concrete is largely determined by a water-to-cement ratio. The mixture must have just enough water to ensure that each aggregate particle is completely surrounded by the cement paste, that the spaces between the aggregate are filled, and that the concrete is liquid enough to be poured and spread effectively. Another durability factor is the amount of cement in relation to the aggregate (expressed as a three-part ratio—cement to fine aggregate to coarse aggregate).

The strength of concrete is measured in pounds per square inch or kilograms per square centimetre of force needed to crush a sample of a given age or hardness. Concrete's strength is affected by environmental factors, especially temperature and moisture. If it is allowed to dry prematurely, it can experience unequal tensile stresses that in an imperfectly hardened state cannot be resisted. Low temperatures also adversely affect its strength. To compensate for this, an additive such as calcium chloride is mixed in with the cement. This accelerates the setting process, which in turn generates heat sufficient to counteract moderately low temperatures.

[URL:https://www.britannica.com/technology/concrete-building-material](https://www.britannica.com/technology/concrete-building-material)

Recycling

The basic phases in recycling are the collection of waste materials, their processing or manufacture into new products, and the purchase of those products, which may then themselves be recycled. Typical materials that are recycled include iron and steel scrap, aluminum cans, glass bottles, paper, wood, and plastics.

Recycling can help reduce the quantities of solid waste deposited in landfills, which have become increasingly expensive. Recycling also reduces the pollution of air, water, and land resulting from waste disposal.

There are two broad types of recycling operations: internal and external. Internal recycling is the reuse in a manufacturing process of materials that are a waste product of that process. Internal recycling is common in the metals industry, for example. The manufacture of copper tubing results in a certain amount of waste in the form of tube ends and trimmings; this material is remelted and recast.

External recycling is the reclaiming of materials from a product that has been worn out or rendered obsolete. An example of external recycling is the collection of old newspapers and magazines for repulping and their manufacture into new paper products. Aluminum cans and glass bottles are other examples of everyday objects that are externally recycled on a wide scale. These materials can be collected by any of three main methods: buy-back centres, which purchase waste materials that have been sorted and brought in by consumers; drop-off centres, where consumers can deposit waste materials but are not paid for them; and curbside collection, in which homes and businesses sort their waste materials and deposit them by the curb for collection by a central agency.

One of the most readily available materials for recycling is paper, which alone accounts for more than one-third by weight of all the material deposited in landfills. The stream of wastepaper consists principally of newspaper; office, copying, and writing paper; computer paper; coloured paper; paper tissues and towels; boxboard (used for cereal and other small boxes); corrugated cardboard; and kraft paper (used for paper bags). These papers must usually be sorted before recycling. Newsprint and cardboard can be repulped to make the same materials, while other types of scrap paper are recycled for use in low-quality papers such as boxboard, tissues, and towels. Paper intended for printing-grade products must be de-inked (often using caustic soda) after pulping; for some uses the stock is bleached before pressing into sheets. Smaller amounts of recycled paper are made into cellulose insulation and other building products.

URL: <https://www.britannica.com/science/recycling>

Trucks

Truck, also called lorry, is any motor vehicle designed to carry freight or goods or to perform special services. The truck was derived from horse-driven wagon technology, and some of the pioneer manufacturers came from the wagon business. Because of a well-developed system of roads and highways in North America and Europe, trucks have come to carry most intercity freight, with the exception of bulk materials such as ores, which are typically still carried by ship and rail, and time-critical deliveries, which are usually carried between cities by air.

In 1896 Gottlieb Daimler of Germany built the first motor truck. It was equipped with a four-horsepower engine and a belt drive with two speeds forward and one in reverse. In 1898 the Winton Company of the United States produced a gasoline-powered delivery wagon with a single-cylinder six-horsepower engine. In World War I motor trucks were widely used, and in World War II they largely replaced horse-drawn equipment.

In the last quarter of the 20th century, new truck sales grew tremendously in the United States. This happened because of the introduction of utility and sport utility vehicles, which are classified as light trucks but operated as family vehicles. Light trucks accounted for more than 90 percent of all truck sales and roughly half of total vehicle sales in the United States annually by the start of the 21st century. This phenomenon was unique to the American market; worldwide, trucks are purchased mainly for commercial operation.

Trucks can be classified as either straight or articulated. A straight truck is one in which all axles are attached to a single frame. An articulated vehicle is one that consists of two or more separate frames connected by suitable couplings.

A truck tractor is a motor vehicle designed primarily for drawing truck trailers and constructed to carry part of the weight and load of a semitrailer, which is a truck trailer equipped with one or more axles and constructed so that the end and a substantial part of its own weight and that of its load rests upon a truck tractor. In contrast, a full trailer is constructed so that all of its own weight and that of its load rests upon its own wheels. A device called a fifth wheel is used to connect a truck tractor to a semitrailer and to permit articulation between the units.

[URL:https://www.britannica.com/technology/truck-vehicle](https://www.britannica.com/technology/truck-vehicle)

Steam engine

Steam engine is a machine using steam power to perform mechanical work through the agency of heat.

In a steam engine, hot steam, usually supplied by a boiler, expands under pressure, and part of the heat energy is converted into work. The remainder of the heat may be allowed to escape, or, for maximum engine efficiency, the steam may be condensed in a separate apparatus, a condenser, at comparatively low temperature and pressure.

For high efficiency, the steam must fall through a wide temperature range as a consequence of its expansion within the engine. The most efficient performance—that is, the greatest output of work in relation to the heat supplied—is secured by using a low condenser temperature and a high boiler pressure. The steam may be further heated by passing it through a superheater on its way from the boiler to the engine. A common superheater is a group of parallel pipes with their surfaces exposed to the hot gases in the boiler furnace. By means of superheaters, the steam may be heated beyond the temperature at which it is produced by boiling water.

In a reciprocating engine, the piston and cylinder type of steam engine, steam under pressure is admitted into the cylinder by a valve mechanism. As the steam expands, it pushes the piston, which is usually connected to a crank on a flywheel to produce rotary motion.

In the double-acting engine, steam from the boiler is admitted alternately to each side of the piston. In a simple steam engine, expansion of the steam takes place in only one cylinder, whereas in the compound engine there are two or more cylinders of increasing size for greater expansion of the steam and higher efficiency; the first and smallest piston is operated by the initial high-pressure steam and the second by the lower-pressure steam exhausted from the first.

In the steam turbine, steam is discharged at high velocity through nozzles and then flows through a series of stationary and moving blades, causing a rotor to move at high speeds. Steam turbines are more compact and usually permit higher temperatures and greater expansion ratios than reciprocating steam engines. The turbine is the universal means used to generate large quantities of electric power with steam (*electric power*, energy generated through the conversion of other forms of energy, such as mechanical, thermal, or chemical energy).

[URL:https://www.britannica.com/technology/steam-engine](https://www.britannica.com/technology/steam-engine)

Valve

Valve, in mechanical engineering, is a device for controlling the flow of fluids (liquids, gases, slurries) in a pipe or other enclosure. Control is by means of a movable element that opens, shuts, or partially obstructs an opening in a passageway. Valves are of seven main types: globe, gate, needle, plug (cock), butterfly, poppet, and spool.

In the globe valve the movable element may be a tapered plug or a disk that fits a seat on the valve body; the disk may carry a replaceable rubber or leather washer, as in a household water faucet. In a gate valve, the movable element is a wedge-shaped disk that seats against two tapered faces in the valve body. A needle valve has a long tapered needle fitting in a tapered seat.

A plug valve, or cock, is a conical plug with a hole perpendicular to its axis fitting in a conical seat in the valve body at right angles to the pipe. By turning the plug the hole is either lined up with the pipe to permit flow or set at right angles to block the passage. A butterfly valve is a circular disk pivoted along one diameter. In the fully open position the disk is parallel to the direction of flow. On hydraulic turbines such valves may be 20 feet or more in diameter.

Safety valves, which are usually of the poppet type, open at a predetermined pressure. The movable element may be kept on its seat by a weighted lever or a spring strong enough to hold the valve closed until the pressure is reached at which safe operation requires opening. On gasoline engines, poppet valves are used to control the admission and rejection of the intake and exhaust gases to the cylinders. The valve, which consists of a disk with a tapered edge attached to a shank, is held against the tapered seat by a compressed spring. The valve is raised from its seat by the action of a rotating cam that pushes on the bottom of the shank, permitting gas flow between region A, which leads to the intake or exhaust pipes, and region B, which leads to the cylinder.

In hydrostatic fluid-power systems, in which the working medium is usually pressurized oil, spool valves are employed to regulate the oil flow. The valve provides two flow paths for the output from a pump. In the extreme upper position, active flow is from the pump port P to the working, or load, port B; discarded fluid from the load passes from port A to the tank or sump port T. In the extreme lower position, the functions of ports A and B are reversed. In the mid or neutral position of the spool, ports A and B are blocked. The movement of the spool may be manually or electrically controlled.

[URL:https://www.britannica.com/technology/valve-mechanics](https://www.britannica.com/technology/valve-mechanics)

Saw

Most saws take the form of a thin metal strip with teeth on one edge or a thin metal disk with teeth on the periphery. Usually the teeth are “set” (bent) to alternate sides so that the kerf (groove) cut by the saw is wider than the thickness of the saw. This prevents binding between the cut surfaces and the sides of the saw. The thin-strip saws are used in a variety of arrangements for both hand and machine operation, while circular, or disk, saws are invariably machine powered.

The hand hacksaw has a U-shaped frame and blades 20 to 30 cm (8 to 12 inches) long, 1.25 cm (0.5 inch) wide, and 0.06 cm (0.025 inch) thick that close the U and are placed under tension by a screw adjustment in the handle. This saw is one of the most common tools in a machine shop and is used for cutting off solid parts held in a vise.

The power jigsaw, or scroll saw, does mechanically the same irregular cutting as the hand coping saw. The straight, narrow blade is mounted vertically between a pulsating lower shaft and a reciprocating upper shaft, which together move the blade rapidly up and down. Power hacksaws, driven by electric motors, are indispensable in any general-purpose machine shop or tool room; they are most often used for cutting metal. The blade is much wider and thicker and the frame much heavier than those of a hand hacksaw.

The vertical bandsaw blade is an endless narrow metal strip, with teeth along one edge that runs around two large motorized pulleys or wheels that are mounted on a frame so that one is directly above the other. The blade passes through the table on which the work is laid. Blades are available with various sizes of teeth, and on most machines the blade speed can be varied to suit the material being cut.

Among the saws that are neither loops nor disks are three of the most common hand saws used by the carpenter: the rip saw, the crosscut saw, and the backsaw. The main difference between the saws is in the way the teeth are ground. The rip saw teeth have cutting edges that are at 90° to the blade and act like a row of chisels; the crosscut has knifelike teeth that are set to alternate sides and cut two parallel lines on each side of the kerf, so that the wood in between is broken up. The backsaw is a crosscut saw with a rectangular blade and heavy steel backing along the side opposite the teeth; this keeps the blade perfectly straight. It is usually guided by an attachment that keeps it level at all times and maintains it in the proper direction when making angular cuts.

URL: <https://www.britannica.com/technology/saw>

Veneer

Veneer is a thin sheet of rich-coloured wood (mahogany, ebony, rosewood) or precious materials (ivory or tortoiseshell) cut in decorative patterns and applied to the surface area of a piece of furniture.

There are two main types of veneering. In the simplest variation a single sheet, chosen for its interesting grain (yew or purple wood, for example), is applied to a whole surface of inferior wood in one unit. In the more complex variation called crossbanding, small pieces of veneer wood are fitted together within a surrounding framework in such a way that the grain changes pattern, thus altering the tone according to the light. This process can produce complex fan shapes, sunbursts, and floral patterns. When the veneers are made up of small pieces cut from the same larger piece of wood and affixed so that their grain runs in opposite directions in accordance with a formal geometric pattern, the process is known as parquetry.

Veneering allows the use of beautiful woods that because of limited availability, small size, or difficulty in working cannot be used in solid form for making furniture. In addition, it significantly increases the strength of the wood by backing it with a sturdier wood and, through the process of laminating veneers at right angles in successive layers, offsets the cross-grain weakness of the wood.

Modern veneering, which uses special glues, drying, and testing equipment, produces a strong and beautiful product. Basically, the process involved in making all veneers is the same. First, the decorative wood is sawn, sliced, shaved, or peeled, sometimes by a rotary machine, into pieces between $\frac{1}{16}$ and $\frac{1}{32}$ inch in thickness. Then the veneer is glued to a prepared, coarser wood and secured by the application of mahogany, zinc, or cardboard presses; for curved and intricately shaped surfaces, molded sandbags are used.

Although the craft of veneering was practiced in classical antiquity, its use lapsed during the Middle Ages. It was revived in the 17th century, reaching its apogee in France and spreading from there to other European countries. Because of their preference for ebony, the French masters of the craft of veneering were known as *ébénistes*, although they later combined veneering with technical variations such as marquetry. By the end of the 17th century, woods such as almondwood, boxwood, cherry wood, and pearwood were commonly used.

[URL:https://www.britannica.com/topic/veneer](https://www.britannica.com/topic/veneer)

Biofuel

Biofuel is considered to be a source of renewable energy, unlike fossil fuels such as petroleum, coal, and natural gas. Biofuel is commonly advocated as a cost-effective and environmentally benign alternative to petroleum and other fossil fuels, particularly within the context of rising petroleum prices and increased concern over the contributions made by fossil fuels to global warming.

Some long-exploited biofuels, such as wood, can be used directly as a raw material that is burned to produce heat. The heat, in turn, can be used to run generators in a power plant to produce electricity.

Liquid biofuels are of particular interest because of the vast infrastructure already in place to use them, especially for transportation. The liquid biofuel in greatest production is ethanol (ethyl alcohol), which is made by fermenting starch or sugar. Brazil and the United States are among the leading producers of ethanol. In the United States ethanol biofuel is made primarily from corn (maize) grain, and it is typically blended with gasoline to produce “gasohol,” a fuel that is 10 percent ethanol. In Brazil, ethanol biofuel is made primarily from sugarcane, and it is commonly used as a 100-percent-ethanol fuel or in gasoline blends containing 85 percent ethanol.

Unlike the “first-generation” ethanol biofuel produced from food crops, “second-generation” cellulosic ethanol is derived from low-value biomass that possesses a high cellulose content, including wood chips, crop residues, and municipal waste. Cellulosic ethanol is commonly made from sugarcane bagasse, a waste product from sugar processing, or from various grasses that can be cultivated on low-quality land. Given that the conversion rate is lower than with first-generation biofuels, cellulosic ethanol is dominantly used as a gasoline additive.

The second most common liquid biofuel is biodiesel, which is made primarily from oily plants (such as the soybean or oil palm) and to a lesser extent from other oily sources (such as waste cooking fat from restaurant deep-frying). Biodiesel, which has found greatest acceptance in Europe, is used in diesel engines and usually blended with petroleum diesel fuel in various percentages. The use of algae and cyanobacteria as a source of “third-generation” biodiesel holds promise but has been difficult to develop economically. Some algal species contain up to 40 percent lipids by weight, which can be converted into biodiesel or synthetic petroleum. Some estimates state that algae and cyanobacteria could yield between 10 and 100 times more fuel per unit area than second-generation biofuels.

URL: <https://www.britannica.com/technology/biofuel>

Oxygen

Oxygen was discovered about 1772 by a Swedish chemist, Carl Wilhelm Scheele, who obtained it by heating potassium nitrate, mercuric oxide, and many other substances. An English chemist, Joseph Priestley, independently discovered oxygen in 1774 by the thermal decomposition of mercuric oxide and published his findings the same year, three years before Scheele published. In 1775–80, French chemist Antoine-Laurent Lavoisier, with remarkable insight, interpreted the role of oxygen in respiration as well as combustion, discarding the phlogiston theory, which had been accepted up to that time; he noted its tendency to form acids by combining with many different substances and accordingly named the element *oxygen* from the Greek words for “acid former.”

At 46 percent of the mass, oxygen is the most plentiful element in Earth’s crust. The proportion of oxygen by volume in the atmosphere is 21 percent and by weight in seawater is 89 percent. In rocks, it is combined with metals and nonmetals in the form of oxides that are acidic (such as those of sulfur, carbon, aluminum, and phosphorus) or basic (such as those of calcium, magnesium, and iron) and as saltlike compounds that may be regarded as formed from the acidic and basic oxides, as sulfates, carbonates, silicates, aluminates, and phosphates. These solid compounds are not useful as sources of oxygen, because separation of the element from its tight combinations with the metal atoms is too expensive.

Below $-183\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($-297\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$), oxygen is a pale blue liquid; it becomes solid at about $-218\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($-361\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$). Pure oxygen is 1.1 times heavier than air.

During respiration, animals and some bacteria take oxygen from the atmosphere and return to it carbon dioxide, whereas by photosynthesis, green plants assimilate carbon dioxide in the presence of sunlight and evolve free oxygen. Almost all the free oxygen in the atmosphere is due to photosynthesis. About 3 parts of oxygen by volume dissolve in 100 parts of fresh water at $20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($68\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$), slightly less in seawater. Dissolved oxygen is essential for the respiration of fish and other marine life.

Natural oxygen is a mixture of three stable isotopes: oxygen-16 (99.759 percent), oxygen-17 (0.037 percent), and oxygen-18 (0.204 percent). Several artificially prepared radioactive isotopes are known. The longest-lived, oxygen-15 (124-second half-life), has been used to study respiration in mammals.

[URL:https://www.britannica.com/science/oxygen](https://www.britannica.com/science/oxygen)

Security in business economics

The most common types of securities are stocks and bonds, of which there are many particular kinds designed to meet specialized needs. Corporations create two kinds of securities: bonds, representing debt, and stocks, representing ownership or equity interest in their operations. (In Great Britain, the term stock ordinarily refers to a loan, whereas the equity segment is called a share.)

The bond, as a debt instrument, represents the promise of a corporation to pay a fixed sum at a specified maturity date, and interest at regular intervals until then. Bonds may be registered in the names of designated parties, as payees, though more often, in order to facilitate handling, they are made payable to the “bearer.” The bondholder usually receives his interest by redeeming attached coupons.

Those who provide the risk capital for a corporate venture are given stock, representing their ownership interest in the enterprise. The holder of stock has certain rights that are defined by the charter and bylaws of the corporation as well as by the laws of the country or state in which it is chartered. Typically these include the right to share in dividends and other distributions, to vote for directors and fundamental corporate changes, and to inspect the books of the corporation, and, less frequently, the “pre-emptive right” to subscribe to any new issue of stock. The stockholder’s interest is divided into units of participation, called shares.

A stock certificate ordinarily is given as documentary evidence of share ownership. Originally this was its primary function; but as interest in securities grew and the capital market evolved, the role of the certificate gradually changed until it became, as it is now, an important instrument for the transfer of title.

In some European countries the stock certificate is commonly held in bearer form and is negotiable without endorsement. To avoid loss, the certificates are likely to be entrusted to commercial banks or a clearing agency that is able to handle much of the transfer function through offsetting transactions and bookkeeping entries. In the United States, certificates usually are registered in the name of the owner or in a “street name”—the name of the owner’s broker or bank; the bank may for legal reasons use the name of another person, known as a “nominee.”

[URL:https://www.britannica.com/topic/security-business-economics](https://www.britannica.com/topic/security-business-economics)

Hardware and Software

Computer operation requires both hardware and software. Hardware design specifies a computer's capability; software instructs the computer on what to do. The advent of microprocessors in the late 1970s led to much smaller hardware assemblies and accelerated the proliferation of computers. Today's personal computers are as powerful as the early mainframes, while mainframes are now smaller and have vastly more computing power than the early models.

Hardware is the physical technology that works with information. It includes the peripheral devices that work with computers, such as keyboards, external disk drives, and routers.

Software comprises the entire set of programs, procedures, and routines associated with the operation of a computer system. The term was coined to differentiate these instructions from hardware—*i.e.*, the physical components of a computer system. A set of instructions that directs a computer's hardware to perform a task is called a program, or software program.

The two main types of software are system software and application software. System software controls a computer's internal functioning, chiefly through an operating system (*q.v.*), and also controls such peripherals as monitors, printers, and storage devices. Application software, by contrast, directs the computer to execute commands given by the user and may be said to include any program that processes data for a user. Application software thus includes word processors, spreadsheets, database management, inventory and payroll programs, and many other "applications." A third software category is that of network software, which coordinates communication between the computers linked in a network.

Software is typically stored on an external long-term memory device, such as a hard drive or magnetic diskette. When the program is in use, the computer reads it from the storage device and temporarily places the instructions in random access memory (RAM). The process of storing and then performing the instructions is called "running," or "executing," a program. By contrast, software programs and procedures that are permanently stored in a computer's memory using a read-only (ROM) technology are called firmware, or "hard software."

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СПИСОК РЕКОМЕНДУЕМОЙ ЛИТЕРАТУРЫ

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Тел.: 8 (343) 362-91-16