

МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ

Федеральное государственное автономное образовательное учреждение высшего образования

«Дальневосточный федеральный университет» (ДВФУ)

ВОСТОЧНЫЙ ИНСТИТУТ-ШКОЛА РЕГИОНАЛЬНЫХ И МЕЖДУНАРОДНЫХ ИССЛЕДОВАНИЙ

«СОГЛАСОІ Руководител		«УТВЕРЖДАЮ» Заведующий (ая) кафедрой	
		(название каф	едры)
(подпись) « »	(Ф.И.О. рук. ОП)	(подпись) « »	(Ф.И.О. зав. каф.) 20

РАБОЧАЯ ПРОГРАММА УЧЕБНОЙ ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ

Иностранный язык

23.03.03 Эксплуатация транспортно-технологических машин и комплексов

«Автомобили и автомобильное хозяйство»

Форма подготовки (заочная)

курс 1-2 семестр 1-4 лекции не предусмотрены практические занятия 38 час. лабораторные работы не предусмотрены в том числе с использованием МАО 32 час. всего часов аудиторной нагрузки 38 час. в том числе с использованием МАО 32 час. самостоятельная работа 394 час. в том числе на подготовку к экзамену 6 час. контрольные работы - 2 курсовая работа / курсовой проект не предусмотрена зачет 2 семестр экзамен 4 семестр

3K3aMCH 4 CEMECIP	
Рабочая программа составлена в соответствии с требованиями федерального государственного образовательного стандарта высшего образования, утвержденного приказом Министерства образования и науки РФ от 14.12.2015. № 1470	
Рабочая программа обсуждена на заседании кафедры профессионально-ориентированного перево протокол № от «» 2015 г.	да,
Зав. кафедрой профессионально-ориентированных иностранных языков: Е.П.Бочарова	

Составители: ШегайЛ.А, Андрющенко Т.Н

Оборотная сторона титульного листа РПУД

1. 1 аоочая программа пересмотрена	а на заседании кафедры.
Протокол от «»	20 г. №
Заведующий кафедрой	
(подпись) (И.О. Фамилия)	
II. Рабочая программа пересмотрен	а на заседании кафедры:
II. Рабочая программа пересмотрен Протокол от «»	• •
	20 г. №

Аннотация дисциплины

«Иностранный язык»

«Иностранный Дисциплина язык≫ разработана ДЛЯ студентов, обучающихся ПО направлению 23.03.03 «Эксплуатация подготовки транспортно-технологических машин комплексов» И автомобильное профилю «Автомобили И хозяйство» ПО И является обязательной дисциплиной базовой части Блока 1 учебного плана (Б1.Б.4).

Трудоемкость дисциплины составляет 12 зачетных единиц (432 часов). Обучение осуществляется на 1 и 2 курсах в 1-4 семестрах. Формы промежуточной аттестации – зачет на 2 семестре, экзамен – после 4 семестра.

Дисциплина «Иностранный язык» логически связана с дисциплиной «Русский язык и культура речи».

Цель изучения дисциплины заключается в формировании у студентов навыков по межкультурному и межличностному общению на английском языке, которые включают в себя лексико-грамматические аспекты, основы межкультурной коммуникации, фоновые знания, стратегии общения на английском языке в устной и письменной формах.

Задачи дисциплины «Иностранный язык» направлены на:

- системное развитие у обучающихся всех видов речевой деятельности на английском языке, которые обеспечивают языковую грамотность;
- формирование средствами иностранного языка межкультурной компетенции как важного условия межличностного, межнационального и международного общения;
- содействие развитию личностных качеств у обучающихся, способствующие выбору релевантных форм и средств коммуникации, которые позволяют выбрать конструктивный формат межкультурного и межличностного взаимодействия;
- получение фоновых знаний, расширяющих кругозор и обеспечивающих успешному общению в интернациональной среде.

Для успешного изучения дисциплины «Иностранный язык» у обучающихся должны быть сформированы следующие предварительные компетенции:

уровень владения английским языком на уровне не ниже A1 международного стандарта;

- владение нормами родного языка;
- навыками самостоятельного обучения.

В результате изучения данной дисциплины у обучающихся формируются элементы следующих общекультурных и общепрофессиональных компетенций:

Код и			
формулировка	Этапы формирования компетенции		
компетенций			
		- грамматический строй английского языка	
	Знает	- особенности межкультурной	
		коммуникации	
		- воспринимать иноязычную речь на слух в	
ОК-5 -		рамках обыденной коммуникации	
способностью к		- выражать свои мысли грамотно,	
коммуникации в		употребляя соответствующие	
устной и	Умеет	грамматические и лексические формы, как	
письменной		устно, так и письменно	
формах на русском		- употреблять изученные стратегии и	
и иностранном		технологии, необходимые в различных	
языках для		областях иноязычной коммуникации	
решения задач		- навыками употребления соответствующих	
межличностного и		языковых средств в осуществлении речевой	
межкультурного		деятельности	
взаимодействия	Владеет	- навыками поиска информации языкового,	
	Блидост	культурного, страноведческого характера из	
		достоверных источников	
		- навыком просмотрового, поискового и	
		аналитического чтения	

І. СТРУКТУРА И СОДЕРЖАНИЕ ПРАКТИЧЕСКОЙ ЧАСТИ КУРСА

Практические занятия (38 часа)

Teмa 1. Education (6 часа)

Грамматика: Местоимения, Существительное

Говорение, аудирование: Education in Great Britain - понимание содержания аудиоматериала и обсуждение вопросов.

Письмо: сравнить образование в Великобритании и России и написать краткое сообщение на данную тему.

Чтение: Text 1. Education in Russia - чтение и обсуждение текста, понимание основной идеи текста.

Словарный запас – введение, отработка и закрепление лексики на данную тематику.

Teмa 2. Our country (6 часа)

Грамматика: Глагол to be, глагол to have, there is/are

Говорение, аудирование: The political system of Russian Federation - понимание содержания аудиоматериала и обсуждение вопросов.

Письмо: написать письмо другу из Великобритании о стране в которой вы живете, затронув вопросы месторасположения, флоры и фауны,

национальности, проживающие на данной территории, праздники и традиции страны.

Чтение: Text 1. Russian Federation - чтение и обсуждение текста, понимание основной идеи текста.

Словарный запас – введение, отработка и закрепление лексики на данную тематику.

Tema 3. Engineering (4 часа)

Грамматика: Артикли, степени сравнения прилагательных и наречий Говорение, аудирование: Fields of engineering - понимание содержания аудиоматериала и обсуждение вопросов.

Письмо: написать краткое содержание каждой области инженерии.

Чтение: Text 1. Engineering - чтение и обсуждение текста, понимание основной идеи текста.

Словарный запас – введение, отработка и закрепление лексики на данную тематику.

Промежуточный грамматический тест

Устное сообщение The profession of an engineer

Тема 4. Famous people of science and engineering (6 часов)

Грамматика:Типы вопросов

Говорение, аудирование: James Watt – понимание содержания аудиоматериала и обсуждение вопросов.

Письмо: Написать эссе об известном изобретателе и его изобретении и подготовить презентацию с устным сообщением.

Чтение: чтение и перевод текстов об изобретателях их изобретениях Словарный запас — введение, отработка изакрепление лексики на данную тематику.

Тема 5. Materials science and technology (4 часа)

Грамматика: Числительные, Времена группы Indefinite, Progressive, Perfect, Страдательный залог

Говорение, аудирование: Properties of materials - понимание содержания аудиоматериала и обсуждение вопросов.

Письмо: написать краткое сообщение об основных свойствах материалов.

Чтение: Text 1. How materials react to external forces - чтение и обсуждение текста, понимание основной идеи текста.

Словарный запас – введение, отработка и закрепление лексики на данную тематику.

Промежуточный грамматический тест

Устное сообщение Basic engineering process

Teма 6. Automation and robotics (6 часов)

Грамматика: Модальные глаголы, Сложное дополнение, Типы придаточных предложений

Говорение, аудирование: Robots in industry - понимание содержания аудиоматериала и обсуждение вопросов.

Письмо: написать эссе на тему "Роль роботов и автоматики в жизни человека". Чтение: Text 1. Automation - чтение и обсуждение текста, понимание основной идеи текста.

Словарный запас – введение, отработка и закрепление лексики на данную тематику.

Устное сообщение: Modern automation and robotics

Teмa 7. Computers (6 часов)

Грамматика: Герундий, Причастие I, Причастие II, Инфинитив

Говорение, аудирование: What is the computer? - понимание содержания аудиоматериала и обсуждение вопросов.

Письмо: написать эссе о современных компьютерных технологиях.

Чтение: Text 2. Software - чтение и обсуждение текста, понимание основной идеи текста.

Словарный запас – введение, отработка и закрепление лексики на данную тематику.

Промежуточный грамматический тест

Устное сообщение: Modern computer technologies

II. УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКОЕ ОБЕСПЕЧЕНИЕ САМОСТОЯТЕЛЬНОЙ РАБОТЫ ОБУЧАЮЩИХСЯ

Учебно-методическое обеспечение самостоятельной работы обучающихся по дисциплине «Иностранный язык» представлено в Приложении 1 и включает в себя: план-график выполнения самостоятельной работы по дисциплине, в том числе примерные нормы времени на выполнение по каждому заданию; характеристика заданий для самостоятельной работы обучающихся и методические рекомендации по их выполнению; требования к представлению и оформлению результатов самостоятельной работы;

Ш. КОНТРОЛЬ ДОСТИЖЕНИЯ ЦЕЛЕЙ КУРСА

$N_{\overline{0}}$	Контролиру	Коды и этап	ы формирования	Оценочные средства		
п/п	емые разделы / темы дисциплин ы	компетенций		текущий контроль	промеж уточная аттеста ция	
1	Темы: 1-7	ОК -5 Способен к коммуникац ии в устной и письменной формах на русском и иностранно м языках для решения задач межличност ного и межкультур ного	знает определенное количество лексических единиц в рамках изученных тем, включающих сферы и ситуации общения повседневнобытового и социальнокультурного характера; умеет употреблять	ПР1, ПР3, ПР4, ПР7	Промеж уточны й граммат ический тест, чтение и перевод текста со словаре	

	взаимодейс	изученную	M
	ТВИЯ	лексику в	
		заданном	
		контексте;	
		владеет опытом	
		распознавания	
		различных	
		типов простых	
		и сложных	
		предложений в	
		соответствии с	
		правилами	
		английского	
		языка	
1			

IV. СПИСОК УЧЕБНОЙ ЛИТЕРАТУРЫ И ИНФОРМАЦИОННО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКОЕ ОБЕСПЕЧЕНИЕ ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ

Основная литература

- 1. И.П.Агабекян, П.И.Коваленко. Английский для инженеров. Москва, Изд-во «Высшее образование», 2012., 318 с.
- https://lib.dvfu.ru:8443/lib/item?aid=dqkOmw7yVjmaEr/Ta3vQMuXDeuXU0igiA1w//fGj5Hw%3D%3Bz/FH7ZmOYc%2BK7XXZlv3rng%3D%3D%3B7XmpxAB%2BrFj7nkPWREJWJqIQMqc9VN8ZpDXsS0GGI2iz4xGjXsVYatd1mSViXvsRz2B02qKZsPMlWF%2Bihor2BlvHPsn3O25E8APci5NIDiM%3D&id=chamo:815374
- 2. Комаров A.C. A Practical Grammar of English for Students. М.: Флинта, 2012.
- 248 c. http://znanium.com/catalog.php?bookinfo=455224
- 3. Murphy R. Essential Grammar in Use. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2003. 300 p. https://lib.dvfu.ru:8443/lib/item?id=chamo:3134&theme=FEFU

- 4. Бузаров В.В. Грамматика разговорного английского языка (с упражнениями) = Essentials of Conversational English Grammar (with Exercises) М.: Академия, 2003. 413 с. https://lib.dvfu.ru:8443/lib/item?id=chamo:3636&theme=FEFU
- 5. Дроздова Т.Ю. English Grammar. Reference & Practice with a separate key volume СПб.: Антология, 2007. 464 с.

https://lib.dvfu.ru:8443/lib/item?id=chamo:259168&theme=FEFU

Дополнительная литература

- 1. Богданова, Т.Г., Ганчинко И.В. Английский язык в таблицах: учебное пособие / Т.Г Богданова, И.В. Ганченко. Краснодар: изд-во Южного института менеджмента, 2011. 78c. http://www.iprbookshop.ru/9752.html
- 2. Малышева, Н.В. Scientific English / Н.В. Малышева. Комсомольск –на Амуре: изд-во Амурского гуманитарно-педагогического государственного университета, 2010. 138 с. http://www.iprbookshop.ru/22315.html
- 3. Турук, И.Ф. Практикум по обучению грамматическим основам чтения специального текста. Английский язык: учебное пособие / И.Ф. Турук. М.:изд-во Евразийского открытого института, Московского государственного университета экономики, статистики и информатики, 2006. 49 с. http://www.iprbookshop.ru/11221.html
- 4. Murphy, R. English Grammar in Use: third edition / a self-study reference and practice book for intermediate students of English / R. Murphy. Cambridge: Cambridge University press, 2010. 393 c. http://lib.dvfu.ru:8080/lib/item?id=chamo:341520&theme=FEFU

Перечень ресурсов информационно-телекоммуникационной сети «Интернет»

- 1. Сайт для изучающих английский язык с Cambridge University Press http://www.cambridgeenglish.org/
- 2. Материалы для изучения делового английского языка: учебники, образцы писем, разговорные фразы, примеры резюме, словари: http://www.delo-angl.ru
- 3. Сайт для изучающих английский язык, студентов, преподавателей вузов и переводчиков: http://study-english.info
- 4. Электронный журнал о вопросах межкультурной коммуникации. http://www.international.gc.ca/cil-cai/magazine/index.aspx?lang=eng
- 5. Grammar.htm английская грамматика на HomeEnglish.ru: http://www.homeenglish.ru
- 6. Английская грамматика на MyStudy.ru: http://www.mystudy.ru

Перечень информационных технологий и программного обеспечения

Операционная система Windows – пакет Microsoft Office (Word, Excel, PowerPoint). Acrobat Reader компании Adobe.

I. МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЕ УКАЗАНИЯ ПО ОСВОЕНИЮ ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ

Учебная деятельность студента в процессе изучения дисциплины «Иностранный язык» строится из контактных форм работы с преподавателем (аудиторные занятия, индивидуальные консультации, консультации перед экзаменом, зачет, экзамен) и самостоятельной работы.

Для успешного освоения дисциплины является обязательным посещение всех занятий, выполнение домашнего задания и иных форм самостоятельной работы, которые назначаются преподавателем. Для оказания помощи студентам при подготовке к занятиям и другим видам учебной и научной деятельности, в случае возникновения проблем или вопросов при усвоении

материала организуется индивидуальная консультация с преподавателем (назначается в фиксированное время раз в неделю).

В ходе занятия и при подготовке к нему рекомендуется вести специальную тетрадь, где фиксируется полученная информация, рекомендуемые схемы, таблицы, диаграммы, выполняемые упражнения; а также отдельную тетрадь-глоссарий для записи лексических единиц. Подобная организация работы способствует лучшему усвоению и закреплению изученного материала.

Самостоятельная работа является средством организации и управления самостоятельной деятельности студентов, которая обеспечивается умением осуществлять планирование деятельности, искать решение проблемы или вопроса, рационально организовывать свое рабочее время и использовать необходимые для этого инструменты. Самостоятельная работа студента служит получению новых знаний, упорядочению и углублению имеющихся знаний, формированию профессиональных навыков и умений. Для проведения самостоятельной работы определены следующие рекомендации:

систематическое выполнение заданий для самостоятельной работы обеспечивает эффективное освоения данной дисциплины и выявление проблемных точек;

задания для самостоятельной работы могут содержать две части: обязательную и дополнительную (факультативную), выполнение вторых дополнительно учитывается при итоговом контроле;

· целесообразно проконсультироваться с преподавателем с целью получения методических указаний по выполнению задания, сроков и вида контроля.

Рекомендации по эффективной работе над отдельными аспектами в рамках дисциплины «Иностранный язык»

Работа над техникой чтения

Под техникой чтения понимается «совокупность навыков и механизмов звукового и интонационного оформления графических символов языка». Техника чтения образует значимый критерий оценки степени владения языком,

поэтому разумно работать над ней постоянно и доводить до совершенства. Для этого рекомендуется систематическое чтение англоязычных текстов вслух, прослушивание и просмотр аутентичных англоязычных аудио- и видеоматериалов, участие в устных формах работы на занятии и общение с носителями языка (например, посредством Интернет-ресурсов).

Работа с текстом

При работе с текстом следует учитывать, что существуют различные виды чтения, которые определяются в зависимости от цели чтения и поставленных задач. Определение вида чтения позволит наиболее эффективно организовать время и работу с текстом.

Ознакомительное чтение. Задачей ознакомительного чтения является понимание основной линии содержания читаемого текста и создание комплексных образов прочитанного.

Изучающее чтение. Изучающее чтение направлено на точное и полное понимание прочитанного и его критическое осмысление. Оно предполагает умение пользоваться разными словарями (толковыми, страноведческими, словарями синонимов, двуязычными). Этот вид чтения обычно используется при работе с газетными, журнальными статьями и статьями по специальности. Работая над таким текстом, следует вдумчиво и внимательно прочитать его, отмечая незнакомые вам слова, найти их значения в словаре, выбрать значение слова, подходящее по контексту и выучить его. Закончив чтение текста, нужно проверить свое понимание по вопросам и другим заданиям, которые находятся после текста. По мере чтения текстов рекомендуется выполнять упражнения на закрепление лексических единиц, обращая особое внимание на упражнения по словообразованию. Целесообразно составить свои примеры с новыми словами.

Просмотровое чтение. Просмотровое чтение - беглое, выборочное чтение текста по блокам для более подробного ознакомления с его деталями и частями. Оно направленно на принятие решения о его дальнейшем использовании, то есть выяснение области, к которой относится данный текст, освещаемой в нем тематике, установление круга основных вопросов. Насколько полно понят текст при просмотровом чтении определяется тем,

может ли читающий ответить на вопрос, интересен ли ему текст, какие части текста могут оказаться наиболее информативными.

Поисковое чтение. Поисковое чтение предполагает овладение умением находить в тексте те элементы информации, которые являются значимыми для выполнения той или иной задачи, и ориентировано, прежде всего, на чтение прессы и специальной литературы.

Аналитическое чтение - более сложный вид чтения, ориентированный на глубокое раскрытие содержания текста и его структуры. Внимание должно быть направлено на детальное восприятие текста с анализом языковой формы, который позволяет осознать структурные компоненты речи, устанавливать их структурно-семантические и функциональные соответствия.

Следует не забывать, что чтение художественной, специальной литературы и источников СМИ на изучаемом языке способствует развитию устной речи, обогащает словарный запас, знакомит с культурой и литературой страны изучаемого языка, расширяет кругозор и повышает профессиональную компетентность.

Работа с лексическим материалом

Для эффективного усвоения лексического материала и расширения словарного запаса предлагаются следующие формы работы:

·многократное чтение вслух текста, содержащего лексику, которую нужно усвоить, а также чтение ранее проработанных материалов с целью повторения слов;

·составление несложных предложений на английском языке с использованием новых слов (устно и письменно);

·постановка вопросов на английском языке по содержанию прочитанного текста с использованием в них тренируемых слов, ответы на эти вопросы (устно и письменно);

·составление на русском языке несложных предложений, включающих закрепляемые слова, устный или письменный перевод этих предложений на

английский язык в утвердительной, отрицательной или вопросительной форме (при условии, если это возможно по содержанию);

·составление несложного связного текста-ситуации на определенную тему с максимальным использованием слов, изученных в рамках данной темы;

· общение с носителями языка (например, посредством Интернет-ресурсов) или другими студентами на английском языке;

при составлении списка слов и словосочетаний по какой-либо теме (тексту), при оформлении индивидуальной личной тетради-глоссария — выписывание из словаря лексических единиц в их начальной форме, то есть: оформлять имена существительные — в единственном числе (целесообразно также указать форму множественного числа); глаголы в инфинитиве (целесообразно указать и другие основные формы глагола);

работа над лексикой с помощью двустороннего перевода (с английского языка — на русский, с русского языка — на английский) с использованием разных способов оформления лексики (списка слов, тетради-глоссария);

·использование словообразовательных и семантических связей заучиваемых слов (однокоренных слов, синонимов, антонимов);

·анализ и фиксирование словообразовательных моделей (префиксы, суффиксы, сокращение, словосложение и др.) и заимствований в английском языке;

·ежедневное чтение и просмотр источников СМИ на английском языке.

Работа с грамматическими формами и конструкциями

Для эффективного усвоения грамматической формы или конструкции рекомендуется внимательное чтение записей, таблиц или правил в учебнике (часто и заучивание конкретных грамматических форм), изучение и анализ примеров и выполнение упражнений на конкретную грамматическую модель, т. е. упражнений, которые иллюстрирует данное правило. Первые упражнения по работе над определенной грамматической моделью содержат, в основном, примеры на употребление данной конструкции. Их можно использовать в качестве образцов при выполнении остальных упражнений. Каждая грамматическая форма или конструкция является неотъемлемой частью

коммуникативного высказывания. Поэтому необходимо обращать внимание на употребление грамматической формы или конструкции в определенном контексте, находить примеры их использования в аутентичных источниках и максимально часто применять изучаемую модель при построении собственного устного или письменного высказывания. Обязательной частью работы и над лексикой, и над грамматикой является работа над ошибками, которую надо выполнять сразу после проверки задания.

Работа над устным высказыванием

Успешная устная речь предполагает логичное и последовательное изложение определенной позиции, в том числе личной; умение делать доклады, сообщения, вести беседу и дискуссию, включая деловую с использованием формул речевого этикета (для выражения собственного мнения, согласия/несогласия с собеседником, вступления в разговор и т. д.), понимать на слух собеседника не только на уровне общего смысла и деталей, но и подтекста.

При построении устного высказывания необходимо:

- систематически продумывать и проговаривать свои выступления;
- · при подготовке ответа в группе/ парной работе сформулировать ответ на мысленный вопрос ваших слушателей/собеседников;
- · помнить то, о чем выступающий говорит должно быть ему интересно, только в этом случае можно заинтересовать своих слушателей, а интерес слушателей является залогом успеха выступления; поэтому при подготовке выступления нужно тщательно отбирать материал, выстраивать его в определенной последовательности, продумывать примеры, наглядный материал и приемы общения с аудиторией;

записать свое выступление и прослушать себя.

- Для оценки предлагается использовать вопросы такие вопросы, как:
- соответствует ли то, что я говорю коммуникативной задаче (теме выступления/беседы; тому, что я стараюсь доказать и др.)?
- логично и последовательно ли изложена точка зрения?

- иллюстрируют ли мои примеры или аргументы то, что я хочу доказать? есть ли в моей речи грамматические или лексические ошибки?
- как воспринимается моя речь на слух (интонация, темп, паузы и др.)?
- использую ли я прием перефразирования (изложения той же мысли другими словами)?
- использую ли я фразы, помогающие следить за моей мыслью?

·учитывать, что лучшее импровизированное выступление — это домашняя заготовка, поэтому, если предстоит парная работа, дискуссия, ролевая игра, «круглый стол», рекомендуется продумать, что и как сказать собеседнику, какие вопросы ему задать;

· помнить: устное выступление — это не чтение написанного материала вслух!

Работа над письменным высказыванием

Успешное письменное высказывание должно логично и последовательно развивать мысль автора. При построении высказывания в письменной форме рекомендуется:

·четко определять содержание (какой тезис соответствует теме, какие положения доказывают этот тезис, раскрывая тему, какие выводы надо сделать из всего написанного);

·соблюдать структуру, принятую для данного типа письменного высказывания (эссе, письмо, резюме и др.);

правильно выбирать грамматические структуры и лексические единицы, в том числе связующие слова, которые обеспечивают логичный и плавный переход от одной части к другой, а также внутри частей; использовать разные варианты построения предложения, прием перефразирования;

·избегать плагиата.

Важно планировать работу так, чтобы была возможность проверить свое письменное высказывание через определенное время после написания, что позволит увидеть недочеты и ошибки, незамеченные во время работы.

Следует помнить, что письменное высказывание — это раскрытие и аргументирование своей позиций либо структура, наполненная личным содержанием, а не «украденные мысли».

Работа со словарем

Для того чтобы правильно пользоваться словарем (печатным или электронным) и быстро находить нужное слово и его формы, предлагается учесть следующие моменты:

·Производить поиск слова необходимо в исходной форме. Если глагол/существительное включает приставку, то возможно наличие в словаре его варианта без приставки. Сложные слова при их отсутствии следует искать в словаре по составным элементам слова.

·Грамматические характеристики слова, его произношение, транскрипция и сферы употребления указываются в словаре условными обозначениями.

•Если искомая лексическая единица или подходящее значение/эквивалент отсутствует в двуязычном словаре, следует обратиться к толковому словарю. Если искомое понятие не приведено в толковом словаре, необходимо определить контекстное употребление данной лексической единицы (найти несколько текстов/ситуаций употребления и попытаться установить русский эквивалент).

Значение фразеологической комбинации всегда нужно отыскивать по главному (в смысловом отношении) слову. Если же неясно, какое именно слово в данной комбинации является главным, то нужно перепробовать все составные части фразеологического сочетания.

Письменный перевод текста

При выполнении письменного перевода текста рекомендуется:

- 1.Ознакомиться с оригиналом текста и понять его общее содержание, пользуясь по мере надобности рабочими источниками информации: словарями, справочниками, специальной литературой, Интернет-источниками и т. д.
- 2.Учитывать, что не все в оригинале передается в переводе, но все должно учитываться переводчиком. Однако для того, чтобы решить, какую-то деталь

содержания можно или нужно не передавать в переводе, необходимо видеть эту деталь и понимать ее роль в общем смысле текста.

- 3. Приступая непосредственно к переводу, выделить законченную по смыслу часть текста (предложение, абзац, период) и усвоить ее содержание.
- 4. Найти при работе со словарями и другими источниками нужный, соответствующий содержанию текста эквивалент слова.
- 5.При возникновении трудностей перевода лексической единицы определить контекстное употребление данной лексической единицы (найти несколько текстов/ситуаций употребления и попытаться установить русский эквивалент).
- 6.Использовать при переводе для понимания стилистических нюансов значений слов, их эмоциональной составляющей английские толковые словари.
- 7.Не допускать фраз, не имеющих смысла или явно противоречащих смыслу всего текста. Смысловая цельность значимое свойство текста.
- 8. Закончив перевод текста, отложить его в сторону, спустя некоторое время перечитать, обращая особое внимание на то, насколько естественно звучит переведенный текст на русском языке.
 - 9.Переводить заголовок после перевода всего текста.
- 10.Использовать в качестве рабочих инструментов при переводе словари (электронные (например, ABBYY Lingvo) или печатные, двуязычные и толковые), специальную литературу, Интернет-источники. Электронные онлайн-переводчики (как, Google и др.) часто выдают ошибочные варианты перевода, вводят переводчика в заблуждение и препятствуют успешному овладению иностранным языком.

Работа над мультимедийной презентацией

Основными принципами при составлении мультимедийной презентации являются лаконичность, ясность, уместность, сдержанность, наглядность, запоминаемость.

При разработке мультимедийной презентации следует учесть следующие рекомендации:

·Необходимо начинать презентацию с заголовочного слайда и завершить итоговым. В заголовке приводится название и автор. В итоговом слайде следует поблагодарить слушателей.

·Каждый слайд должен иметь заголовок и быть логически связан с предыдущим и последующим.

· Слайды должны содержать минимум текста (не более 10 строк, не более 40 слов); текст на слайдах должен быть простым, содержать ключевую информацию и соответствовать тексту выступления, иллюстрировать его.

•Во всей презентации следует использовать одинаковое оформление: для фона и цвета применять контрастные цвета (не более трех цветов на слайде: 1 — фон, 2 — заголовок, 3 — текст); рекомендуемый шрифт для заголовка не менее 24 пт., для основного текста — не менее 20 пт.

·Рекомендуется использовать графический, аудио- или видеоматериал, сопровождающий текст.

·Компьютерная презентация может сопровождаться анимацией, что позволит повысить эффект от представления доклада (однако злоупотребление ей может привести к потере зрительного и смыслового контакта со слушателями). Динамическая анимация эффективна тогда, когда в процессе выступления происходит логическая трансформация существующей структуры в новую структуру.

·В автоматическом режиме следует проконтролировать временной интервал доклада.

·Время выступления должно быть соотнесено с количеством слайдов из расчета, что компьютерная презентация, включающая 10-15 слайдов, требует для выступления около 7-10 минут.

Подготовленные для представления доклады отвечают следующим требованиям:

·цель доклада должна быть сформулирована в начале выступления;

•выступающий должен хорошо знать материал по теме своего выступления, быстро и свободно ориентироваться в нем;

·недопустимо читать текст со слайдов или повторять наизусть то, что показано на слайде;

• речь докладчика должна быть четкой, умеренного темпа; важно четко следовать содержанию презентации.

·желательно подготовить к каждому слайду заметки по докладу;

·докладчик должен иметь зрительный контакт с аудиторией;

·после выступления докладчик должен оперативно и по существу отвечать на все вопросы аудитории.

При оценивании презентации учитываются следующие параметры:

Языковое оформление: правильность языковых параметров в письменной презентации и устном докладе (макс. 6 баллов).

Содержание: полнота информации и ее соответствие коммуникативной задаче, отсутствие ненужных подробных деталей, аргументирование собственной точки зрения (макс. 8 баллов).

Оформление: презентации: соответствие картинок и текста, структура презентации (заголовки, начальный слайд, итоговый слайд, структурирование информации на слайде), зрительное восприятие (соответствие шрифта, качество картинок, целесообразность анимации, использование аудио-и видеоматериалов), указание источников информации; доклада: четкость и структурирование высказывания, контакт с аудиторией (макс. 6 баллов).

Оценивание презентации можно производиться преподавателем либо всей группой.

II. МАТЕРИАЛЬНО-ТЕХНИЧЕСКОЕ ОБЕСПЕЧЕНИЕ ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ

1. Мультимедийные аудитории для лабораторных занятий:

Проектор Mitsubishi EW330U,

Экран проекционный Screen Line Trim White Ice,

подсистема видеоисточников документ-камера CP355AF Avervision;

подсистемы: видеокоммутации, аудиокоммутации и звукоусиления;

подсистема интерактивного управления.

690922, Приморский край,

- г. Владивосток, о. Русский, п. Аякс, 10, Корпус 20 (С, Е)
- 2. Основная и дополнительная литература.
- 3. Материалы, представленные на кафедре профессионально-ориентированного перевода, кафедре профессионально-ориентированных иностранных языков, кафедре английского языка для экономических направлений.
- 4. Видеоматериалы.
- 5. Фонды ВИ-ШРМИ.
- 6. Интернет-материалы.



МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ Федеральное государственное автономное образовательное учреждение

высшего профессионального образования

«Дальневосточный федеральный университет»

(ДВФУ)

ВОСТОЧНЫЙ ИНСТИТУТ-ШКОЛА РЕГИОНАЛЬНЫХ И МЕЖДУНАРОДНЫХ ИССЛЕДОВАНИЙ

УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКОЕ ОБЕСПЕЧЕНИЕ САМОСТОЯТЕЛЬНОЙ РАБОТЫ ОБУЧАЮЩИХСЯ

по дисциплине «Иностранный язык»

23.03.03 Эксплуатация транспортно-технологических машин и комплексов «Автомобили и автомобильное хозяйство»

Форма подготовки (заочная)

Владивосток

2016

План-график выполнения самостоятельной работы по дисциплине

№	Дата/сроки	Вид	Примерные	Форма контроля
п/п	выполнения	самостоятельной	нормы	
11/11		работы	времени на	
			выполнение	
1	1-3 неделя	1. подготовка к	100 часов	устный опрос
	1семестра	аудиторным		
	1	занятиям		тест
		2. выполнение		
		теста		устный опрос
		3. подготовка		
		устного		
		сообщения The		
		profession of an		
		engineer		
2	1-3 неделя	1. подготовка к	102 часа	устный опрос
	2 семестра	аудиторным		
	2 cemecipa	занятиям		тест
		2. выполнение		
		теста		устный опрос
		3. подготовка		
		устного		
		сообщения Basic		
		engineering		
		process		
5	1-3 неделя	1. подготовка к	35 часов	устный опрос
	3 семестра	аудиторным		
	3 centeerpa	занятиям		тест

		2. выполнение		
		теста		устный опрос
		3. подготовка		
		устного		
		сообщения		
		Modern		
		automation and		
		robotics		
6	1-3 неделя	1. подготовка к	157 часов	устный опрос
	4 семестра	аудиторным		
	reemeerpu	занятиям		тест
		2. выполнение		
		теста		устный опрос
		3. подготовка		
		устного		
		сообщения		
		Modern computer		
		technologies		

Рекомендации по самостоятельной работе студентов Самостоятельная работа студентов является неотъемлемой частью образовательного процесса и рассматривается как организационная форма обучения. Целями СРС являются овладение общекультурными, компетенциями, формирование у студентов способности и навыков непрерывного самообразования и профессионального совершенствования. Самостоятельная работа по дисциплине «Иностранный язык» осуществляется в виде аудиторных и внеаудиторных форм познавательной деятельности. Самостоятельная работа студентов включает в себя:

•Подготовку к аудиторным практическим занятиям;

- •Чтение дополнительной литературы;
- •Составление плана и тезисов ответа;
- •Выполнение переводов;
- •Компьютерное и Интернет тестирование;
- •Подготовка устного сообщения;
- •Подготовка презентаций;
- •Написание эссе;

Текущая подготовка к практическим занятиям подразумевает работу над текстами уроков. Это самостоятельная отработка чтения, перевод текста, ответы на вопросы после текстов или продумывание предполагаемых ответов на возможные вопросы преподавателя. Заучивание новых лексических единиц, тренировка грамматических конструкций.

Методические рекомендации для подготовки доклада, сообщения/ презентаций

Для подготовки устных сообщений или презентаций желательны иллюстративные (фото- и видео-) материалы, статистические диаграммы и таблицы.

Общие требования к презентации:

презентация не должна быть меньше 10 слайдов;

первый слайд— это титульный слайд, на котором обязательно должны быть представлены: название проекта; фамилия, имя, отчество автора. Для оформления презентации обязательным требованием является использование фирменного стиля университета.

Критерии оценки (устного доклада, сообщения, в том числе выполненных в форме презентаций):

100-86 баллов выставляется студенту, если студент выразил своё мнение по сформулированной проблеме, аргументировал его, точно определив ее содержание и составляющие. Студент знает и владеет навыком самостоятельной исследовательской работы по теме исследования; методами и приемами анализа теоретических и/или практических аспектов изучаемой области. Фактических ошибок, связанных с пониманием проблемы, нет; графически работа оформлена правильно

85-76 - баллов - работа характеризуется смысловой цельностью, связностью и последовательностью изложения; допущено не более 1 ошибки при объяснении смысла или содержания проблемы. Для аргументации приводятся различные данные отечественных и зарубежных авторов. Продемонстрированы исследовательские умения и навыки. Фактических ошибок, связанных с пониманием проблемы, нет. Допущены одна-две ошибки в оформлении работы

75-61 балл — студент проводит достаточно самостоятельный анализ основных этапов и смысловых составляющих проблемы; понимает базовые основы и теоретическое обоснование выбранной темы. Привлечены основные источники по рассматриваемой теме. Допущено не более 2 ошибок в смысле или содержании проблемы, оформлении работы

60-50 баллов - если работа представляет собой пересказанный или полностью переписанный исходный текст без собственных комментариев, анализа. Не раскрыта структура и теоретическая составляющая темы. Допущено три или более трех ошибок в смысловом содержании раскрываемой проблемы, в оформлении работы.

Критерии оценки выполнения самостоятельной работы:

Оценка		50-60 баллов неудовлетв орительно	61-75 баллов удовлетвори тельно	76-85 баллов хорошо	86-100 баллов отлично
Крит	rep		Содерж	кание критериев	
ии					
		Проблема	Проблема	Проблема	Проблема
		не	раскрыта не	раскрыта.	раскрыта
		раскрыта.	полностью.	Проведен анализ	полностью.
a]	Отсутствую	Выводы не	проблемы без	Проведен анализ
ыти	емы	т выводы	сделаны	привлечения	проблемы с
Раскрытие	проблемы		и/или	дополнительной	привлечением
Pa	шр		выводы не	литературы. Не	дополнительной
			обоснованы	все выводы	литературы.
				сделаны и/или	Выводы
				обоснованы	обоснованы

		Ι	Т	T
	Представляе	Представляе	Представляемая	Представляемая
	мая	мая	информация не	информация
	информация	информация	систематизирована	систематизирова
	логически	не	и последовательна.	на,
	не связана.	систематизир	Использовано	последовательна
ние	Не	ована и/или	более 2	и логически
вле	использован	не	профессиональных	связана.
(ста	Ы	последовател	терминов	Использовано
Представление	профессион	ьна.		более 5
	альные	использовано		профессиональн
	термины	1-2		ых терминов
		профессиона		
		льных		
		термина		
	Не	Использован	Использованы	Широко
	использован	ы технологии	технологии Power	использованы
	Ы	Power Point	Point. He более 2	технологии
	технологии	частично. 3-4	ошибок в	(Power Point и
ние	Power Point.	ошибки в	представляемой	др.).
Оформлени	Больше 4	представляем	информации	Отсутствуют
фоф	ошибок в	ой		ошибки в
0	представляе	информации		представляемой
	мой			информации
	информаци			
	И			
		1		

PI	Нет ответов	Только	Ответы на	Ответы на
вопросы	на вопросы	ответы на	вопросы полные	вопросы
		элементарны	и/или частично	полные, с
на на		е вопросы	полные	привидением
Веты				примеров и/или
O TI				пояснений



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ФОНД ОЦЕНОЧНЫХ СРЕДСТВ

по дисциплине «Иностранный язык»

23.03.03 Эксплуатация транспортно-технологических машин и комплексов «Автомобили и автомобильное хозяйство»

Форма подготовки (заочная)

Владивосток

Паспорт ФОС

Код и формулировка компетенции	Эта	пы формирования компетенции
	Знает	 грамматический строй английского языка особенности межкультурной коммуникации воспринимать иноязычную речь
ОК-5 владение иностранным языком в устной и письменной форме для осуществления межкультурной и иноязычной коммуникации	Владеет	на слух в рамках обыденной коммуникации - выражать свои мысли грамотно, употребляя соответствующие грамматические и лексические формы, как устно, так и письменно - употреблять изученные стратегии и технологии, необходимые в различных областях иноязычной коммуникации - навыками употребления
	Бладеет	- навыками употреоления соответствующих языковых средств в осуществлении речевой деятельности - навыками поиска информации языкового, культурного, страноведческого характера из достоверных источников - навыком просмотрового, поискового и аналитического чтения

N	Контролируе	Коды и этапы		Оценочн	очные средства	
	мые разделы /	формирования		текущий	промежуточ	
П	темы	компетенций		контроль	ная	
/	дисциплины				аттестация	
П						
1	Практическое	ОК-5	-	Устные	Зачет: Test	
			грамматичес			

1.0			1 10
занятие 1-9	кий строй английского	опросы,	1-12
	языка	Тесты	(Приложени
	-		е), чтение и
	особенности межкультур		перевод
	ной		текста
	коммуникац ии		
	-		Экзамен :
	воспринимат		Test 13
	Ь		(Приложени
	иноязычную		е), чтение и
	речь на слух		перевод
	в рамках		текста
	обыденной		
	коммуникац		
	ии		
	- выражать		
	свои мысли		
	грамотно,		
	употребляя		
	соответству		
	ющие		
	грамматичес		
	кие и		
	лексические		
	формы, как		
	устно, так и		
	письменно		
	-		
	употреблять		
	изученные		

	стратегии и	
	технологии,	
	необходимы	
	е в	
	различных	
	областях	
	иноязычной	
	коммуникац	
	ии	
	- навыками	
	употреблени	
	Я	
	соответству	
	ющих	
	языковых	
	средств в	
	осуществлен	
	ии речевой	
	деятельност	
	И	
	- навыками	
	поиска	
	информации	
	языкового,	
	культурного,	
	страноведче	
	ского	
	характера из	
	достоверных	
	источников	

	- навыком	
	просмотрово	
	го,	
	поискового	
	И	
	аналитическ	
	ого чтения	

Шкала оценивания уровня сформированности компетенций

Код и формулир овка	Этапы формирования компетенции		критерии	показатели
компетенц				
ИИ				
ОК-5 —	Знает	особенности	Знание	-способность
владение	(пороговы	делового и	правил	охарактеризо
иностранн	й уровень)	научного	профессионал	ватьмежкульт
ым языком		стилей	ьной этики	урные
в устной и		общения;	общения и	особенности
письменно		основы	речевого	ведения
й форме		публичной	этикета	вербальной
для		речи; культуру		коммуникаци
осуществле		и традиции		и;
ния		стран		
межкульту		изучаемого		
рной и		языка;		
иноязычно	Умеет	использовать	Умение	-способность
Й	(продвину	различные	делать устное	выделять в
*1	тый	формы, виды	сообщение,	текстах

коммуника	уровень)	устной и письменной коммуникации на родном и иностранном языках в учебной и профессиональ ной деятельности	доклад; аннотировать, реферировать тексты по специальност и	основные мысли и факты; находить логические связи, аргументиров ать факты, доказывающи е логику
				информации
	Владеет	различными	Владение	-способность
	(высокий уровень)	способами	навыками аудирования	использовать
		вербальной и	и говорения,	навыки
		невербальной	которые позволяют	письменной и
		коммуникации;	осуществлять	устной речи в
		навыками	монологическ ую,	пределах
		коммуникации в родной и	диалогическу	изученной
		иноязычной	ю речь на обсуждаемые	тематики;
		среде;	темы на	навыки
			иностранном	просмотровог
			языке	0,
				поискового,
				ознакомитель
				ного и
				изучающего
				чтения.
	Владеет	Владеет	Владеет	Владеет
		навыками	необходимым лексическим	навыками
		межличностно	И	общения,
		го общения,	грамматическ им набором	способен
		как в устной,	для	решить
		так и в	осуществлени я	коммуникати
		письменной	коммуникаци	вную задачу.
		формах	И	
*Vnumanuii	0.144.0.14.104.104.104.1	100 10010000001111 14001	$ \frac{1}{2} $	

^{*}Критерий — это признак, по которому можно судить об отличии состояния одного явления от другого. Критерий шире показателя, который является составным элементом критерия и характеризует содержание его. Критерий

выражает наиболее общий признак, по которому происходит оценка, сравнение реальных явлений, качеств, процессов. А степень проявления, качественная сформированность, определенность критериев выражается в конкретных показателях. Критерий представляет собой средство, необходимый инструмент оценки, но сам оиенкой является. Функциональная роль критерия – в определении или не определении сущностных признаков предмета, явления, качества, процесса и др.

Показатель выступает по отношению к критерию как частное к общему. Показатель не включает в себя всеобщее измерение. Он отражает отдельные свойства и признаки познаваемого объекта и служит средством накопления количественных и качественных данных для критериального обобщения. Γ лавными характеристиками понятия «показатель» являются конкретность

и диагностичность, что предполагает доступность его для наблюдения, учета и фиксации, а также позволяет рассматривать показатель как более частное по отношению к критерию, а значит, измерителя последнего.

Методические рекомендации, определяющие процедуры оценивания результатов освоениядисциплины

Оценочные средства для промежуточной аттестации

Промежуточная аттестация студентов по дисциплине «Иностранный язык» проводится в соответствии с локальными нормативными актами ДВФУ и является обязательной. Промежуточный контроль проводится в виде зачета/экзамена по семестрам. Объектом контроля являются коммуникативные умения во всех видах речевой деятельности (аудирование, говорение, чтение, письмо), ограниченные тематикой и проблематикой изучаемых разделов курса. Итоговый контроль проводится в виде выпускного экзамена за весь курс обучения иностранному языку. Объектом контроля является достижение Программой уровня владения иноязычной коммуникативной компетенцией (Основного/Повышенного).

Критерии выставления оценки студенту на зачете/ экзамене по дисциплине «Иностранный язык»:

Баллы (рейтинг овой оценки)	Оценка зачета/ экзамена (стандартн ая)	Требования к сформированным компетенциям
100-86	«зачтено» / «отлично»	Оценка «отлично» выставляется студенту, если он глубоко и прочно усвоил программный материал, исчерпывающе, последовательно, четко и логически стройно его излагает, умеет тесно увязывать теорию с практикой, свободно справляется с задачами, вопросами и другими видами применения знаний, причем не затрудняется с ответом при видоизменении заданий, использует в ответе материал монографической литературы, правильно обосновывает принятое решение, владеет разносторонними навыками и приемами выполнения практических задач.
85-76	«зачтено» / «хорошо»	Оценка «хорошо» выставляется студенту, если он твердо знает материал, грамотно и по существу излагает его, не допуская существенных неточностей в ответе на вопрос, правильно применяет теоретические положения при решении практических вопросов и задач, владеет необходимыми навыками и приемами их выполнения.
75-61	«зачтено» / «удовлетв орительно »	Оценка «удовлетворительно» выставляется студенту, если он имеет знания только основного материала, но не усвоил его деталей, допускает неточности, недостаточно правильные формулировки, нарушения логической последовательности в изложении программного материала, испытывает затруднения при выполнении практических работ.
60-50	«не зачтено»/ «неудовле творител ьно»	Оценка «неудовлетворительно» выставляется студенту, который не знает значительной части программного материала, допускает существенные ошибки, неуверенно, с большими затруднениями выполняет практические работы. Как правило, оценка «неудовлетворительно» ставится студентам, которые не могут продолжить обучение без дополнительных занятий по соответствующей

	дисциплине.

Критерии оценки (письменный ответ)

- ✓ 100-86 баллов если ответ показывает глубокое и систематическое знание всего программного материала и структуры конкретного вопроса, а также основного содержания и новаций лекционного курса по сравнению с учебной литературой. Студент демонстрирует отчетливое и свободное владение концептуально-понятийным аппаратом, научным языком и терминологией соответствующей научной области. Знание основной литературы и знакомство с дополнительно рекомендованной литературой. Логически корректное и убедительное изложение ответа.
- ✓ 85-76 баллов знание узловых проблем программы и основного содержания лекционного курса; умение пользоваться концептуальнопонятийным аппаратом в процессе анализа основных проблем в рамках данной темы; знание важнейших работ из списка рекомендованной литературы. В целом логически корректное, но не всегда точное и аргументированное изложение ответа.
- ✓ 75-61 балл фрагментарные, поверхностные знания важнейших разделов программы и содержания лекционного курса; затруднения с использованием научно-понятийного аппарата и терминологии учебной дисциплины; неполное знакомство с рекомендованной литературой; частичные затруднения с выполнением предусмотренных программой заданий; стремление логически определенно и последовательно изложить ответ.
- ✓ 60-50 баллов незнание, либо отрывочное представление о данной проблеме в рамках учебно-программного материала; неумение использовать понятийный аппарат; отсутствие логической связи в ответе.

Критерии оценки (устный ответ)

✓ 100-85 баллов - если ответ показывает прочные знания основных процессов изучаемой предметной области, отличается глубиной и полнотой раскрытия темы; владение терминологическим аппаратом; умение объяснять сущность, явлений, процессов, событий, делать выводы и обобщения, давать аргументированные ответы, приводить примеры; свободное владение монологической речью, логичность и последовательность ответа; умение приводить примеры современных проблем изучаемой области.

✓ 85-76 - баллов - ответ, обнаруживающий прочные знания основных процессов изучаемой предметной области, отличается глубиной и полнотой раскрытия темы; владение терминологическим аппаратом; умение объяснять сущность, явлений, процессов, событий, делать выводы и обобщения, давать аргументированные ответы, приводить примеры; свободное владение монологической речью, логичность и последовательность ответа. Однако допускается одна - две неточности в ответе.

✓ 75-61 - балл — оценивается ответ, свидетельствующий в основном о знании процессов изучаемой предметной области, отличающийся недостаточной глубиной и полнотой раскрытия темы; знанием основных вопросов теории; слабо сформированными навыками анализа явлений, процессов, недостаточным умением давать аргументированные ответы и приводить примеры; недостаточно свободным владением монологической речью, логичностью и последовательностью ответа. Допускается несколько ошибок в содержании ответа; неумение привести пример развития ситуации, провести связь с другими аспектами изучаемой области.

✓ 60-50 баллов — ответ, обнаруживающий незнание процессов изучаемой предметной области, отличающийся неглубоким раскрытием темы; незнанием основных вопросов теории, несформированными навыками анализа явлений, процессов; неумением давать аргументированные ответы, слабым владением монологической речью, отсутствием логичности и последовательности. Допускаются серьезные ошибки в содержании ответа; незнание современной проблематики изучаемой области.

Промежуточные лексико-грамматические тесты

Тест 1

имя существительное

1.	We haven't had in summer.		
	1) fruit	c) fruit's	
	b) fruits	d) fruits's	
2.	Yesterday we had for dinn		
	1) fish	c) fish's	
	2) fishes	d) fishs	
3.	not easy to learn		
	1) physic is	c) physic are	
	2) physics is	d) physics are	
1	He gave me some good		
↔.	1) advise	c) advices	
	2) advice	d) piece of advice	
	2) advice	d) piece of advice	
5.	Some Australian give us v	ery good wool	
	1) sheep	c) sheepes	
	2) sheeps	d) sheepse	
6.	Give me ink to write let	ter	
	1) -,-	c) a, a	
	2) some, a	d) a, some	
7	My slow		
/.	1) watch are	c) watches is	
	2) watch is	d) watches are	
	2) water is	a) wateries are	
8.	We have very on this su	=	
	1) little informations	•	
	2) few informations	d) little information	
9.	Her dark		
	1) hairs are	c) hair are	
	2) hairs is	d) hair is	
	•		

10.Our summer two month

1) vacations last	c) vacation last
2) vacations lasts	d) vacation lasts
11.Look! has stopped	there is a very beautiful.
1) a car, a car	c) a car, the car
2) the car, a car	d) the car, the car
_,,	2,
12 earth is million of l	zilometera from gun
1) a, a	
2) a, the	c) the, a d) the, the
2) a, the	d) the, the
13. These are those gen	
1) ladies, wifes	c) ladies, wives
2) ladys, wifes	d) ladys, wives
14.In the farm-yard we c	could see
1) oxes, swines ar	nd gooses
2) oxes, swines an	
3) oxen, swines a	nd geese
4) oxen, swine and	d geese
15. Why don't you eat	9
1) these potatoes	c) this potatoes
2) these potato	d) these potatos
2) these potato	a) mese potatos
1611 1 1 1	
16.I have hurt my both	
1) foot	c) feet
2) foots	d) feets
17. Put these on the tal	ole
1) knife	c) knives
2) knifes	d) knive
18.My working day be	egins at 9 o'clock in the morning
1) brother	c) brother'es
2) brothers	d) brother's
,	, -
10 Mr. library is the mi	about one in the town
19.My library is the ri	
1) brother-in-law	c) brothers's-in-law
2) brother-in-law'	s d) brother's-in-law's

20. The of the letter n	ot been changed
1) content, has	c) contents has
2) content have	d) contents, have
21 money to him	
1) this, belongs	c) these, belong
2) this, belong	d) these, belongs
22. цены внутреннего ры	
1) prices home mar	•
2) home prices mar	ket d) market home prices
23. Уменьшение цены на	мясо
1) meat price decre	ase c) decrease meat price
2) decrease price m	eat d) meat decrease price
24.банкнота в десять фун	HTOR
1) ten-pound note	c) a note ten-pound
2) a ten-pound note	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
•	
25. Морковь очень полез	
1) carrot is very hea	•
2) carrot are very he	•
3) carrots is very he	•
4) carrots are very l	leariny
	TECT 2
	Местоимения
1. He doesn't like book; it	must be
a) hers, yours	c) my, her
b) my, yours	d) your, her
2 T. H	41 0
2. Tell me, isn't that old ca	
a) you	c) yours
b) your	d) your's
3. They have two of house	es in this street, and the house on the corner

is also...

	a) their, theirs	c) their, there	
	b) theirs, their	d) their, their's	
4. John has come to see me; father and were school friends.			
	a) him, my	c) his, my	
	b) him, mine	d) his, mine	
5. Th	is book is, I wrote	name in it	
	a) my, mine, myself	c) mine, me, myself	
	b) my, me, mine	d) mine, my, myself	
6. Mr	. Jones and came last	night.	
	a) he	c) him	
	b) his	d) himself	
7. Go	with John and to visit	t	
	a) she, they	c) her, them	
	b) her, their	d) his, them	
8. Sh	e rang me up and asked i	ny friend and to tea.	
	a) I	c) mine	
	b) my	d) me	
]9. Tł	nese books don't belong	to me those.	
	a) Either do	c) Neither do	
	b) Either don't	d) Neither don't	
10. Although the mountain was high boys were able to climb it.			
	a) much	c) this	
	b) a few	d) a little	
11 errors are made by foreigners.			
	a) this	c) their	
	b) these	d) theirs	
12. I want some sugar, but the grocer hasn't			
	a) any	c) ones	
	b) one	d) some	

13. I've lost my pencil. Have you to lend me?		
a) any	c) ones	
b)one	d) some	
14. A chair can't stand on thi	ree lags a table	
a) Either can	c) Neither can	
b) Either can't	d) Neither can't	
15. Although the question wa	as difficult students were able to answer it	
a) much	c) little	
b) a few	d) a little	
16. Many people lost lives	at sea.	
a) this	c) their	
b) these	d) theirs	
17. I asked him for some ink	, and he gave me	
a) any	c) ones	
b) one	d) some	
18. So this is your house. It's	very pretty	
a) any	c) ones	
b) one	d) some	
19. He slept and felt better		
a) few	c) many	
b) a few	d) a little	
20. The bird has broken wing.		
a) her	c) its	
b) it	d) it's	
21. I want some flour, but the grocer hasn't		
a) any	c) ones	
b) one	d) some	

22. I want some oranges. Give me these big \dots .

a) any	c) ones
b) one	d) some
23. Water hasn't any taste	e this soup.
a) Either has	c) Neither has
b) Either hasn't	d) Neither hasn't
24. Go and ask for mor	e paper. I haven't in my desk.
a) any, any	c) any, some
b) some, some	d) some, any
25. I've been this sumn	per I've had no time
a) somewhere	
b) something	d) nothing
	TECT 3
	There is/are and it is
1. There a few changes	since you left last year.
a) was	c) have been
b) were	d) had been
2. There a teacher of E	nglish and second-year students in the hall.
a) is	c) has been
b) are	d) have been
3. There a lot of visitor	s today.
a) is	c) were
b) was	d) have been

4. There two museums and a picture gallery in their town.			
	a) is	c) had been	
	b) are	d) have been	
5. The	ere no fruit on this tree	e for many years.	
	a) was	c) has been	
	b) were	d) have been	
6. The	ere a pear-tree and thre	ee apple-trees in their orchard.	
	a) is	c) had been	
	b) are	d) have been	
7. The	ere a lot of work to do	this week.	
	a) was	c) has been	
	b) are	d) have been	
8. The	ere some chocolates o	n this plate when I went out	
	a) is	c) was	
	b) are	d) were	
9. The	ere only a footpath her	re last year.	
	a) is	c) has been	
	b) was	d) had been	
10. Tl	nere mistakes in your	last exercise.	
	a) was no	c) was not	
	b) were no	d) were not	

11. It ... very wet last month, and now it ... windy

	b) is, was	d) was, is			
12 It	12. It long time since I saw you.				
12.10					
	a) is	c) has been			
	b) was	d) had been			
13	easy for him to find	fault, but it not fair			
	a) It is, is	c) There is, is			
	b) It is, was	d) There is, was			
14	far from my house	to the station.			
	a) There is no	c) There is not			
	b) It is no	d) It is not			
15	true to say that she	e is my friend.			
	a) It is no	c) There is no			
	b) It is not	d) There is not			
16	a beautiful park near	my home when I was a child.			
	a) It is	c) It was			
	b) There is	d) There was			
17 a long time since I saw that beautiful sunset.					
	a) It was	c) It has been			
	b) There was	d) There has been			
18. There still several empty seats it the plane when I arrived.					
	a) was	c) has been			
	b)were	d) have been			
	,	,			

c) was, was

a) is, is

19 crowds of people a	at the station waiting to greet the film star.
a) It was	c) There was
b)It were	d) There were
20 very few people at	his lecture yesterday.
a) It was	c) There was
b) It were	d) There were
21. There is snow it th	e fields this year.
a) no many	c) no much
b) not many	d) not much
22. There three but two	o boys in their family.
a) is, no	c) are, not
b) is, not	d) are no
23. There anybody in the	e street while I was going home.
a) was no	c) was not
b) were no	d) were not
24. «Why are you sitting he	ere? high time to go home.»
a) It is	c) There is
b) It was	d) There was
25. There are three member	rs in their family?
a) are there	c) are it
b) aren't there	,

Порядок слов в предложении

1 Choose the corresponding alternative paying attention to the model I often see him.

I have often see him.

You are never to come late again.

He spoke well at the debate this morning.

He went to the station by taxi.

He was born at six o'clock on Christmas morning in the year 1822.

2 My mother

- a) goes often for a walk on Sundays
- b) goes for a walk often on Sundays
- c) goes for a walk on Sundays often
- d) often goes for a walk on Sundays

2. The porter

- a) was able hardly to carry my luggage
- b) was hardly able to carry my luggage
- c) was able to carry hardly my luggage
- d) was able to carry my luggage hardly
- 3. a) We have almost finished this exercise
 - b) We have finished almost this exercise
 - c) We have finished this exercise almost
 - d) We almost have finished this exercise
- 4. a) Generally I drink my tea with milk
 - b) I generally drink my tea with milk
 - c) I drink generally my tea with milk
 - d) I drink my tea generally with milk

- 5. a) Sometimes I forget my homework
 - b) I forget sometimes my homework
 - c) I sometimes forget my homework
 - d) I forget my homework sometimes
- 6. a) Usually the buses are full in this town
 - b) the buses usually are full in this town
 - c) the buses are usually full in this town
 - d) the buses are full in this town usually
- 7. a) She knows scarcely what to say about it
 - b) scarcely she knows what to say about it
 - c) She knows what to say scarcely about it
 - d) She scarcely knows what to say about it
- 8. a) The student on the right answers correctly never
 - b) The student never on the right answers correctly
 - c) Never the student on the right answers correctly
 - d) The student on the right never answers correctly
- 9. a) Generally we are very busy
 - b) we are generally very busy
 - c) we generally are very busy
 - d) we are very busy generally
- 10. He was born
 - a) in the year 1923 at 10 a.m. on June 14th
 - b) on June 14th at 10 a.m. in the year 1923
 - c) in the year on June 14th at 10 a.m.
 - d) at 10 a.m. on June 14th in the year 1923

11. Our teacher spoke to us

- a) in class very rudely this morning
- b) this morning very rudely in class
- c) in class this morning very rudely
- d) very rudely in class this morning

12. I saw a friend off

- a) at 6 o'clock this morning at the station
- b) at the station at 6 o'clock this morning
- c) this morning at the station at 6 o'clock
- d) at 6 o'clock at the station this morning

13. Cyril was working

- a) at his office very hard yesterday
- b) yesterday at his office very hard
- c) very hard at his office yesterday
- d) very hard yesterday at his office

14. They stayed

- a) all day quietly there
- b) there all day quietly
- c) quietly there all day
- d) all day there quietly

15. He played

- a) beautifully in the concert at the Town Hall last night
- b) last night at the Town Hall beautifully in the concert
- c) in the concert last night beautifully at the Town Hall
- d) at the Town Hall last night beautifully in the concert

16. We are going

a) to Switzerland on Saturday for a week b) for a week on Saturday to Switzerland c) to Switzerland for a week on Saturday d) on Saturday to Switzerland for a week **Тест 5**

Степени сравнени	я прилагательных
1. He is stupid than I thought a) less	c) a little
b) little d) the least	
2. She is than I am	
a) very pretty	c) much pretty
b) more pretty	d) much prettier
3. Winter days are not summer days	
a) longer	c) so long as
b) long as	d) so long than
4. These grapes are expensive than the	hose
a) less	c) a little
b) little d) the least	
5. She came to school than I did	
a) last	c) latter
b) later d) latest	
6. South winds are not spring winds	
a) severe as	c) so severe as
b) severe than d) so severe than	

7. Scott and Dic	kens are both	n excellent writ	ers, but I prefer the
a) last		c) latter
b) later	d) latest		
9. Voya composi	ition is the	tha aassas ait	ion of other students
	ition is the		ion of other students
a) bad	1) (1) the worse
b) worse	d) the worst	Ĭ.	
9. He is than	I am		
a) very stro	ong	c) more strong
b) much str	rong d) mu	ich stronger	
10. The temper	ectura in win	tar in England i	s not in Siberia
_	ature iii wiii	_	
a) low as	d) ao		e) so low as
b) low than	d) so	iow uiaii	
11. This exerci	se is not so .	your last one	
a) good as		C	e) best than
b) better as	d) go	od than	
12. The grass is	s not so he	ere in our gar	den
a) short, as		_) short, than
	as d) she	,	, 511010, 111111
13 late than	never		
a) good		c) the best
b) better	d) the beast		
14 haste, the	e less speed		
a) more		С	e) the most
b) the more	d) mo	ost	

15. Why do Americans say 'I guess	so' instead of 'I think so'?
a) more	c) the most
b) most d) most	
16. Let us stop discussion of this ma	after
a) far	c) further
b) farther d) furthest	·, - · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
17. I don't think that your plan is th	eirs
a) good as	c) better than
b) better as d) good than	c) better than
18 village is three kilometers from	our house
a) near	c) next
b) nearer d) the nearest	
19. Which of the two cities is the from	om Vladivostok?
a) far	c) farthest
b) farther d) further	
20. She studies much than I do, thou	igh she spends time preparing
a) good, little	c) better, less
b) better, little d) good, less	
21. Heat makes things and cold makes	xes things
_	c) the bigger, the smaller
b) the biggest, smaller d) bigger,	
22 Spring is then winter but summ	ar is the of the four seesons of the year
-	er is the of the four seasons of the year
a) most pleasant, more pleasant	c) pleasant, most pleasant
b) more pleasant, pleasant	d) more pleasant, most pleasant

23. The woods are not the forests an	d not so wild but they are very beautiful
a) large as	c) so large than
b) so large as	d) as large than
24. My brown dress is not your gree	n one
a) the same quality as	c) the same quality then
b) the same quality than	d) so quality as
25. The smell of flowers in spring is	it is in summer
a) so sweet as	c) as sweet than
b) as sweet as d) the same sweet	et than
	Тест 6
Времена. Дей	ствительный залог
1. Look at the man standing over there	you him?
a) Do remember c) Are remember	ering
b) Did remember d) Were remem	bering
2. We our supper an hour ago	
a) finish c) have finished	
b) finished d) had finished	
3. I heard the news last night, but I it too	lay
a) heard c) have heard	
b) didn't hear d) haven't heard	
4. When I had a dog, I always him out for	or a walk
a) take c) have taken	
b) took d) was taking	

5. I'll come and see you before I for England
a) leave c) shall leave
b) will leave d) have left
6. When I to the radio last night, I heard a loud scream
a) listened c) was listening
b) have listened d) have been listening
7. By the end of the year he will more than a million miles
a) fly c)have flown
b) be flying d)have been flying
8. He English for three years, but he can't read even yet
a) learnt c) has been learning
b) is learning d) had been learning
9. I can't Have a car until I older
a) am c) shall be
b) am not d) shall not be
10. He took the money after I him not to do so
a) asked c) had asked
b) have asked d) Had been asked
11. What's the matter? Why the boy?
a) doescry c) hascried
b) did cry d) iscrying
12. While she was cooking dinner, Ann the table
a) laid c) had been laying

b) had laid

d) was laying

13. When did you visit her? - I her since September
a) didn't visit c) hadn't visited
b) haven't visited d) was not visited
14. Mary looking for a job in December
a) begin c) has begun
b) begand) had begun
15. I for you at the theatre at 7 o' clock
a) will wait c) shall be waiting
b) shall wait d) shall have waited
16. Look, a man is running after bus. He to catch it
a) want c) is wanting
b) wantsd) was wanting
17. You won't speak English well unless you to England
a) go c) will go
b) goes d) won't go
18. By the end of summer he us to speak English
a) will teach c) will be taught
b) will be teaching d) will have taught
19. When I arrived at his house, he to the latest news
a) listened c) was listening
b) was listenedd) has been listening
20. I at this picture for 5 minutes, but I can't see you in it
a) look c) have looked
b) am looking d) have been looking

21. No, he is not here. H	e just
a) is going	c) has gone
b) was going	d) has been going
22. I shall not move from	n here until he back.
a) get	c) will get
b) gets	d) won't get
23. Before you go to see	them, they the country.
a) leave	c) will leave
b) shall leave	d) will have left
24. Have you seen my ba	ag? I it.
a) lose	c) have lost
b) lost	d) had lost
25. The boy across the	e bridge when his hat blew off.
a) walked	c) was walking
b) has walked	d) has been walking
26. I shall be able to go s	swimming when it warmer.
a) is	c) will be
b) was	d) will have been
27. My small brother	all the pie before we got back.
a) ate	c) had eaten
b) has eaten	d) had been eaten

28. Don't disturb her, she ... at her essay.

a) work	c) is working	
b) works	d) was working	
29 you anything? - I	am listening hard but I can't hear anything.	
a) do hear	c) is hearing	
b) did hear	d) are hearing	
30. We stilltea in the		
a) have	c) have had	
b) had	d) were having	
31. Nobody to me sinc	•	
a) writes	c) was written	
b) was writing	d) has written	
32. If you ever to China, you will see some queer things there.		
a) go	c) will go	
b) goes	d) shall go	
22 (1)		
	rking; she has a headache because she too long	
a) reads	c) has been read	
b) is reading	d) has been reading	
34. By next June he will	his second novel.	
a) write	c) be written	
b) be writing	d) have written	
,		
35. I always a hat whe	n it snowed.	
a) wear	c) wore	
b) was wearing	d) had worn	

36. It is the third English	novel he this year.
a) read	c) had read
b) has read	d) had been read
37. I don't think he will h	ave phoned before he
a) arrive	c) will arrive
b) arrives	d) has arrived
38. I see that you a new	
a) bought	c) had bought
b) have bought	d) had been bought
30 Wa coffee every de	y when we were in France
·	
a) drink	c) have drunk
b) drank	d) had drunk
40. Where are the children	n? They computer games.
a) play	c) are playing
b) plays	d) have been playing
41. This is the best film I	have seen
a) still	c) never
	,
b) ever	d) so far
42. This shoe to Mr. Br	own, I think.
a) belong	c) belongs
b) is belonging	d) are belonging
43. Plants die if you wa	ter them
•	
a) won't	c) wouldn't

b) don't	d) haven't
44. This time tomorrow t	hey in the train on their way to Chicago
a) will sit	c) will be sitting
b) are sitting	d) have been sitting
45. I hardly speaking	g with a porter when the phone rang again.
a) finished	c) had finished
b) have finished	d) was finished
46. That morning she we	ent out after she somebody.
a) have phoned	c) has phoned
b) had phoned	d) was phoned
47. I saw the light in you	r window as I by.
a) passed	c) am passing
b) have passed	d) was passing
48 it raining yet?	
a) did stop	c) has stopped
b) is stopped	d) had stopped
49. I can't find my umbre	ella. I think somebody it by mistake.
a) took	c) was taking
b) takes	d) has taken
50. If you late, I can w	alk with your dog.
a) will be	c) is
b) shall be	d) are

51. We are going to Antallia as soon as we taking our final exams.		
a) are finish	c) 'll finish	
b) had finish	d) finish	
52. He rich.		
a) is not	c) has no	
b) does not	d) has not	
53. My dad has not read th	e newspaper vet 9	
•		
a) isn't he	c) did he	
b) has he	d) hasn't he	
	. to the shops. She'll be back soon.	
a) went	c) has been	
b) has gone	d) had gone	
55. Your sister used to visi	t your parents quite often,?	
a) didn't she	c) doesn't she	
b) wouldn't she	d) hadn't she	
	TF 7	
n.	Тест 7	
•	ремена. Страдательный залог.	
1. You when you see the		
a) amaze	c) were amazed	
b) amazes	d) will be amazed	
2. The day before yesterda	y we to the restaurant by Tom Jenkins.	
a) are invited	c) invite	
b) were invited	d) invited	

3. Look! The bridge ... repaired.

b) is been	d) has been
4. Are you married? Yes	s, I
a) do	c) was
b) am	d) are
5. Will these clothes o	on Saturday?
a) make	c) be make
b) made	d) be made
6. What the tourist	when you passed them?
a) was shown	c) was being shown
b) were shown	d) were being shown
7. Ann such strange s	hoes lately.
a) bought	c) has been bought
b) was bought	d) had been bought
8. Jane didn't know abo	ut the change of plans. She
a) didn't tell	c) wasn't tell
b) hadn't tell	d) hadn't been told
9. What in the Art Mu	useum when you visited it?
a) displayed	c) was displayed
b) had displayed	d) was being displayed
10. She hardly the	news when she ran out of the room.
a) has told	c) has been told
b) had told	d) had been told

c) has being

a) is being

11. We couldn't use the Xerox this morning. It			
a) repaired	c) has been repaired		
b) has repaired	d) was being repaired		
12. Why didn't you go to	12. Why didn't you go to the doctor after you		
a) told	c) had told		
b) have told	d) had been told		
13. The visitors by us at	the station tomorrow.		
a) meet	c) are met		
b) are meeting	d) will be met		
14. The thief a fair trial	and sent to prison.		
a) gave	c) is given		
b) was given	d) gives		
15. The house up for summer and the old gardener will look after it.			
a) locks	c) is locked		
b) locked	d) will be locked		
16. All the dinner befor	e they finished the conversation.		
a) was eaten	c) has been eaten		
b) was being eaten	d) had been eaten		
17. The box for the last	hundred years.		
a) didn't open	c) has been eaten		
b) wasn't opened	d) had been eaten		

18. I for something I d	idn't do.
a) am punished	c) has been punished
b) was punished	d) had been punished
19. He saw that the table into the corner.	
a) is pushed	c) has been pushed
b) was pushed	d) had been pushed
20. I can't bear it. The piano far too loudly.	
a) is played	c) is being played
b) was played	d) has been played
21 The 1'd even 4.1.	
21. The chickens today	
a) was not eaten	c) has not been eaten
b) were not eaten	d) have not been eaten
22. She said that some in	k on her carpet.
a) was spilled	c) has been spilled
b) were spilled	d) had been spilled
23. a) The door has been	already shut
b) The door already h	as been shut
c) The door has already been shut	
d) The door has been shut already	
24. a) The article beautiful	ully has been written
b) The article has beautifully been written	
c) The article has been beautifully written	
d) The article has bee	en written beautifully

25.a) Will be finished the book next month?

b) Will be the book fi	inished next month?
c) Will the book be finished next month?	
d) Will the book next	month be finished?
	Тест 8
Сог	ласование времен и косвенная речь.
	aould stop for lunch as soon as we a pleasant place in the
country.	
a) find	c) shall find
b) found	d) should find
2. Jenny noticed that he	by three white men on the other side of the street.
a) watched	c) was watching
b) was watched	d) was being watching
3. Peter exclaimed that the state of the sta	he plaice him his own countryside.
a) remind	c) reminded
b) reminds	d) has reminded
4. They assured their fr	riends they would start for the seaside if the weather for
worse.	
a) doesn't change	c) won't change
b) didn't change	d) wouldn't change
5. He said I cross the	road against the red light.
a) mustn't	c) didn't have
b) don't have to	d) hadn't to
6. Billy asked her why sl	he hadn't got up earlier
a) today	c) next day

7. She wondered if ever	forget her.
a) will he	c) would he
b) he will	d) he would
8. He knew that they would	d start for a walk after he his work/
a) finishes	c) would finish
b) will finish	d) had finished
9. Peter said that he would	stay indoors all day if the weather for better.
a) doesn't change	c) won't change
b) didn't change	d) wouldn't change
10. Peter asked Mary where her slippers the day before.	
a) she put	c) did she put
b) she had put	d) had she put
44.50	
•	time to finish their work in time.
a) have	c) will have
b) had had	d) would have
12. She told me that she	hard that week
a) has worked	c) is working
b) had worked	d) was working
b) had worked	d) was working
13. He told me that water	ch had been stolen the day before yesterday.
a) this	c) those

d) the day before

b) yesterday

b) that	d) these
14. He found out that the	house had been sold to a rich American
a) today	c) the day before
b) yesterday	d) last year
15. We were told people	fish in that river.
a) must	c) had
b) mustn't	d) hadn't
16. Neil remarked that if	we, we should be late for the last train.
a) don't hurry	c) shall not hurry
b) didn't hurry	d) should not hurry
17. They wondered if the	ey in their examinations next term.
a) succeed	c) will succeed
b) succeeded	d) would succeed
18. Ann asked Tom why	there two weeks before.
a) didn't you come	c) hadn't he come
b) you hadn't come	d) he hadn't come
19. We were told that Ar	ndrew to enter that college.
a) is going	c) was going
b) went	d) has going
20. My parents decided t	hat we my birthday on Saturday.
a) should celebrate	c) shall celebrate
b) would celebrate	d) celebrated

21. Mike hoped that his friend him with his car.	
a) help	c) will help
b) has helped	d) would help
22. Barbara said her grandma her some money.	
a) give	c) would give
b) will give	d) would be given
23. When I saw the girl I	was sure I her before.
a) meet	c) have met
b) met	d) had met
	Columbus America more then 400 years ago.
a) discovered	c) had discovered
b) has discovered	d) was discovered
25. Ann said that she to go there that summer but she no money.	
a) wants, has	c) wanted, has
b) wants, had	d) wanted, had
	Тест 9
Модальные глаголы	
1. She had to get up at hal	If past six,?
a) had she	c) did she
b) hadn't she	d) didn't she
2. The line is busy. Some	_
a) must use	c) must be using

d) must have been using

b) must have used

3. You go out in the rain now, you have a headache.	
a) must	c) don't need
b) needn't	d) haven't need
4. My feet are wet. I'll	to change my stockings.
a) must	c) be
b) have	d) should
5. He had to tell the truth,	?
a) had he	c) did he
b) hadn't he	d) didn't he
6. I don't see Martha anyv	where; she very early.
a) must be left	c) must have left
b) must be leaving	d) must have been
	leaving
7 The weather was had a	and we walk in the park.
	c) were not able
b) couldn't	d) were allowed to
8. I'm afraid you'll go there alone, darling. I have such a headache.	
a) have	c) be to
b) have to	d) be allowed
9. Ann work hard to master the language, didn't she?	
a) must	c) had to
b) have to	d) could

10. Where is Tom? - He in the library now.	
a) must study	c) must be studying
b) must have studied	d) must have been
	studying
11. This carpet was priced	at & 500, but I get a discount (скидка)
because of this small mark in the corner.	
a) could	c) was able
b) couldn't	d) was able to
12. We'll run if we don	't want to be wet.
a) have	c) be to
b) have to	d) be allowed to
13. I go swimming when	n it is warmer.
a) could	c) shall be able to
b) was able to	d) will be able to
14. You will speak Spar	nish in another few month.
a) can	c) be able to
b) may	d) be allowed
15. Little children like books with large print. They read them more easily.	
a) must	c) can
b) have to	d) should
16 I speak to Jane, please?	
a) should	c) must
b) may	d) ought

17. It will be dark soor	n. I think I take a taxi.
a) must	c) 'll have to
b) am to	d) 'll need
18. Everybody will	work hard if they want to pass exams.
a) must	c) have
b) must to	d) have to
19. Ann eat less, she	e is too fat.
a) must to	c) mustn't to
b) should	d) shouldn't to
20. He play chess w	hen he was young.
a) can	c) was able
b) could	d) was allowed
21. She play the pian	no when she is better.
a) can	c) will be able to
b) will be able	d) will be allowed
22. He needn't do that	, need he? - Yes, I'm afraid he
a) need	c) does
b) must	d) is
23. I don't tell my h	usband such things; he's a born gentleman.
a) allowed to	c) have to
b) ought to	d) able to
24. My doctor says I	eat meat, but I needn't take his advice if I don't want to
a) have not	c) didn't have to

b) don't have	d) mustn't	
25. When I decided to come back to the hotel, I ask a citizen to show.		
a) had to	c) was allowed	
b) was able	d) was allowed to	
	Тест 10	
	Условные предложения	
1. If you come too, it would be very nice.		
a) can	c) was able to	
b) could	d) were able to	
2. If she the telephone, she would never have heard the good news		
a) answered	c) had answered	
b) didn't answered	d) hadn't answered	
3. We the play better if	it had not been so long.	
a) enjoyed	c) have enjoyed	
b) should enjoy	d) should have enjoyed	
4. You speak English better if you study harder.		
a) had to	c) would be able to	
b) will be able to	d) would be able	
5. If I a ghost, I should try to frighten all the people I dislike.		
a) am	c) were	
b) was	d) shall be	
6. If you had done as I told you, you		
a) succeeded	c) would succeed	

b) had succeeded	d) would have succeeded
7. If I had lost the specta	acles yesterday, I read the letter now.
a) could not	c) were not able to
b) was not able to	d) should not have been
	able to
8. If men only more re	easonable, there would be no more war.
a) was	c) will be
b) were	d) would be
9. I to meet you at the	e station if I had known you wanted me to.
a) should go	c) should have gone
b) would go	d) would have gone
10. I should never have	known the answer if you it to me.
a) do not whisper	c) have not whispered
b) did not whisper	d) had not whispered
11. If I had one million of	dollars, I a yacht.
a) shall buy	c) should buy
b) bought	d) would buy
12. I'm sure she will do	well if she to the University.
a) go	c) went
b) goes	d) would go
13. If the dog us, we s	should have never heard the burglar.
a) would not wake	c) has not woken

b) didn't wake	d) had not woken
14. Blackpool ideal fo	or a holiday, if there were not so many people there.
a) were	c) would be
b) will be	d) would have been
15. The child would hav	e been killed if the train quickly.
a) didn't stop	c) wouldn't stop
b) hadn't stop	d) wouldn't have
	stopped
16. If we had some bread	d, we some bread and cheese if we had some cheese!
a) could have	c) could have had
b) were able to have	d) had had
17. We are going to play	tennis this afternoon if it raining.
a) stop	c) stopped
b) stops	d) will stop
18. If you could type, yo	ou a job easily.
a) get	c) should get
b) got	d) would get
19. I sooner if I had k	nown you were here.
a) came	c) should come
b) would come	d) should have come.
20. Tell him he must vis	it the Tower if he ever to London.
a) go	c) will go
b) goes	d) would go

21. My uncle could help us if he here		
a) is	c) were	
b) was	d) would be	
22. If they hadn't told us,	we the way.	
a) didn't find	c) shouldn't find	
b) hadn't found	d) shouldn't have found	
23. I shall have to buy a th	nick coat if the weather colder.	
a) get	c) will get	
b) gets	d) have got	
24. If the weather were nice	ce, we go to the country.	
a) could	c) were able	
b) was able to	d) should be able to	
25. If he buys a house for	\$8,000 and sells it for \$11,000, he a good profit.	
a) make	c) will make	
b) makes	d) would make	
	Тест 11	
	Неличные формы глагола	
1. Gloria made young	g and lonely at the same time.	
a) he felt	c) him feel	
b) his feel	d) him to feel	

2. I don't want cold.

	a) you catch	c) you caught
	b) you to catch	d) your catch
3. \	We watched slowly	. the gate.
	a) he approaching	c) his approaching
	b) him approaching	d) his approach
4. '	But I want Emma w	ith me", the child repeated.
	a) come	c) will come
	b) to come	d) would come
5. (Can't I make what	had happened?
	a) you understand	c) your understand
	b) you to understand	d) your understanding
6. l	I heard up the stair	s slowly.
	a) his coming	c) he coming
	b) he is coming	d) him coming
7.]	He asked for a telegram	to his son.
	a) send	c) to be sent
	b) to send	d) be sent
8. l	He would not let to	see him in hospital.
	a) somebody come	c) anybody come
	b) somebody to come	d) anybody to come
9.]	I could feel his heart	
	a) to beat	c) beaten
	b) beating	d) to be beaten

10. I should like a mes	sage for them if I may.
a) leave	c) leaving
b) to leave	d) to be left
11. Dad wants me him	a glass of cold water.
a) bring	c) to bring
b) bringing	d) to bringing
10 W	
12. We came here to y	•
a) speak	c) to speak
b) speaking	d) to speaking
12 Mary where were we	u lost night? I tried — vou hut I aculdn't — vou anywhere
	u last night? I tried you but I couldn't you anywhere.
a) find, see	c) find, to see
b) to find, to see	d) to find, see
14. My parents wouldn't	let me out last night. I wanted you - honestly I did.
a) come, see	c) come, to see
b) to come, to see	d) to come, see
15 Why did your parants	s make you in? They usually allow you out
in the evening, don't the	
a) stay, go	c) stay, to go
b) to stay, to go	d) to stay, go
16. I saw to work th	e other day.
a) your cycle	c) you cycling
b) your cycling	d) you are cycling

17. I heard the house early this morning.		
a) him leave	c) him to leave	
b) his leave	d) he leaving	
18. She stood there and wa	atched away.	
a) he drive	c) him driving	
b) his drive	d) his driving	
19. I've often seen ale	ong the beach with your dog.	
a) you to walk	c) your walking	
b) you walking	d) your walk	
20. I expect to find ha	ard when I get back.	
a) you to work	c) your working	
b) you working	d) your work	
21. I watched to sleep	and then I left.	
a) you go	c) your going	
b) you to go	d) your go	
22. I'm not sure I can	to the cinema.	
a) afford, go	c) to afford, go	
b) to afford, to go	d) afford, to go	
23. I know an honest man.		
a) he to be	c) him to be	
b) his to be	d) him be	
24. My first thought was	•	
a) phone	c) be phoned	

25 1 1	41 1
	you the good news.
a) to be told	c) tell
b) told	d) to tell
	Тест 12.
	Предлоги
1. He came back	train
a) at	c) in
b) by	d) on
2. He is free N	Mondays.
a) at	c) on
b) in	d) for
3. They have live	ed there 1984.
a) in	c) from
b) at	d) since
4. He is proud	his son's achievements.
a) by	c) of
b) with	d) about
5. Don't laugh	. my little sister!
a) at	c) above
b) of	d) over
6. What can I cu	t the bread?
 a) at b) in 3. They have live a) in b) at 4. He is proud a) by b) with 5. Don't laugh a) at 	c) on d) for ed there 1984. c) from d) since his son's achievements. c) of d) about . my little sister! c) above d) over

b) in	d) with
7. This is the book I w	as telling you
a) about	c) to
b) by	d) with
8. He has not been he	re Monday.
a) from	c) since
b) on	d) until
9. Our cat was bitten	a dog.
a) by	c) with
b) about	d) without
10. There's no bus; we	e'll have to go foot.
a) by	c) on
b) by means of	d) with
11. I couldn't hear wh	at they were talking
a) about	c) to
b) on	d) with
12. Here's a present	you; don't forget it.
a) to	c) with
b) for	d) about
13. We walked the i	main road and then turned left the railway station.
a) on, to	c) along, to
b) under, at	d) on, under

14. I walked one end of the street the other.		
a) in, in	c) with, to	
b) in, till	d) from, to	
15. You can reach the stati	ion bus ten minutes.	
a) on, through	c) by, in	
b) by, through	d) on, in	
16. Don't look me like that!		
a) on	c) for	
b) at	d) into	
17. Don't go out the train	in a hat.	
a) under, without	c) in, with	
b) under, with	d) in, without	
18. I like to listen the ra	dio half an hour or so dinner.	
a) - , during, after	c) to, during, after	
b) -, for, at	d) to, for, after	
19. Everything in the room	n was covered dust.	
a) by	c) from	
b) in	d) with	
20. There is a holiday the 12th of December.		
a) at	c) in	
b) by	d) on	
21. The teacher often sits his desk.		

c) on

a) at

b) in	d) up	
22. Can you translate this paper English?		
a) on	c) to	
b) it	d) into	
23. Look this interesting	- -	
a) at	c) on	
b) to	d) for	
24 Christmas day I rags	aived many gifts	
24 Christmas day I rece	· -	
a) at	c) in	
b) by	d) on	
25. Do you always get	6 o'clock the morning?	
a) up, in, in	c) -, in, in	
b) up, at, in	d) -, at, in	
Итоговый тест	T 12	
1 777	Тест 13	
1. There is information		
a) many	c) a few	
b) much	d) few	
2. Great Britain consist of parts.		
a) some	c) somebody	
b) any	d) anybody	
· •		
3. We'll come if it raini	ng.	
a) stop	c) will stop	

b) stops	d) stopped
4. No news good news	
a) is	c) were
b) are	d) have
5. This is bedroom.	
a) Jane and Mary's	c) Jane's and Mary
b) Jane's and Mary's	d) Jane and Mary
6. He was invited to pay.	official visit to Great Britain.
a) a two-day	c) second day
b) two-days	d) two-day's
7. This girl is not old as	she looks.
a) that	c) such
b) so	d) this
8. She was busy and could	d not listen the radio.
a) for	c) to
b) at	d) on
9 you your friend ha	ave made a great progress in English.
a) both and	c) so as
b) as as	d) and and
10. It raining. Put on yo	our raincoat.
a) was	c) were
b) is	d) has

11. It will be late when w	ve home.
a) shall come	c) come
b) will come	d) came
12. She didn't know whe	re he his key.
a) had put	c) has put
b) puts	d) is putting
13. Hardly had they left t	he house when the thunderstorm out.
a) broke	c) had broken
b) has broken	d) had been broken
14. Who America?	
a) did discover	c) has discovered
b) discovered	d) had discovered
15. The sun is shining bri	ghtly, ?
a) is it	c) does it
b) isn't it	d) doesn't it
16 you like a cup of co	offee?
a) can	c) should
b) shall	d) would
17. The power of knowle	dge placed in the hands of people.
a) need	c) has to
b) is to	d) should be
- / · · · · · ·	,

18. I have never heard	
a) she sing	c) her sing
b) she singing	d) her sang
19. I expect the delegation	later.
a) arrive	c) shall arrive
b) to arrive	d) would arrive
20. He asked me where	going.
a) am I	c) I am
b) was I	d) I was
21. I don't like jokes.	
a) this	c) her
b) hers	d) her's
22. John has finished hi	s work.
a) still	c) already
b) often	d) sometimes
23. We want our exams	over.
a) be	c) was
b) to be	d) were
24. You play the piano ?	I do.
a) much better than	c) more good than
b) better then	d) more good then
o, setter their	a, more good then
25. I don't eat butter and .	does he.
a) either	c) also

b) neither	d) too
26 clock a hundred r	oubles.
a) this, cost	c) these, costs
b) this, costs	d) these, cost
27. Mary didn't write any	letters and Nora.
a) so did	c) either did
b) also did	d) neither did
28. In 1999 the Petrovs	London.
a) visited	c) have visited
b) has visited	d) had visited
29. I'd like to tell you the	news very interesting.
a) it is	c) they are
b) there are	d) these are
30. Look out of the windo	w. It hard.
a) snow	c) snowed
b) snows	d) is snowing
31. He shown new work	ks of this painter last week.
a) was	c) will be
b) were	d)
32. We made his new	poems at the party.
a) he read	c) him read
b) he to read	d) him to read

33. Mary told me that she ... to Moscow.

d) won't go
very day.
c) usually get up
d) usually gets up
np into the river.
c) can
d) could
s everywhere but I couldn't find them.
c) for
d) after
?
c) has, ended
d) had ended
d) had chided
f he me.
c) invite
d) will invite
1.4
ock tomorrow?
c) will, be doing
d) will, have done
ooks, we any place to sleep
have
t have

c) hadn't gone

a) goes

41. Don't call on me. I shall Moscow by noon
a) leave c) be left
b) be leaving d) have left
42. The bridge will by tomorrow morning
a) be built c) have been built
b) be being built d) have built
43. He wanted to know which bus
a) would she take c) she takes
b) she would take d) she is taking
44. I'll post the letter
a) by mec) oneself
b) myself d) ourselves
45 man has his own faults
a) Some c) Every
b) Both d) Everybody
46. A number of students present at the meeting yesterday
a) was c) has been
b) were d) would be
47. His eyes were as bright as
a) her c) mine
b) my d) our
48. Your institute was founded in 1948,?

a) didn'tc) did

49 mon	ey has been spent for the education this year	
a) few	c) a few	
b) little	d) many	
50. He is o	ften laughed	
a) on	c) above	
b) at	d) about	
Ключи:		
Тест1		
	1-a	14-d
	2-a	15-a
	3-b	16-c
	4-b	17-c
	5-a	18-d
	6-b	19-b
	7-b	20-d
	8-d	21-a
	9-d	22-c
	10-d	23-a
	11-c	24-b
	12-d	25-d
	13-с	
Тест 2		
	1- b	16-c
	2- b 3- a	17-d
	4- d	

b) wasn't

d) does

5- d	18-b
6- a 7- c	19-d
8- d	20-с
9- c 10-b	21-a
11-b	22-c
12-a	23-с
13-b	24-d
13-6 14-c	25-c
15-b	
1	15.1
1- c	15-b
1- c 2-a	15-b 16-d
2-a	16-d
2-a 3-d	16-d 17-c
2-a 3-d 4-b	16-d 17-c 18-b
2-a 3-d 4-b 5-c	16-d 17-c 18-b 19-d
2-a 3-d 4-b 5-c 6-a	16-d 17-c 18-b 19-d 20-d
2-a 3-d 4-b 5-c 6-a 7-c	16-d 17-c 18-b 19-d 20-d 21-d
2-a 3-d 4-b 5-c 6-a 7-c 8-d	16-d 17-c 18-b 19-d 20-d 21-d 22-c
2-a 3-d 4-b 5-c 6-a 7-c 8-d 9-b	16-d 17-c 18-b 19-d 20-d 21-d 22-c 23-c
2-a 3-d 4-b 5-c 6-a 7-c 8-d 9-b 10-b	16-d 17-c 18-b 19-d 20-d 21-d 22-c 23-c 24-a

Тест 3

13-a

14-d

Тест 5				
1-a	6-b	11-c	16-c	21-a
2-a	7-b	12-d	17-c	22-c
3-b	8-d	13-с	18-d	23-a
4-b	9-d	14-d	19-b	24-b
5-a	10-d	15-a	20-d	25-d
Тест 8				
1-b	6-d	11-d	16-b	21-d
2-d	7-d	12-b	17-d	22-с
3-c	8-d	13-b	18-d	23-d
4-b	9-b	14-c	19-c	24-a
5-a	10-b	15-b	20-a	25-d
Тест 9				
1-d	6-c	11-d	16-b	21-с
2-c	7-b	12-b	17-c	22-b
3-b	8-b	13-c	18-d	23-с
4-b	9-c	14-c	19-b	24-d
5-d	10-c	15-c	20-b	25-a
Тест 10				
1-b	6-d	11-c	16-a	21-с
2-d	7-a	12-b	17-b	22-d
3-d	8-b	13-d	18-d	23-b
	0	1.4 -	10.4	24-a
4-b	9-c	14-c	19-d	24-a

Тест 11

1-c	6-d	11-c	16-c	21-a
2-b	7-c	12-c	17-a	22-d
3-b	8-c	13-d	18-c	23-с
4-b	9-b	14-c	19-b	24-b
5-a	10-b	15-с	20-b	25-d

Тест 12

1-b	6-d	11-a	16-b	21-a
2-c	7-a	12-b	17-d	22-d
3-d	8-c	13-с	18-d	23-a
4-c	9-a	14-d	19-d	24-d
5-a	10-с	15-с	20-d	25-b

Тексты для чтения и перевода для зачета и экзамена Text 1 INNOVATION

The term innovation derives from the Latin word innovatus (to renew or change). Although the term is broadly used, innovation generally refers to the creation of better or more effective products, processes, technologies, or ideas that are accepted by markets, governments, and society. Innovation differs from invention or renovation1 in that innovation generally signifies a substantial positive change compared to incremental2 changes. Inter-Disciplinary Views. Due to its widespread effect, innovation is an important topic in the study of economics, business, entrepreneurship, design, technology, sociology, and engineering. In society, innovation aids in comfort, convenience, and efficiency in everyday life. For instance, the benchmarks3 in railroad equipment and infrastructure added to greater safety, maintenance, speed, and weight capacity

for passenger services. These innovations included changing from wood to steel

cars, from iron to steel rails, stove-heated to steam-heated cars, gas lighting to electric lighting, diesel-powered to electric-diesel locomotives. By mid-20th century, trains were making longer, more comfortable, and faster trips at lower costs for passengers. Other areas that add to everyday quality of life include: the innovations to the light bulb from incandescent to compact fluorescent and LEDs4 which offer longer-lasting, less energy-intensive, brighter technology; adoption of modems to cellular phones, paving the way to smart phones which meets anyone's internet needs at any time or place; cathode-ray tube5 to flatscreen LCD televisions6 and others. Business and Economics. In business and economics, innovation is the catalyst to growth. With rapid advancements in transportation and communications over the past few decades, the old world concepts of factor endowments and comparative advantage7 which focused on an area's unique inputs8 are outmoded for today's global economy. Now, as Harvard economist Michael Porter points out competitive advantage, or the productive use of any inputs, which requires continual innovation, is paramount for any specialized firm to succeed. Economist Joseph Schumpeter, who contributed greatly to the study of innovation, argued that industries must incessantly revolutionize the economic structure from within, that is innovate with better or more effective processes and products, such as the shift from the craft shop to factory. In addition, entrepreneurs continuously look for better ways to satisfy their consumer base with improved quality, durability, service, and price which come to fruition in innovation with advanced technologies and organizational strategies. One prime example is the explosive boom of Silicon startups9 out of the Stanford Industrial Park. In 1957, dissatisfied employees of Shockley Semiconductor, the company of Nobel laureate and co-inventor of the transistor William Shockley, left to form an independent firm, Fairchild Semiconductor. After several years, Fairchild developed into a formidable presence in the sector. Eventually, these founders left to start their own companies based on their own, unique, latest ideas, and then leading employees started their own firms. Over the

next 20 years, this snowball process launched the momentous startup8 company explosion of information technology firms. Essentially, Silicon Valley began as 65 new enterprises born out of Shockley's eight former employees. • Organizations. In the organizational context, innovation may be linked to positive changes in efficiency, productivity, quality, competitiveness, market share, and others. All organizations can innovate, including for example hospitals, universities, and local governments. For instance, former Mayor Martin O'Malley pushed the City of Baltimore to use CitiStat, a performancemeasurement 10 data and management system that allows city officials to maintain statistics on crime trends to condition of potholes. This system aids in better evaluation of policies and procedures with accountability and efficiency in terms of time and money. In its first year, CitiStat saved the city \$13.2 million. Even mass transit11 systems have innovated with hybrid bus fleets to real-time tracking at bus stands. In addition, the growing use of mobile data terminals 12 in vehicles that serves as communication hubs between vehicles and control center automatically send data on location, passenger counts, engine performance, mileage and other information. This tool helps to deliver and manage transportation systems. • Sources of Innovation. There are several sources of innovation. General sources of innovations are different changes in industry structure, in market structure, in local and global demographics, in human perception, mood and meaning, in the amount of already available scientific knowledge, etc. These also include internet research, developing of people skills, language development, cultural background, Skype, Facebook, etc. In the simplest linear model of innovation the traditionally recognized source is manufacturer innovation. This is where an agent (person or business) innovates in order to sell the innovation. Another source of innovation, only now becoming widely recognized, is end-user innovation. This is where an agent (person or company) develops an innovation for their own (personal or inhouse) use because existing products do not meet their needs. End-user13 innovation is, by far, the most important and critical source of innovation. In

addition, the famous robotics engineer Joseph F. Engelberger asserts that

innovations require only three things: 1) a recognized need; 2) competent people with relevant technology; and 3) financial support. Innovation by businesses is achieved in many ways, with much attention now given to formal research and development (R&D)14 for "breakthrough innovations." R&D help spur on patents and other scientific innovations that leads to productive growth in such areas as industry, medicine, engineering, and government. Yet, innovations can be developed by less formal on-the-job modifications of practice, through exchange and combination of professional experience and by many other routes. The more radical and revolutionary innovations tend to emerge from R&D, while more incremental innovations may emerge from practice – but there are many exceptions to each of these trends. An important innovation factor includes customers buying products or using services. As a result, firms may incorporate users in focus groups (user centred approach), work closely with so called lead users (lead user approach) or users might

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adapt their products themselves. Regarding this user innovation, a great deal of innovation is done by those actually implementing and using technologies and products as part of their normal activities. In most of the times user innovators have some personal record motivating them. Sometimes user-innovators may become entrepreneurs, selling their product, they may choose to trade their innovation in exchange for other innovations, or they may be adopted by their suppliers. Nowadays, they may also choose to freely reveal their innovations, using methods like open source. In such networks of innovation the users or communities of users can further develop technologies and reinvent their social meaning.

Notes: 1. Renovation – 1) восстановление, реконструкция; 2) обновление, освежение. 2. Incremental – поэтапный (напр. о внедрении технических средств). 3. Benchmark – эталон, стандарт. 4. LED – (light-emitting diode) светодиод, СИД. 5. Cathode-ray tube -электронно-лучевая трубка, ЭЛТ. 6. Flat-screen LCD television – ЖК-телевидение. 7. Comparative advantage –

сравнительное преимущество/отличие. 8. Inputs — вложения, затраты, инвестиции. 9. Start(-)up — "стартап" (недавно созданная фирма, обычно интернет — компания). 10. Performance-measurement — измерение производительности. 11. Mass transit — общественный транспорт. 12. Data terminal — терминал данных. 13. End-user — конечный пользователь. 14. Research and development (R&D) — научно-исследовательские и опытно-конструкторские работы; НИР и ОКР.

Text 2 VALUE OF EXPERIMENTATION

When an innovative idea requires a better business model a real world experimentation approach increases the chances of market success. Potentially innovative business models and customer experiences can't be tested through traditional market research methods. Recent years have seen considerable progress in identifying important key factors/principles that affect the probability of success in innovation. Of course, building successful businesses is such a complicated process, involving subtle interdependencies among so many variables in dynamic systems, that it is unlikely to be made perfectly predictable. But the more business can master the variables and experiment, the more they will be able to create new companies, products, processes and services that achieve what they hope to achieve. Goals. Programs of organizational innovation are typically tightly linked to organizational goals, to the business plan, and to market competitive positioning.

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Companies cannot grow through cost reduction and reengineering alone...

Innovation is the key element in providing aggressive top-line growth1, and for increasing bottom-line results2. One survey across a large number of manufacturing and services organizations found, ranked in decreasing order of popularity, that systematic programs of organizational innovation are most frequently driven by: improved quality, creation of new markets, extension of the product, range, reduced labor costs, improved production processes,

reduced materials, reduced environmental damage, replacement of products/services, reduced energy consumption. These goals vary between improvements to products, processes and services and dispel a popular myth that innovation deals mainly with new product development. Most of the goals could apply to any organization be it a manufacturing facility, marketing firm,

hospital or local government. Whether innovation goals are successfully achieved depends greatly on the environment prevailing in the firm. Innovative companies will typically be working on new innovations that will eventually replace older ones. There are two fundamentally different types of measures for innovation: the organizational level and the political level. Organizational Level.

The measure of innovation at the organizational level relates to individuals, team-level assessments, and private companies from the smallest to the largest.

Measure of innovation for organizations can be conducted by surveys, workshops, consultants or internal benchmarking3. There is no established general way to measure organizational innovation. Corporate measurements are generally structured around balanced scorecards4 which cover several aspects of innovation such as business measures related to finances, innovation process efficiency, employees' contribution and motivation, as well as benefits for customers. Measured values will vary widely between businesses, covering for example new product revenue, spending in R&D, time to market, customer and employee perception & satisfaction, number of patents, additional sales resulting from past innovations. Political Level. For the political level, measures of innovation are more focused on a country or region competitive advantage5 through innovation. In this context, organizational capabilities can be evaluated through various evaluation frameworks, such as those of the European

Foundation for Quality Management. The OECD6 Oslo Manual (1995) suggests standard guidelines on measuring technological product and process innovation. The new Oslo manual from 2005 takes a wider perspective to innovation, and includes marketing and organizational innovation. These standards are used for example in the European Community Innovation Surveys. Other ways of measuring innovation have traditionally been

expenditure, for example, investment in R&D (Research and Development) as percentage of GNP (Gross National Product). Whether this is a good measurement of innovation has been widely discussed and the Oslo Manual has incorporated some of the critique against earlier methods of measuring. The traditional methods of measuring still inform many policy decisions. The EU Lisbon Strategy has set as a goal that their average expenditure on R&D should be 3% of GNP.

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Notes: 1. Top-line growth — наивысший прирост. 2. Bottom-line results — окончательный результат. 3. Benchmarking — бенчмаркинг, сравнение эффективности. 4. Balanced scorecard — сбалансированная карта показателей деятельности, система взаимосвязанных показателей (метод оценки уровня управления, основанный на использовании большого количества критериев). 5. Competitive advantage — конкурентное преимущество. 6. OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development) — Организация экономического сотрудничества и развития, ОЭСР.

Text 3 DUTIES & RESPONSIBILITIES OF A SAFETY ENGINEER

Safety engineers, also known as safety managers, work for companies where job safety is critical, such as manufacturing plants, mining operations and virtually anywhere heavy equipment and machinery is used. They are largely responsible for the safety record of a company, so they must be ever-vigilant to detect signs of potential accidents. To perform their professional functions, safety engineering professionals must have education, training and experience in a common body of knowledge. They need to have a fundamental knowledge of physics, chemistry, biology, physiology, statistics, mathematics, computer science, engineering mechanics, industrial processes, business, communication

and psychology. Professional safety studies include industrial hygiene and toxicology, design of engineering hazard controls, fire protection, ergonomics, system and process safety, safety and health program management, accident investigation and analysis, product safety, construction safety, education and training methods, measurement of safety performance, human behavior, environmental safety and health, and safety, health and environmental laws, regulations and standards. Many safety engineers have backgrounds or advanced study in other disciplines, such as management and business administration, engineering, education, physical and social sciences and other fields. Others have advanced study in safety. This extends their expertise beyond the basics of the safety engineering profession. Develop Safety Programs. Safety engineers develop programs and processes for safety in the workplace. Once the program is developed, they may also be charged with putting the new process in writing in the form of a manual. They present the new program to management to ensure they have a thorough understanding so that they can implement the program in their specific work areas. They may be involved with planning and conducting training classes and seminars for workers. Eliminate Unsafe Practices and Equipment. Safety engineers evaluate existing work procedures to uncover areas where safety may be at risk. They analyze accident reports to determine if the cause was due to faulty equipment

or a poor

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procedure, and recommend any necessary corrections. Safety engineers regularly inspect tools and equipment to check for possible defects. They may also observe workers to ensure that they are operating machines and equipment in a safe manner. Ensure Compliance. Safety in the workplace is regulated at the federal government level by the Occupational Safety and Health Association (OSHA). Safety engineers are typically required to obtain OSHA certification, which requires 10 hours of online and on-site training. They must ensure that the company is in compliance with all OSHA regulations, and they work closely with an OSHA investigation of accidents involving injury in their workplace.

Working Conditions. Safety engineers spend much of their time reviewing and inspecting on-site safety conditions and investigating accidents. They also have an office in which they analyze data and write reports. They may have to do some traveling to worksites, conferences, and seminars. Safety engineers generally work forty hours per week. In many cases, longer hours are necessary. Manufacturing plants may require some shift work. Sometimes safety engineers have to answer unexpected emergency calls. There may be some danger involved in their work, but safety precautions minimize this danger. Safety engineers often meet with clients, workers, and managers. They must be able to convince these people of the need for safety measures. In addition to knowledge of the engineering problems involved in keeping work areas and other public places free from hazards, safety engineers need to have a good knowledge of management methods, safety laws, and industrial psychology. They should be good at solving problems. Functions of a Safety Engineer. The major areas relating to the protection of people, property and the environment are: Anticipate, identify and evaluate hazardous conditions and practices. Develop hazard control designs, methods, procedures and programs. Implement, administer and advise others on hazard control programs. Measure, audit and evaluate the effectiveness of hazard control programs. Draft a future safety plan and statement based on real time experiences and facts.

Text 4 SARETY ENGINEER JOB DESCRIPTION

Definition and Nature of the Work. Safety engineers are responsible for keeping people free from danger, risk, or injury in the workplace. They develop safety programs to minimize losses due to injuries and property damage. They try to eliminate unsafe practices and conditions in industrial plants, mines, and stores as well as on construction sites and throughout transportation systems. Safety engineers work for a wide variety of industrial and commercial companies.

Many work for insurance companies. Others are employed by government agencies or safety

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organizations. Still others teach in colleges and universities or work as independent consultants. Safety engineers work in many different types of industrial and commercial companies to ensure safety in the workplace as well as in the products the companies make. Safety engineers often have other titles, such as director of safety, safety manager, or safety coordinator. Sometimes technicians assist them. The duties of safety engineers vary depending on where they work. Engineers employed in large manufacturing plants often develop broad safety programs. They study the buildings, equipment, procedures, and records of accidents in their plant and point out safety hazards. They may suggest ways to fix unsafe structures or recommend changes in the layout of the plant. Sometimes they draw up plans for the regular maintenance of machinery or teach safe work habits to managers and workers. Other safety engineers work with designers to make sure that their company's products are safe. They may be responsible for seeing that a new automobile model meets safety standards. Or they may check the design and production of children's toys. Safety engineers who work for insurance companies usually provide consulting services to their clients. They are experts who can spot hazards and recommend ways to eliminate them. For example, they may review plans for a shopping center that is to be insured by their company and point out dangerous traffic patterns. Once the center is built, they inspect it and check that the elevators have been installed properly so that there will not be accidents. They also study maintenance procedures and may recommend that floors be cleaned when customers are not present. The shopping center owners may be able to lower their insurance rates by following the safety engineer's suggestions. In the trucking industry1, safety engineers review patterns of traffic accidents. They study routes, schedules, loads, and speeds to determine how these factors affect accidents. They also inspect trucks for safety hazards. Safety engineers in the mining industry must check to see that underground or open-pit mines meet the requirements set by state and federal laws. They also design equipment, such as lamps that are used underground. During mining emergencies they may be in charge of rescue teams. Education and Training Requirements for Safety Engineers. You generally need a bachelor's degree in science or engineering to become a safety engineer. It usually takes a minimum of four years to get this formal training. Some employers prefer to hire graduates with special degrees in safety management or occupational safety and health. Others look for people who have a master's degree or some work experience in a related field. In some cases graduates of two-year college programs can become safety engineers after some years of experience as technicians in this field. Undergraduate courses should include behavioral, medical, and social sciences. A list of colleges offering degrees in occupational safety and health is available from the American Society of Safety Engineers. Many companies provide additional training for their employees. Safety engineers continue to study new developments in their field throughout their careers.

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In some cases engineers need to be licensed by the state in which they work. They generally need a degree from an approved engineering college, about four years of work experience as an engineer, and a passing grade on a state examination before being licensed as professional engineers. Advancement Possibilities and Employment Outlook. Advancement depends on education, experience, and the industry. In large manufacturing companies, for example, safety engineers can become managers in charge of safety for a large department, an entire plant, or a group of plants. In an insurance company, safety engineers can advance to department head, branch manager, and eventually executive. Some start their own consulting firms. Health and safety engineers, except mining safety engineers and inspectors, are projected to experience average employment growth through 2014. Although there is a growing concern for the safety of workers and consumers, there has also been a demand for less government intervention and regulation. Much of the employment growth is expected to be in private industrial firms. This growth

will be due to the continuing self-enforcement of government requirements, the rising costs of insurance, and the insistence of unions. Insurance companies should also employ more safety engineers. The best jobs will go to graduates of college programs that are related to safety.

Note: 1. Trucking industry – грузоперевозки.

Text 5 WORKPLACE SAFETY

Workplace Safety and health laws establish regulations designed to eliminate personal injuries and illnesses from occurring in the workplace. Workplace safety refers to the working environment at a company and encompasses all factors that impact the safety, health, and well-being of its employees; this covers managers, supervisors, partners, stockholders, officers, and family members of the workers. It does not cover independent contractors or family members of a farm operator. Safety violations can include environmental hazards, unsafe working conditions or processes, drug and alcohol abuse, and workplace violence. The leading authority administering workplace safety is the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA). OSHA requires the Secretary of Labor to propagate regulations and safety and health standards to protect employees from having to work in dangerous or hazardous conditions. Every private employer who engages in interstate commerce is subject to OSHA regulations. Standards made by OSHA are published in the Code of Federal Regulations (CFR). The federal guidelines imposed by OSHA are complemented by state regulations, although federal laws and regulations pre-empt state laws where they

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overlap or contradict one another. Under OSHA, states can pass their own workplace health and safety laws and standards, but they must meet OSHA criteria and approval if they regulate an area directly covered by OSHA regulations. Though, they may regulate in areas not governed by federal OSHA

regulations. The amount of state regulation varies greatly. States with their own workplace conditions law are called "state plan states". Penalties for OSHA violations can be civil or criminal and vary depending on the nature of the violation. OSHA must refer cases to the U.S. Justice Department for criminal enforcement. Typically, however, OSHA relies on civil penalties as a deterrent to violators. Construction safety and health. Construction workers build our roads, houses and workplaces and repair and maintain our nation's physical infrastructure. This work includes many hazardous tasks and conditions such as work at height, excavations, noise, dust, power tools and equipment, confined spaces and electricity. Construction workers incurred the most fatal injuries of any industry in the private sector in 2009, but this number declined in both 2009 (by 16%) and 2008 (by 19%). With this decrease, private sector construction fatalities are down by more than a third overall since peaking in 2006. Economic conditions may explain much of this decline – the total hours worked in construction also went down 17 per cent in 2009 and 10 per cent the year before. These decreases were more pronounced in some construction subgroups. Fatal injuries involving workers in the construction of buildings, for example, were down more than a quarter (27%) from 2008, with most of the decrease occurring in nonresidential building construction (down 44%). Fatalities in heavy and civil engineering construction were down 12 per cent, and the subsector with the largest number of fatal work injuries – specialty trade contractors - had 16 per cent fewer fatalities in 2009 than in 2008. Young workers safety and health. In 2010, there were approximately 17.5 million workers less than 24 years of age, and these workers represented 13% of the workforce. Young workers have high occupational injury rates which are in part explained by a high frequency of injury hazards in workplaces where they typically work (e.g. hazards in restaurant settings associated with slippery floors and use of knives and cooking equipment). Inexperience and lack of safety training may also increase injury risks for young workers. And, for the youngest workers, those in middle and high schools, there may be biologic and psychosocial contributors to increased injury rates, such as inadequate fit,

strength, and cognitive abilities to operate farm equipment such as tractors. In 2009, 359 workers less than 24 years of age died from work-related injuries, including 27 deaths of youth less than 18 years of age. For the 10 year period 1998 to 2007, there were an annual average of 795,000 nonfatal injuries to young workers treated in U.S. hospital injury departments. The rate for emergency department-treated occupational injuries of young workers was approximately two times higher than among workers 25 years and older. The U.S. Public Health Service has a Healthy People objective to reduce rates of occupational injuries treated in emergency departments among working adolescents 15-19 years of

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age by 10% by 2020, from the 2007 rate of 4.9 injuries per 100 fulltime equivalent workers. Hazards to outdoor workers. Outdoor workers are exposed to many types of hazards that depend on their type of work, geographic region, season, and duration of time they are outside. Industry sectors with outdoor workers include the agriculture, forestry, fishing, construction, mining, transportation, warehousing, utilities, and service sectors. Outdoor workers include farmers, foresters, landscapers, groundskeepers, gardeners, painters, roofers, pavers, construction workers, laborers, mechanics, and any other worker who spends time outside. Employers should train outdoor workers about their workplace hazards, including hazard identification and recommendations for preventing and controlling their exposures.

Text 6 GIS

GIS is an information technology which stores, analyses and display both spatial and non-spatial data. GIS Objectives: 1. To maximize efficiency of decision making and planning 2. To provide efficient means for data distribution and handling 3. To eliminate redundant database – minimize duplication 4. To integrate information from many sources. 5. To generate new information via

complex analysis/queries involving geographical reference data. 6. To update data quickly and cheaply.

For any application there are five generic questions a GIS can answer:

Location: What exists at a particular location? This question seeks to find out for the answer like, location of a particular object or area in terms of latitude/longitude or X/Y. Condition: Identify where certain condition exists.

This tends to answer for all those questions where certain conditions are satisfied. Trends: What has changed since? This question is applied to find a noticeable difference or change incurred within a particular time period.

Pattern: What spatial pattern exists? This is the most logical question answered by GIS, that is distribution of spatial features and reasons behind that distribution. Modeling: What if... GIS consists of five key components: 1.

Computer Hardware Module: It is generally a computer or central processing unit. It is linked to a disk drive storage unit, which provides space for storing data and programs. A digitizer, scanner and other device is used to convert data from maps and documents into digital form and send them to computer.

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2. Computer Software Module: The GIS software includes the programs and the user interface for driving the hardware. GIS software generates, stores, analyzes, manipulates and presents geographic information or data. It is essential for driving the hardware. 3. Data: Geographic data and related tabular data can be collected in house, compiled to custom specifications and requirements, or purchased from a commercial data provider. 4. People: People are the core to GIS. Both technical specialists who develop and manage the system as well as end users who employ the technology are critical to the success of GIS. 5. Methods: A neatly conceived implementation plan and business rules are the models and operating practices are unique to each organization. The process of representing an analogue signal or an image by a discrete set of its points is known as digitizing. This data after conversion is in the binary format, which is directly readable by computer. The data to be converted can be a text,

an image, audio or a video. The analogue signals are variable whereas the digital format is the discrete one. These discrete units are known as bits. These bits organized in groups are known as byte. The digital signals are mainly represented in the form of sequence of integers. These integers can be converted back to analogue signal that are approximately similar to the original analogue signals.

Text 7 GIS FOR LAND ADMINISTRATION

Today, government invests heavily in geospatial data and technology because nearly everything in the public realm happens in the context of geography. Governments of all sizes use GIS to analyze complex situations and create solutions across disciplines. GIS helps them increase efficiency, reduce costs, improve coordination, and deliver transparency and accountability. From the decennial census1 and stimulus reporting to fleet routing2 and pot-hole3 repairs, GIS is key to enhancing government services, democratic processes, and the health of the nation. Land Registration. Land cadastres were originally registers of property and property rights used by the ruling authority to levy taxes, dating back to Roman and Greek governance. In the 16th century, some rulers ordered extensive surveys to establish legal boundaries to accompany the tax rolls4. Today, the buying and selling of property involves a transaction on the land records cadastre. This transaction is important to public and private interests such as land registry agencies, banks, and title insurance companies. As the foundation of a free market economy with leveraged5 capital, many countries are adopting land privatization for taxation to fund government services and economic development. GIS, with integrated surveying and database management, along with map production and modeling support, is considered the essential information technology for land records solutions.

Cadastre Workflow. Creating and maintaining an effective land administration system is a multifaceted process often managed by many disparate agencies and organizations. Duplicated efforts and data quality problems are common. Although separate GIS applications have been used to manage individual aspects of land records in the past, the full potential of GIS can best be realized when applied across the entire cadastre workflow. Enterprise GIS, with a geodatabase, data models, and an array of applications, provides the framework for an integrated workflow6 for creating and updating a cadastre that can be easily shared both within and between organizations. National Mapping and Cadastral Agencies (NMCAs), using ESRI's 7 GIS, can streamline workflows and enforce cadastral procedures in the correct and legal way through efficient job management. This delivers cost efficiencies and ensures that quality is maintained consistently throughout the process. Efficient and Accurate Mapping. Clearly, data automation leads to greater efficiency in many workplace tasks. Automating land records using GIS provides the data management tools for efficient maintenance of land records maps and data. Whether it be a parcel split or a more complex subdivision of a large tract into smaller residential lots with new rights-of-way8, GIS includes the tools, workflow, error checking and version management that make mapping and public records tasks quick and easy. Data accuracy is crucial. GIS tools check for errors during data automation and maintenance as part of the workflow. Advanced GIS technologies provide interfaces and integration of survey data. Because survey-accurate measurements establish the legal definition of a parcel, this capability is essential in the accuracy of land records and assessment data. As new, more accurate, data is collected, GIS has the capability to adjust existing data to conform to new survey measurements while preserving the spatial integrity of the land records geodatabase. Public Access to Data. According to the United States Office of Management and Budget, more than 60 percent of all Internet users interact with government Web sites. E-government will save taxpayers a significant amount of money and add value to their experience with government as their needs are better served. GIS technology

supports Web standards and is often the engine of government portals. ESRI's GIS is used to locate polling places, reserve campgrounds, report on traffic conditions, locate property for lease or sale, report crime statistics, identify planned development, and show the location of emergency events and their impact on the community. The Internet has introduced a whole new way to interact with government. GIS makes that interaction more powerful and presents data in a form that makes viewing and understanding easy. National Cadastre Systems. National cadastre systems require many levels of technology that have the capacity to manage millions of land parcels and real estate objects.

ESRI's integrated collection of GIS products is well suited for these requirements. In addition, national cadastre systems are often decentralized and

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operate as an enterprise of multiple computers in many locations, requiring more than desktop applications. The ESRI geodatabase template for land records supports the industry's efforts to standardize the way land records are defined and stored in data management systems for multiple users. ESRI's ArcGIS for Server technology supports public access to land records and title registry via the Web. Computer-Assisted Mass Appraisal. Integrating GIS and computer-assisted mass appraisal (CAMA) enables the tax assessment function to be concurrent with spatial data that is relevant to the tax valuation model. It also supports the creation and maintenance of a more accurate land records basemap using the tools and functions of GIS and provides a single repository of parcel geometry and descriptive data supporting workflow, updates, and mass appraisal input. GIS adds value to CAMA systems, such as an appraisal model, which can place added value on property that has, for example, frontage on a golf course or lake. If the parcel data and land-use data are maintained in a geodatabase, the frontage calculation is simple and easy using the spatial intelligence of the GIS. Parcel Management. The ArcGIS Land Parcel Data Model helps users manage land parcels using core ArcGIS capabilities. Using an open and flexible object-based data model, the land parcel data model

accommodates a wide range of applications and parcel definitions. Thematic layers in the land parcel data model, such as parcel framework, ownership and taxation, and administrative areas, are mapped to the geodatabase structure. Several layers can combine to form a set of feature classes in a feature dataset. The ArcGIS Land Parcel Data Model also implements topology as a flexible set of integrity rules that define the behavior of spatially related geographic features and feature classes. Users can model spatial relationships, such as adjacency, and manage the integrity of coincident geometry between feature classes such as coincident parcel boundaries and subdivision boundaries GIS for Surveying. As a surveyor, you depend on a variety of software and technology in your daily workflows. GIS technology integrates with other systems while providing new functionality and a central database. A GIS database gives you a better way to easily manage, reuse, share, and analyze your survey data, saving you time, money, and resources. Because GIS software solutions are interoperable with the many data formats used in the field and office, you can deliver your data in the format required by your clients while maintaining the data's core integrity. GIS for Urban and Regional Planning. No matter how large or small your community is, planners must deal with spatial information: parcel, zoning and land use data, addresses, transportation networks, and housing stock. As a planner, you also study and keep track of multiple urban

housing stock. As a planner, you also study and keep track of multiple urban and regional indicators, forecast future community needs, and plan accordingly to guarantee the quality of life for everyone in livable communities. Federal, regional, state, county, and local planning agencies have realized the power of enterprise GIS to identify problems, respond to them efficiently, and share

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the results with the public. ESRI GIS solutions provide tools to help you reach your agency mission while doing more and spending less.

Notes: 1. Decennial census – перепись, проводимая с десятилетними интервалами (т. е. через каждые десять лет). 2. Fleet routing – транспортный маршрут. 3. Pot-hole – выбоина на дороге; яма на дороге. 4.

Тах rolls — налоговые ведомости. 5. Leveraged — с использованием кредита (заемных средств), с кредитом заемными средствами. 6. Workflow — ход работ; ход производства; последовательность операций. 7. ESRI (Environmental Systems Research Institute) — американская компания, производитель геоинформационных систем (ГИС). 8. Right of way — право прохода или проезда через чужую землю.

Text 8 ESRI

History. ESRI1 president Jack Dangermond was one of several GIS pioneers who studied at the Harvard Laboratory for Computer Graphics and Spatial Analysis. While others went on to successful careers in academia2 and consulting, Jack and his wife, Laura, founded Environmental Systems Research Institute, Inc. (ESRI), in Redlands, California. ESRI's early mission was to organize and analyze geographic information to support land planners and land resource managers in making well-informed environmental decisions. These projects consisted of site or regional land studies resulting in maps that geographically delineated constraints and opportunities for development. ESRI staff applied the principles of integrated landscape analysis developed and implemented in the 1960s by Ian McHarg using manual mapping and map overlay techniques3. The more projects we completed, the more we learned how using geography as a framework for data integration provided a new dimension in the way people approached problems. GIS allowed them to visualize the problems, which helped provide quicker and better solutions. We became convinced that GIS could truly make a difference in the world. ESRI also began developing relationships with like-minded companies in Germany, Japan, Australia, and Canada. These companies formed the foundation of what is today a large, international network of distributors providing GIS software, support, and services.

The transition from project to product. It became clear that to fully leverage4 the methods and technologies used for project work, ESRI needed to introduce software products that would automate the manual mapping processes. ESRI developers began formulating the concepts that ultimately led to the release (in 1982) of ARC/INFO, the first commercial GIS. It combined computer display of geographic features, such as points, lines, and polygons, with a database management system for assigning attributes to these features. The ARC/INFO system was the culmination of several factors, all of which converged in the late 1970s and early 1980s. The basic principles behind rational land management using geographic information had become accepted by the larger professional community and validated by the implementation of several successful projects. Finally, research in core GIS software design and theory had reached a level of maturity that made commercial applications possible. Much of this research was done at the Harvard graphics laboratory in the late 1970s as part of the Odyssey software project. The project pioneered GIS software development in data structures and algorithms, command line user interfaces5, and modular software6 engineering techniques. With software products came software users and the beginning of a community. The first ESRI International User Conference was held in 1981 with 16 attendees. It has grown substantially over the years, today attracting more than 14,000 attendees. Mainstream. As computer hardware technology shifted to UNIX workstations and PCs during the 1980s, ESRI's GIS software tools changed accordingly. This shift allowed ARC/INFO users to change hardware platforms7 and take advantage of the capabilities of distributed processing8 and data management. It also led to the opportunity to form relationships with organizations that wished to build applications on top of Esri software or support the software in niche industries. Today, the ESRI Partner Network consists of over 2,000 companies. In the 1990s, Esri experienced a period of rapid growth spurred by faster and cheaper computers, network processing, electronic data publishing, and new data capture techniques such as remote sensing and GPS. ESRI's first desktop solution, ArcView, had a major impact on the industry by opening up the

possibilities of GIS to more users. In addition, ESRI's growing business partner and developer programs allowed further expansion and the advent of customized solutions9. While most organizations choose to implement the software on their own, ESRI continues to offer project-, implementation-, and industry-focused services. GIS and the enterprise. In the late 1990s, ESRI reengineered ARC/INFO to develop a modular and scalable10 GIS platform that would work both on the desktop and across the enterprise. The result was ArcGIS. Next, ESRI released ArcGIS Server, the corresponding data management component for ESRI's ArcGIS software family. It allows GIS capabilities to be delivered to large numbers of users over existing networks. Analysts can author maps, globes, and geoprocessing tasks on their desktops and publish them online using integrated tools. GIS functions can be delivered as services throughout the enterprise. Users can connect to central servers using traditional desktop GIS as well as Web

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browsers, mobile computing devices, and digital appliances. This server technology provides broad support for interoperability standards and allows integration with other enterprise software. ESRI has also actively participated in the development of GIS standards. Each stage in ESRI's evolution has involved major technology changes. Today it's the Web and Web GIS. The power of the Web promises to support more GIS collaboration11. Applications already possible include sharing commercial services, mashups12, and data replication 13 services. The Web is also making GIS more distributed, multiparticipant, and open. This means that more and more people are engaged in activities such as creating and interacting with maps online, so ESRI has steadily integrated the online experience into ArcGIS technology. Software such as ArcGIS Desktop and ArcGIS Explorer provide instant access to a host of online services, including maps and tools. ESRI is also taking advantage of cloud computing 14 opportunities to help make GIS available to anyone, anywhere. ArcGIS.com is ESRI's newest online experience that brings content, tools, and the growing GIS community together in one Web portal.

Notes: 1. ESRI (Environmental Systems Research Institute) – американская компания, производитель геоинформационных систем (ГИС). 2. Academia – научное сообщество. 3. Overlay techniques – метод наложения (различных данных на одно и то же место в памяти), оверлейный метод. 4. Leverage – использовать с выгодой. 5. Command line interface – интерфейс типа командной строки. 6. Modular software – модульное программное обеспечение. 7. Hardware platform – аппаратная платформа (совокупность компьютеров с полностью совместимым программным обеспечением). 8. Distributed processing – распределённая обработка, компьютерная система, в которой обработка выполняется несколькими компьютерами, подсоединёнными к локальной или телекоммуникационной сети. 9. Customized solution – заказное ПО, программное обеспечение, разработанное по конкретным требованиям отдельного клиента. 10. Scalable – 1) с изменением масштаба, масштабируемый; 2) расширяемый (о модульной системе). 11. Collaboration – координация совместной деятельности. 12. Mashup – мэшап (интернет-приложение, объединяющее данные из нескольких интерактивных источников). 13. Data replication – тиражирование данных. 14. Cloud computing – "облачные" вычисления (метод взаимодействия клиента и сервера, при котором клиентская информация обрабатывается и хранится на удалённом сервере; позволяет уменьшить требования к аппаратному и программному обеспечению компьютера клиента).

19 Text 9 INFORMATION SECURITY

Information Security Components: or qualities, i.e., Confidentiality, Integrity1 and Availability (CIA). Information Systems are decomposed in three main portions, hardware, software and communications with the purpose to identify and apply information security industry standards, as mechanisms of protection

and prevention, at three levels or layers: physical, personal and organizational. Essentially, procedures or policies are implemented to tell people (administrators, users and operators) how to use products to ensure information security within the organizations. Information security means protecting information and information systems from unauthorized access, use, disclosure, disruption, modification, perusal, inspection, recording or destruction. The terms information security, computer security and information assurance2 are frequently incorrectly used interchangeably. These fields are interrelated often and share the common goals of protecting the confidentiality, integrity and availability of information; however, there are some subtle differences between them. These differences lie primarily in the approach to the subject, the methodologies used, and the areas of concentration. Information security is concerned with the confidentiality, integrity and availability of data regardless of the form the data may take: electronic, print, or other forms. Computer security can focus on ensuring the availability and correct operation of a computer system without concern for the information stored or processed by the computer. Governments, military, corporations, financial institutions, hospitals, and private businesses amass a great deal of confidential information about their employees, customers, products, research, and financial status. Most of this information is now collected, processed and stored on electronic computers and transmitted across networks to other computers. Should confidential information about a business' customers or finances or new product line fall into the hands of a competitor, such a breach of security could lead to lost business, law suits or even bankruptcy of the business. Protecting confidential information is a business requirement, and in many cases also an ethical and legal requirement. For the individual, information security has a significant effect on privacy3, which is viewed very differently in different cultures. The field of information security has grown and evolved significantly in recent years. There are many ways of gaining entry into the field as a career. It offers many areas for specialization including: securing network(s) and allied infrastructure, securing applications and databases, security testing,

information systems auditing, business continuity planning and digital forensics science4, etc. History. Since the early days of writing, heads of state and military commanders understood that it was necessary to provide some mechanism to protect the

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confidentiality of written correspondence and to have some means of detecting tampering5. Julius Caesar is credited with the invention of the Caesar cipher ca. 50 B.C., which was created in order to prevent his secret messages from being read should a message fall into the wrong hands. World War II brought about many advancements in information security and marked the beginning of the professional field of information security. The end of the 20th century and early years of the 21st century saw rapid advancements in telecommunications, computing hardware and software, and data encryption6. The availability of smaller, more powerful and less expensive computing equipment made electronic data processing within the reach of small business and the home user. These computers quickly became interconnected through a network generically called the Internet or World Wide Web. The rapid growth and widespread use of electronic data processing and electronic business conducted through the Internet, along with numerous occurrences of international terrorism, fueled the need for better methods of protecting the computers and the information they store, process and transmit. The academic disciplines of computer security, information security and information assurance emerged along with numerous professional organizations – all sharing the common goals of ensuring the security and reliability of information systems.

Notes: 1. Integrity – целостность, сохранность. 2. Information assurance – обеспечение; гарантирование информации. 3. Privacy – секретность, конфиденциальность. 4. Forensic science – судебная экспертиза. 5. (Computer) tampering – преступное использование компьютера. 6. Encryption – шифрование, зашифровывание, процесс применения шифра к защищаемой информации.

Text 10 BASIC PRINCIPLES OF INFORMATION SECURITY

Key concepts. For over twenty years, information security has held confidentiality, integrity and availability (known as the CIA triad) to be the core principles of information security. There is continuous debate about extending this classic trio. Other principles such as Accountability have sometimes been proposed for addition. It has been pointed out that issues such as Non-Repudiation1 do not fit well within the three core concepts, and as regulation of computer systems has increased (particularly amongst the Western nations)

Legality is becoming a key consideration for practical security installations in 1992. In 2002 the OECD's2 Guidelines for the Security of Information Systems and Networks proposed the nine generally accepted principles: Awareness, Responsibility, Response, Ethics,

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Democracy, Risk Assessment, Security Design and Implementation, Security

Management, and Reassessment. Based upon those, in 2004 the NIST's3
Engineering Principles for Information Technology Security proposed 33
principles. From each of these derived guidelines and practices in 2002, Donn
Parker proposed an alternative model for the classic CIA4 triad that he called
the six atomic elements of information. The elements are confidentiality,
possession, integrity, authenticity, availability, and utility. Confidentiality.
Confidentiality is the term used to prevent the disclosure of information to
unauthorized individuals or systems. For example, a credit card transaction on
the Internet requires the credit card number to be transmitted from the buyer
to the merchant and from the merchant to a transaction processing network.
The system attempts to enforce confidentiality by encrypting the card number
during transmission, by limiting the places where it might appear (in databases,
log files5, backups6, printed receipts, and so on), and by restricting access to the
places where it is stored. If an unauthorized party obtains the card number in

any way, a breach of confidentiality has occurred. Breaches of confidentiality take many forms. Permitting someone to look over your shoulder at your computer screen while you have confidential data displayed on it could be a breach of confidentiality. If a laptop computer containing sensitive information about a company's employees is stolen or sold, it could result in a breach of confidentiality7. Giving out confidential information over the telephone is a breach of confidentiality if the caller is not authorized to have the information. Confidentiality is necessary (but not sufficient) for maintaining the privacy of the people whose personal information a system holds. Integrity. In information security, integrity means that data cannot be modified undetectably. This is not the same thing as referential integrity8 in databases, although it can be viewed as a special case of Consistency as understood in the classic ACID model of transaction processing. Integrity is violated when a message is actively modified in transit. Information security systems typically provide message integrity in addition to data confidentiality. Availability. For any information system to serve its purpose, the information must be available when it is needed. This means that the computing systems used to store and process the information, the security controls used to protect it, and the communication channels used to access it must be functioning correctly. High availability systems aim to remain available at all times, preventing service disruptions due to power outages, hardware failures, and system upgrades. Ensuring availability also involves preventing denial-of-service attacks9. Authenticity10. In computing, e-business and information security it is necessary to ensure that the data, transactions, communications or documents (electronic or physical) are genuine. It is also important for authenticity to validate that both parties involved are who they claim they are.

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Non-repudiation. In law, non-repudiation implies one's intention to fulfill their obligations to a contract. It also implies that one party of a transaction cannot deny having received a transaction nor can the other party deny having sent a

transaction. Electronic commerce uses technology such as digital signatures and public key encryption11 to establish authenticity and non-repudiation.

Notes: 1. Non-repudiation — с невозможностью отказа от авторства когда невозможно заявить, что вы не посылали какое-либо сообщение. Например, если в нём присутствует ваша цифровая подпись. 2. ОЕСО — Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (Opганизация экономического сотрудничества и развития, ОЭСР). 3. NIST — National Institute of Standards and Technology (Национальный институт стандартов и технологий США). 4. СІА — Central Intelligence Agency (Центральное разведывательное управление, ЦРУ (США). 5. Log file — регистрационный файл. 6. Васкир — резервная копия (программ, данных). 7. Breach of confidentiality — разглашение секретной информации public key encryption — шифрование с открытым ключом. 8. Referential integrity — целостность ссылочных данных, ссылочная целостность. 9. Denial of service attack — атака (системы) с целью нарушения нормального обслуживания пользователей. 10. Authenticity — подлинность, достоверность, аутентичность.

Text 11 RISK MANAGEMENT

Risk management is the process of identifying vulnerabilities1 and threats to the information resources used by an organization in achieving business objectives, and deciding what countermeasures, if any, to take in reducing risk to an acceptable level, based on the value of the information resource to the organization. There are two things in this definition that may need some clarification. First, the process of risk management is an ongoing iterative2 process. It must be repeated indefinitely. The business environment is constantly changing and new threats and vulnerability emerge every day. Second, the choice of countermeasures (controls) used to manage risks must

strike a balance between productivity, cost, effectiveness of the countermeasure, and the value of the informational asset being protected. Risk is the likelihood that something bad will happen that causes harm to an informational asset (or the loss of the asset). A vulnerability is a weakness that could be used to endanger or cause harm to an informational asset. A threat is anything (manmade or act of nature) that has the potential to cause harm.

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The likelihood that a threat will use a vulnerability to cause harm creates a risk. When a threat does use a vulnerability to inflict harm, it has an impact. In the context of information security, the impact is a loss of availability, integrity, and confidentiality, and possibly other losses (lost income, loss of life, loss of real property). It should be pointed out that it is not possible to identify all risks, nor is it possible to eliminate all risk. The remaining risk is called residual risk. A risk assessment3 is carried out by a team of people who have knowledge of specific areas of the business. Membership of the team may vary over time as different parts of the business are assessed. The assessment may use a subjective qualitative analysis based on informed opinion, or where reliable dollar figures and historical information is available, the analysis may use quantitative analysis. The research has shown that the most vulnerable point in most information systems is the human user, operator, designer. The practice of information security management recommends the following to be examined during a risk assessment: security policy; organization of information security; asset management4; human resources security; physical and environmental security; communications and operations management; access control; information systems acquisition, development and maintenance; information security incident management5; business continuity management; regulatory compliance6. In broad terms, the risk management process consists of: 1. Identification of assets and estimating their value. Include: people, buildings, hardware, software, data (electronic, print, other), supplies. 2. Conduct a threat assessment. Include: acts of nature, acts of war, accidents, malicious acts originating from inside or outside the organization. 3. Conduct a vulnerability

assessment, and for each vulnerability, calculate the probability that it will be exploited. Evaluate policies, procedures, standards, training, physical security, quality control, technical security. 4. Calculate the impact that each threat would have on each asset. Use qualitative analysis or quantitative analysis. 5. Identify, select and implement appropriate controls. Provide a proportional response. Consider productivity, cost effectiveness, and value of the asset. 6. Evaluate the effectiveness of the control measures. Ensure the controls provide the required cost-effective protection without discernible loss of productivity. For any given risk, Executive Management can choose to accept the risk based upon the relative low value of the asset, the relative low frequency of occurrence, and the relative low impact on the business. Or, leadership may choose to mitigate the risk by selecting and implementing appropriate control measures to reduce the risk. In some cases, the risk can be transferred to another business by buying insurance or

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out-sourcing7 to another business. The reality of some risks may be disputed. In such cases leadership may choose to deny the risk. This is itself a potential risk. When Management chooses to mitigate a risk, they will do so by implementing one or more of three different types of controls. Administrative. Administrative controls (also called procedural controls) consist of approved written policies, procedures, standards and guidelines. Administrative controls form the framework for running the business and managing people. They inform people on how the business is to be run and how day to day operations are to be conducted. Laws and regulations created by government bodies are also a type of administrative control because they inform the business. Some industry sectors have policies, procedures, standards and guidelines that must be followed – the Payment Card Industry (PCI) Data Security Standard required by Visa and Master Card is such an example. Other examples of administrative controls include the corporate security policy, password policy, hiring policies, and disciplinary policies. Administrative controls form the basis for the selection and implementation of logical and physical controls. Logical and

physical controls are manifestations of administrative controls. Administrative controls are of paramount importance. Logical. Logical controls (also called technical controls) use software and data to monitor and control access to information and computing systems. For example: passwords, network and host8 based firewalls9, network intrusion detection systems, access control lists, and data encryption are logical controls. An important logical control that is frequently overlooked is the principle of least privilege. The principle of least privilege requires that an individual, program or system process is not granted any more access privileges than are necessary to perform the task. A blatant example of the failure to adhere to the principle of least privilege is logging into Windows as user Administrator to read e-mail and surf the Web. Violations of this principle can also occur when an individual collects additional access privileges over time. This happens when employees' job duties change, or they are promoted to a new position, or they transfer to another department. The access privileges required by their new duties are frequently added onto their already existing access privileges which may no longer be necessary or appropriate. Physical. Physical controls monitor and control the environment of the work place and computing facilities. They also monitor and control access to and from such facilities. For example: doors, locks, heating and air conditioning, smoke and fire alarms, fire suppression systems, cameras, barricades, fencing, security guards, cable locks, etc. Separating the network and work place into functional areas are also physical controls. An important physical control that is frequently overlooked is the separation of duties. Separation of duties ensures that an individual cannot complete a critical task by himself. For example: an employee who submits a request for reimbursement 10 should not also be able to authorize payment or print the check. An applications programmer should not also be the server administrator or the database administrator – these roles and responsibilities must be separated from one another.

Notes: 1. Vulnerability (security vulnerability) — уязвимость, слабое место, слабое звено в защите данных — свойство системы, позволяющее реализовать соответствующую угрозу. 2. Iterative — итеративный, повторяющийся. 3. Risk assessment — оценка рисков (анализ информационных потребностей системы и определение возможных потерь из-за недостатка информации или её утраты при восстановлении системы). 4. Asset management — управление активами. 5. Incident management — контроль происшествий, одна из подсистем в системах сетевого управления. 6. Regulatory compliance — регулируемая совместимость. 7. Outsourcing — привлечение соисполнителей, аутсорсинг, привлечение, когда это выгодно, к выполнению контрактной работы внешних соисполнителей. 8. Host — главный компьютер. 9. Firewall — межсетевой экран (МЭ), брандмауэр, защитная система, (сетевой) заслон. 10. Reimbursement — возмещение, компенсация.

Text 12 DEFENSE IN-DEPTH1

Information security must protect information throughout the life span of the information, from the initial creation of the information on through to the final disposal of the information. The information must be protected while in motion and while at rest. During its lifetime, information may pass through many different information processing systems and through many different parts of information processing systems. There are many different ways the information and information systems can be threatened. To fully protect the information during its lifetime, each component of the information processing system must have its own protection mechanisms. The building up, layering2 on and overlapping3 of security measures is called defense in depth. The strength of any system is no greater than its weakest link. Using a defence in-depth strategy, should one defensive measure fail, there are other defensive measures in place that continue to provide protection. The three types of the above

mentioned controls (administrative, logical, and physical) can be used to form the basis upon which to build a defense-in-depth strategy. With this approach, defense-in-depth can be conceptualized as three distinct layers or planes laid one on top of the other. Additional insight into defense-in-depth can be gained by thinking of it as forming the layers of an onion, with data at the core of the onion, people the next outer layer of the onion, and network security, hostbased security and application security forming the outermost layers of the onion. Both perspectives are equally valid and each provides valuable insight into the implementation of a good defense-in-depth strategy.

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Security classification for information. An important aspect of information security and risk management is recognizing the value of information and defining appropriate procedures and protection requirements for the information. Not all information is equal and so not all information requires the same degree of protection. This requires information to be assigned a security classification. The first step in information classification is to identify a member of senior management as the owner of the particular information to be classified. Next, develop a classification policy. The policy should describe the different classification labels, define the criteria for information to be assigned a particular label, and list the required security controls for each classification. Some factors that influence which classification information should be assigned include how much value that information has to the organization, how old the information is and whether or not the information has become obsolete. Laws and other regulatory requirements are also important considerations when classifying information. The type of information security classification labels selected and used will depend on the nature of the organization, with examples being: In the business sector, labels such as: Public, Sensitive, Private, Confidential. In the government sector, labels such as: Unclassified, Sensitive But Unclassified, Restricted, Confidential, Secret, Top Secret and their non-English equivalents. In cross-sectoral formations, the Traffic Light Protocol, which consists of: White, Green, Amber and Red. All employees in the

organization, as well as business partners, must be trained on the classification schema and understand the required security controls and handling procedures for each classification. The classification of a particular information asset has been assigned should be reviewed periodically to ensure the classification is still appropriate for the information and to ensure the security controls required by the classification are in place. Access control. Access to protected information must be restricted to people who are authorized to access the information. The

computer programs, and in many cases the computers that process the information, must also be authorized. This requires that mechanisms be in place to control the access to protected information. The sophistication of the access control mechanisms should be in parity with the value of the information being protected – the more sensitive or valuable the information the stronger the control mechanisms need to be. The foundation, on which access control mechanisms are built, start with identification4 and authentication5.

Identification is an assertion of who someone is or what something is. If a person makes the statement "Hello, my name is John Doe" they are making a claim of who they are. However, their claim may or may not be true. Before John Doe can be granted access to protected information it will be necessary to verify that the person claiming to be John Doe really is John Doe.

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Authentication is the act of verifying a claim of identity. When John Doe goes into a bank to make a withdrawal, he tells the bank teller he is John Doe (a claim of identity). The bank teller asks to see a photo ID, so he hands the teller his driver's license. The bank teller checks the license to make sure it has John Doe printed on it and compares the photograph on the license against the person claiming to be John Doe. If the photo and name match the person, then the teller has authenticated that John Doe is who he claimed to be. There are three different types of information that can be used for authentication: something you know, something you have, or something you are. Examples of something you know include such things as a PIN, a password, or your mother's maiden name. Examples of something you have include a driver's license or a

include palm prints, finger prints, voice prints and retina (eye) scans. Strong authentication requires providing information from two of the three different types of authentication information. For example, something you know plus something you have. This is called two factor authentication. On computer systems in use today, the Username is the most common form of identification and the Password is the most common form of authentication. Usernames and passwords have served their purpose but in our modern world they are no longer adequate. Usernames and passwords are slowly being replaced with more sophisticated authentication mechanisms. After a person, program or computer has successfully been identified and authenticated then it must be determined what informational resources they are permitted to access and what actions they will be allowed to perform (run, view, create, delete, or change). This is called authorization 6. Authorization to access information and other computing services begins with administrative policies and procedures. The policies prescribe what information and computing services can be accessed, by whom, and under what conditions. The access control mechanisms are then configured to enforce these policies. Different computing systems are equipped with different kinds of access control mechanisms - some may even offer a choice of different access control mechanisms. The access control mechanism a system offers will be based upon one of three approaches to access control or it may be derived from a combination of the three approaches. The nondiscretionary7 approach consolidates all access control under a centralized administration. The access to information and other resources is usually based on the individuals function (role) in the organization or the tasks the individual must perform. The discretionary8 approach gives the creator or owner of the information resource the ability to control access to those resources. In the Mandatory access control9 approach, access is granted or denied basing upon the security classification assigned to the information resource.

magnetic Something you are refers to biometrics. Examples of biometrics

Notes: 1. In-depth – исчерпывающий, доскональный, тщательный.

2. Layering – использование слоёв, разделение на слои или уровни, например, развитие ОС путем добавления к базовому ядру дополнительных уровней. 3. Overlapping – перекрытие; наложение; совмещение. 4. Identification – идентификация, отождествление, установление, выявление, процесс, позволяющий при вхождении пользователя в систему установить его личность путём сравнения его атрибутов с хранящимися в базе данных атрибутами всех зарегистрированных пользователей; в отличие от аутентификации, дополнительных идентификаторов не требует. 5. Authentication – аутентификация, проверка (подтверждение) подлинности, процесс, позволяющий установить, что пользователь или компьютер, пытающийся получить интерактивный доступ к определённой категории информации, компьютерной системе, вычислительной сети или электронной почте, действительно тот, за кого себя выдаёт. 6. Authorization – авторизация; разрешение, санкционирование, утверждение, предоставление прав доступа (в систему). 7. Non-discretionary – недискреционный (не предоставляющий свободы действий). 8. Discretionary – необязательный; выполняемый по усмотрению пользователя или программы. 9. Mandatory access control – мандатный контроль за доступом (не допускающий передачи прав доступа между пользователями).

Text 13 GEODETIC SURVEYING

What is Geodesy. Geodesy is the science concerned with determining the size and shape of the Earth and the location of points upon its surface. Why is Geodesy Important? The Earth is an irregular surface and is difficult to model. Accurate positions are required for a wide variety of applications including mapping and charting, flood risk determination, transportation, land use and ecosystem management. The art of Surveying the earth surface considering its

shape and size is called Geodetic Surveying. Geodetic Surveying is suitable for finding out the area of any region on the earth surface, the length and directions of the border lines, contour lines and location of basic points. It is assumed that the shape of earth is spheroid. The convention held by the International Geodetic and Geophysical Union in 1924 assumed 41, 852, 960 ft as the earth's diameter at the equator and at the poles the diameter is 41, 711, 940 ft.

Computation of the equatorial diameter was based on the fact that due to gravitational attraction the earth was flattened exactly by 1/297. Thus, measurements of distances are taken along curved surfaces and not along straight lines. Therefore for geodetic surveying, earth's both diameters are considered. The latitudes and longitudes are determined considering the spheroidical shape of the

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earth. The points which are used to find out the shape, size and coordinates of the earth surface are called Geodetic Datum1 in geodetic surveying. Hundreds of such points are marked for carrying out geodetic survey. Finding exact location of an object. Triangulation: As the name indicates, a triangle is incorporated to find out the location of the point in respect of latitude and longitude. The measurements of the sides of the triangle and the angles in the triangle which is drawn with respect to the particular point are found out. With the help of these measurements, longitude and latitude of the triangulation point are calculated. In geodetic surveying, benchmarks are also used for determining the height or elevation of a point. The surveyor gives a permanent mark in the area which shows the benchmark for ages. GPS based control station: The GPS or Global Positioning System based control station capture the radio signal given by the satellite. This signal is then processed and analyzed to find out the latitudes and longitudes of the given point. Main instrument for

Geodetic Surveying is a theodolite. It is the basic surveying unit used for geodetic surveying. Theodolite consists of a telescope which is placed on a swivel and it can be rotated both horizontally and vertically. Triangulation points are determined by the theodolite in geodetic surveying. Two circles – one vertical

and another horizontal, are used to read out the readings. But in the modern theodolite the reading is done electronically. Geodetic Surveying can be done by geographers, engineers and surveyors specialised in related disciplines. Use of Geodetic Surveying. Engineering purposes: The engineers use geodetic surveying for finding out the exact location of the concerned point or area. Latitudes and longitudes are needed for any engineering constructions. Construction purpose: The builders use geodetic surveying for finding out the direction of the buildings or their exact location. Land Surveying and assessment: The vertical elevation and the horzontal attributes, the latitude and longitudes of the area surveyed are found out through geodetic surveying. Geodetic surveying is thus considered as an important method of surveying. What is Geodetic Leveling? Vertical surveying is the process of determining elevations above mean sea-level. In geodetic surveys executed primarily for mapping, geodetic positions are referred to an ellipsoid, and the elevations of the positions are referred to the geoid. However, for satellite geodesy the geoidal heights must be considered to establish the correct height above the geoid. Precise geodetic leveling is used to establish a basic network of vertical control points. From these, the height of other positions in the survey can be determined by supplementary methods. The mean sea-level surface used as a reference (vertical datum) is determined by averaging the hourly water heights for a specified period of time at specified tide gauges. There are three leveling techniques: differential, trigonometric, and barometric. Differential leveling2 is the most accurate of the three methods. With the instrument locked in position, readings are made on two calibrated staffs held in an upright position ahead of and behind the instrument. The difference between readings is the difference in elevation between the points. Trigonometric leveling3 involves measuring a vertical angle from a known distance with a theodolite and computing the

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elevation of the

point. With this method, vertical measurements can be made at the same time horizontal angles are measured for triangulation. It is, therefore, a somewhat more economical method but less accurate than differential leveling. It is often the only practical method of establishing accurate elevation control in mountainous areas. In barometric leveling4, differences in height are determined by measuring the differences in atmospheric pressure at various elevations. Air pressure is measured by mercurial or aneroid barometer, or a boiling point thermometer. Although the accuracy of this method is not as great as either of the other two, it obtains relative heights very rapidly at points which are fairly far apart. It is used in reconnaissance and exploratory surveys where more accurate measurements will be made later or where a high degree of accuracy is not required.

Notes: 1. Geodetic datum — геодезическая основа, основные исходные геодезические данные. 2. Differential leveling — сложное нивелирование. 3. Trigonometric leveling — тригонометрическое нивелирование. 4. Barometric leveling — барометрическое нивелирование.

Text 14 NATIONAL GEODETIC SURVEY: WHAT WE DO

Vision: Positioning America for the Future. Mission: The Mission of NOAA's National Geodetic Survey (NGS)1 is "to define, maintain and provide access to the National Spatial Reference System2 to meet our nation's economic, social, and environmental needs." What We Do. NGS provides the framework for all positioning activities in the Nation. The foundational elements - latitude, longitude, elevation and shoreline information - contribute to informed decision making and impact a wide range of important activities including mapping and charting, flood risk determination, transportation, land use and ecosystem management. NGS' authoritative spatial data, models and tools are vital for the protection and management of natural and manmade resources and support the economic prosperity and environmental health of the Nation. The National Geodetic Survey (NGS), an office of NOAA's National Ocean Service, manages

a network of Continuously Operating Reference Stations (CORS) that provide Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) data consisting of carrier phase and code range measurements in support of three-dimensional positioning, meteorology, space weather, and geophysical applications throughout the United States, its territories, and a few foreign countries. Surveyors, GIS users, engineers, scientists, and the public at large that collect GPS data can use CORS data to improve the precision of their positions. CORS

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enhanced post-processed coordinates approach a few centimeters relative to the National Spatial Reference System, both horizontally and vertically. The CORS network is a multi-purpose cooperative endeavor3 involving government, academic, and private organizations. The sites are independently owned and operated. Each agency shares their data with NGS, and NGS in turn analyzes and distributes the data free of charge. As of June 2011, the CORS network contains over 1,800 stations, contributed by over 200 different organizations, and the network continues to expand. NGS conducts a cooperative program that provides surveyors with a means to detect and correct errors in Electronic Distances Measuring Instruments (EDMI). NGS has established more than 300 **EDMI Calibration Base Lines (CBL) throughout the United States in** cooperation with various government agencies, universities, professional societies, and others. These highly accurate base lines provide a locally accessible standard for length measurement. For each state, NGS provides users with location descriptions and the adjusted results of calibration base line4 measurements. NGS Aeronautical Survey Program (NOAA's National Geodetic Survey) has been performing aeronautical surveys since the 1920's when it was known as the U.S. Coast and Geodetic Survey. The survey data provides the critical runway5, obstruction, navigation-aid, and airport-feature information required to safely fly into airports nationwide. The Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) uses the data to develop instrument approach and departure procedures, determine maximum takeoff weights, update aeronautical databases and publications, and prepare airport planning and

engineering studies. NGS develops survey standards, guidelines, models, and tools designed to assist surveyors conducting aeronautical surveys. To meet recent demands, the NGS Aeronautical Survey Program (ASP) has shifted from conducting surveys to providing quality assurance and guidance for airport surveys contracted by airport sponsors in support of the FAA Airports Surveying GIS Program. While the number of NGS aeronautical surveys is reduced, NGS' expertise is greatly leveraged. NGS utilizes a combination of inhouse6 photogrammetric analysis and field survey methods to ensure the airport safety-critical7 data is compliant with FAA advisory circulars. Additionally, NGS participates in accuracy assessment studies of new and emerging technologies – such as Light Detection and Ranging (LIDAR8) and satellite imagery – that can be leveraged9 to support the collection of aeronautical information.

Notes: 1. National Geodetic Survey (NGS) — национальная геодезическая служба США. 2. National Spatial Reference System — национальная система пространст- венных координат. 3. Endeavo(u)r — предприятие. 4. Calibration base-line — эталонный базис. 5. Runway — взлётно-посадочная полоса.

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6. In-house — внутренний, внутрифирменный, собственный. 7. Safety-critical — определяющий безопасность. 8. LIDAR — лидар, метеорологический лазерный локатор ИК-диапазона. 9. Leverage — использовать с выгодой.

Text 15 SATELLITE GEODESY

Satellite geodesy is the measurement of the form and dimensions of the Earth, the location of objects on its surface and the figure of the Earth's gravity field by means of artificial satellite techniques-geodesy by means of artificial satellites. It belongs to the broader field of space geodesy, which also includes

such techniques as geodetic very long baseline interferometry1 (VLBI) and lunar laser ranging2. Traditional astronomical geodesy is not commonly considered a part of satellite geodesy, although there is considerable overlap between the techniques. The main goals of satellite geodesy are: 1. Determination of the figure of the Earth, positioning, and navigation (geometric satellite geodesy). 2. Determination of Earth's gravity field and geoid (dynamical satellite geodesy). 3. Measurement of geodynamical phenomena, such as crustal dynamics3 and polar motion4. Satellite geodetic data and methods can be applied to diverse fields such as navigation, hydrography, oceanography and geophysics. Satellite geodesy relies heavily on orbital mechanics. First steps (1957-1970). Satellite geodesy began shortly after the launch of Sputnik in 1957. Observations of Explorer 1 and Sputnik 2 in 1958 allowed for an accurate determination of Earth's flattening5. The 1960s saw the launch of the Doppler satellite Transit-1B and the balloon satellites Echo 1, Echo 2, and PAGEOS. The first dedicated geodetic satellite was ANNA-1B, a collaborative effort between NASA6, the DoD7, and other civilian agencies. ANNA-1B carried the first of the US Army's SECOR8 (Sequential Collation of Range) instruments. These missions led to the accurate determination of the general shape of the geoid, and linked the world's geodetic datums. Toward the World Geodetic System (1970-1990). The Transit satellite system was used extensively for Doppler9 surveying, navigation, and positioning. Observations of satellites in the 1970s by worldwide triangulation networks allowed for the establishment of the World Geodetic System. The development of GPS by the United States in the 1980s allowed for precise navigation and positioning and soon became a standard tool in surveying. In the 1980s and 1990s satellite geodesy began to be used for monitoring of geodynamic phenomena, such as crustal motion, Earth rotation, and polar motion. Modern Era (1990-present). The 1990s were focused on the development of permanent geodetic networks and reference frames. Dedicated satellites were

launched to measure Earth's gravity field in the 2000s, such as CHAMP, GRACE, and GOCE. Satellite geodetic measurement techniques. Techniques of satellite geodesy may be classified by instrument platform. A satellite may be observed with ground-based instruments (Earth-to-space-methods10); carry an instrument or sensor as part of its payload to observe the Earth (spaceto-Earth methods); use its instruments to track or be tracked by another satellite (spaceto-space methods11). Geodetic use of GPS/GNSS. Global navigation satellite systems are dedicated radio positioning services, which can locate a receiver to within a few meters. The most prominent system, GPS, consists of a constellation of 31 satellites (as of June 2011) in high, 12-hour circular orbits, distributed in six planes with 55° inclinations. The principle of location is based on trilateration. Each satellite transmits a precise ephemeris with information on its own position and a message containing the exact time of transmission. The receiver compares this time of transmission with its own clock at the time of reception and multiplies the difference by the speed of light to obtain a "pseudorange." In theory, three satellites are required to position the receiver in three-dimensional space, however the receiver's clock will likely not be synchronized with the atomic clocks aboard the satellite, so a fourth pseudorange measurement is used to correct the receiver's clock bias. In this manner, the receiver's position can be determined to within a few meters. More sophisticated methods, such as real-time kinematic (RTK) can yield positions to within a few millimeters. In geodesy, GNSS is used as an economical tool for surveying and time transfer. It is also used for monitoring Earth's rotation, polar motion, and crustal dynamics. The presence of the GPS signal in space also makes it suitable for orbit determination and satellite-to-satellite tracking. Laser ranging. Satellite laser ranging 12. In satellite laser ranging (SLR) a global network of observation stations measure the round trip time of flight of ultrashort pulses of light to satellites equipped with retroreflectors13. This provides instantaneous range measurements of millimeter level precision which can be accumulated to provide accurate measurement of orbits and a host of important scientific data. Satellite laser ranging is a proven geodetic technique

with significant potential for important contributions to scientific studies of the Earth/Atmosphere/Oceans system. It is the most accurate technique currently available to determine the geocentric position of an Earth satellite, allowing for the precise calibration of radar altimeters and separation of long-term instrumentation drift from secular changes in ocean surface topography.

Doppler techniques. Doppler positioning involves recording the Doppler shift of a radio signal of stable frequency emitted from a satellite as the satellite approaches and recedes from the observer. The observed frequency depends on the radial velocity of the satellite relative to the observer, which is constrained by orbital mechanics. If the observer knows the orbit of the satellite, then the recording of the

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Doppler profile determines the observer's position. Conversely, if the observer's position is precisely known, then the orbit of the satellite can be determined and used to study the Earth's gravity. In DORIS, the ground station emits the signal and the satellite receives. Optical tracking. In optical tracking14, the satellite can be used as a very high target for triangulation and can be used to ascertain the geometric relationship between multiple observing stations. Optical tracking with the BC-4, PC-1000, MOTS cameras consisted of photographic observations of a satellite, or flashing light on the satellite, against a background of stars. The stars, whose positions were accurately determined, provided a framework on the photographic plate or film for a determination of precise directions from camera station to satellite. Geodetic positioning work with cameras was usually performed with one camera observing simultaneously with one or more other cameras. Camera systems are weather dependent and that is one major reason why they fell out of use by the 1980s. Radar altimetry. A radar altimeter 15 uses the round-trip flight-time of a microwave pulse between the satellite and the Earth's surface to determine the distance between the spacecraft and the surface. From this distance or height, the local surface effects such as tides, winds and currents are removed to obtain the satellite height above the geoid. With a precise ephemeris available for the satellite, the geocentric distance to

the satellite, determined for the time of each observation, along with the local radius of the ellipsoid are available. It is then possible to compute the geoid height by subtracting the ellipsoidal radius and the satellite height from the satellite's geocentric distance. This allows direct measurement of the geoid, since the ocean surface closely follows the geoid. The difference between the ocean surface and the actual geoid gives ocean surface topography.

Notes: 1. Very long baseline interferometer — интерферометр со сверхдлинной базой. 2. Lunar laser ranging — лазерная локация Луны. 3. Crustal dynamics — динамика земной коры. 4. Polar motion — движение полюсов. 5. The earth's flattening — приплюснутость земного шара. 6. NASA (National Aeronautics and Space Agency [Administration]) — Национальное управление по аэронавтике и исследованию космического пространства, НАСА. 7. DoD (Department of Defense) Министерство обороны США, МО США отвечает за спонсирование многих стандартов в области разработки ПО. 8. SECOR — система SECOR, система дальней радионавигации и обнаружения воздушных целей, состоящая из четырёх наземных РЛС и спутниковой РЛС с активным ответом. 9. Doppler — эффект Доплера, доплеровский эффект; доплеровская частота, доплеровский сдвиг частоты. 10. Earth-to-space method — система передачи по линии "Земля — космос". 11. Space-to-space communication — связь между КА.

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12. Laser ranging – измерение расстояния лазером. 13. Retroreflector – световозвращатель. 14. Optical tracking – оптические наблюдения (ИСЗ). 15. Radar altimeter – импульсный радиовысотомер больших высот.

Text 16 GLOBAL POSITIONING SYSTEM

The Global Positioning System (GPS)1 is the only fully functional Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS)2. Utilizing a constellation of at least 24

Medium Earth Orbit satellites that transmit precise microwave signals, the system enables a GPS receiver to determine its location, speed, direction, and time. Other similar systems are the Russian GLONASS3, the upcoming European Galileo positioning system, the proposed COMPASS navigation system of China, and IRNSS of India. Developed by the United States Department of Defense, GPS is officially named NAVSTAR GPS (Contrary to popular belief, NAVSTAR is not an acronym, but simply a name given by John Walsh, a key decision maker when it came to the budget for the GPS program). The satellite constellation4 is managed by the United States Air Force 50th Space Wing. The cost of maintaining the system is approximately US\$750 million per year, including the replacement of aging satellites, and research and development. Following the shooting down of Korean Air Lines Flight 007 in 1983, President Ronald Reagan issued a directive making the system available for free for civilian use as a common good. Since then, GPS has become a widely used aid to navigation worldwide, and a useful tool for map-making, land surveying, commerce, scientific uses, and hobbies such as geocaching5. GPS also provides a precise time reference used in many applications including scientific study of earthquakes, and synchronization of telecommunications networks. Simplified method of operation. A typical GPS receiver calculates its position using the signals from four or more GPS satellites. Four satellites are needed since the process needs a very accurate local time, more accurate than any normal clock can provide, so the receiver internally solves for time as well as position. In other words, the receiver uses four measurements to solve for four variables: x, y, z, and t. These values are then turned into more user-friendly6 forms, such as latitude/longitude or location on a map, then displayed to the user. Each GPS satellite has an atomic clock, and continually transmits messages containing the current time at the start of the message, parameters to calculate the location of the satellite (the ephemeris7), and the general system health. The signals travel at the speed of light through outer space, and slightly slower through the atmosphere. The receiver uses the arrival time to compute the distance to each satellite, from which it determines the position of the

receiver using geometry and trigonometry. Although four satellites are required for normal operation, fewer may be needed in some special cases. If one variable is already known (for example, a sea

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going ship knows its altitude is 0), a receiver can determine its position using only three satellites. Also, in practice, receivers use additional clues (doppler shift8 of satellite signals, last known position, dead reckoning9, inertial navigation10, and so on) to give degraded answers when fewer than four satellites are visible.

Notes: 1. Global Positioning System (GPS) — система глобального позициониро- вания. 2. Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) — глобальная навигационная спутниковая система. 3. GLONASS (global navigation satellite system) — российский вариант глобальной (спутниковой) системы (радио)определения местоположения, система GLONASS. 4. Constellation — 1) созвездие; 2) совокупность, группа. 5. Geocaching — геокешинг, геокладоискательство (игра в "поиск кладов" с использованием GPS-навигаторов). 6. User-friendly — удобный для пользования. 7. Ephemeris — 1) эфемериды, таблицы положения небесных тел; 2) эфеме- ридная информация (напр. о координатах ИСЗ). 8. Doppler shift — доплеровский сдвиг частоты, доплеровская частота. 9. Dead гескопіпд — навигационное счисление (пути). 10. Inertial navigation — инерциальная навигация.

Text 17 TOTAL STATION

A total station1 is an optical instrument used in modern surveying as well as by police, crime scene investigators, private accident reconstructionists and insurance companies to take measurements of scenes. It is a combination of an electronic theodolite (transit), an electronic distance meter (EDM)2 and

determine angles and distances from the instrument to points to be surveyed. With the aid of trigonometry and triangulation, the angles and distances may be used to calculate the coordinates of actual positions (X, Y, and Z or northing, easting and elevation) of surveyed points, or the position of the instrument from known points, in absolute terms. The data may be downloaded from the theodolite to an external computer and application software will generate a map of the surveyed area. Some total stations also have a GPS interface which combines these two technologies to make use of the advantages of both (GPS – line of sight3 not required between measured points; Traditional Total Station – high precision measurement especially in the vertical axis compared with GPS) and reduce the consequences of each technology's disadvantages (GPS – poor accuracy in the vertical axis and lower

software running on an external computer. With a total station one may

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accuracy without long occupation periods; Total Station - requires line of sight observations and must be set up over a known point or within line of sight of 2 or more known points). Most modern total station instruments measure angles by means of electrooptical scanning of extremely precise digital bar-codes4 etched on rotating glass cylinders or discs within the instrument. The best quality total stations are capable of measuring angles down to 0.5 arc-second. Inexpensive "construction grade" total stations can generally measure angles to 5 or 10 arc-seconds. Measurement of distance is accomplished with a modulated microwave or infrared carrier signal5, generated by a small solid-state emitter within the instrument's optical path, and bounced off of the object to be measured. The modulation pattern in the returning signal is read and interpreted by the onboard6 computer in the total station. The distance is determined by emitting and receiving multiple frequencies7, and determining the integer number8 of wavelengths to the target for each frequency. Most total stations use a purpose-built glass prism as the reflector for the EDM signal, and can measure distances out to a few kilometers, but some instruments are "reflectorless", and can measure distances to any object that is reasonably light

in color, out to a few hundred meters. The typical Total Station EDM can measure distances accurate to about 3 millimeters or 1/100th of a foot. Some modern total stations are 'robotic' allowing the operator to control the instrument from a distance via remote control. This eliminates the need for an assistant staff member to hold the reflector prism over the point to be measured. The operator holds the reflector him/herself and controls the total station instrument from the observed point. Vehicular Accident Reconstruction applications. Total stations are used by police, crime scene investigators, private accident reconstructionists and insurance companies to take measurements of scenes. Once they take accurate measurements with a total station they can use software to recreate the accident in a 3D animation. Mining applications. Total stations are the primary survey instrument used in many mining applications. Underground mining. As the development drifts in an underground mine are driven, a total station will be used to record the absolute location of the tunnel walls (stope), ceilings (backs), and floors. This data can then be loaded into a CAD program, and compared to the designed layout of the tunnel. At regular intervals, the survey party will install stations. These are small steel plugs that are drilled into the walls or the back. The plugs are installed in pairs. For wall stations, two plugs are installed in opposite walls, forming a line perpendicular to the drift. For back stations, two plugs are installed in the back, forming a line parallel to the drift. When the survey crew wants to set up the total station in a drift, they use a set of plugs to locate the total station.

Notes: 1. Total station – электронный тахеометр.

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- 2. Electronic distance meter (EDM) электронное устройство для измерения расстояния. 3. Line of sight линия визирования. 4. Bar-code штрих-код.
 - 5. Carrier signal сигнал-переносчик, сигнал несущей частоты. 6. On(-)board расположенный на плате; встроенный. 7. Multiple frequency кратная частота. 8. Integer number целое число.

Text 18 LAND USE

Land use1 is the human modification of natural environment or wilderness2 into built environment3 such as fields, pastures, and settlements. The major effect of land use on land cover since 1750 has been deforestation4 of temperate regions. More recent significant effects of land use include urban sprawl5, soil erosion, soil degradation, salinization6, and desertification7. Land-use change, together with use of fossil fuels8, are the major anthropogenic9 sources of carbon dioxide, a dominant greenhouse gas10. It has also been defined as "the total of arrangements, activities, and inputs that people undertake in a certain land cover type". Municipal land use. Villages, cities, towns, boroughs, townships and counties are all governed by a set of designations assigned to particular parcels of land. Each designation, known as a parcel's zoning11, comes with a list of approved uses that can legally operate on the zoned parcel. These are found in a government's ordinances 12 or zoning regulations 13. Land use and the environment. Land use and land management practices have a major impact on natural resources including water, soil, nutrients, plants and animals. Land use information can be used to develop solutions for natural resource management issues such as salinity and water quality. For instance, water bodies in a region that has been deforested or having erosion will have different water quality than those in areas that are forested. According to a report by the United Nations' Food and Agriculture Organisation, land degradation has been exacerbated where there has been an absence of any land use planning, or of its orderly execution, or the existence of financial or legal incentives that have led to the wrong land use decisions, or one-sided central planning leading to over-utilization of the land resources - for instance for immediate production at all costs. As a consequence the result has often been misery for large segments of the local population and destruction of valuable ecosystems. Such narrow approaches should be replaced by a technique for the planning and management of land resources that is integrated and holistic and

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Land use in the United States. In the US, every legal activity must have its place in municipal and county zoning laws. Meaning if an adult entertainment facility can legally operate in a given jurisdiction, then the zoning laws must offer a proper and by-right zone for that business to operate within. With this example in mind, one can guess that choosing zoning wisely can make or break a city's image and inevitably its ability to attract more favorable business and industry. To regulate what can be built where, cities create comprehensive plans 15 and zoning ordinances to create an order to the potential uses of land within their political boundaries. A municipality will spend thousands if not hundreds of thousands of dollars to determine where best to encourage industrial growth, allow residential building and permit commercial activity. These decisions have dramatic impacts on land values, safety and community interests. With so much at stake, the process of determining what can be built where has become extremely politicized. Today active community groups wield much strength in the public land use approval process. Politics plays a big part in the approval process. But the reality is that mostly developers16 create the rules. In the absence of opposition, a developer can change the real estate landscape for years to come by successfully rezoning one large parcel in area. Where there is opposition, today's developers have to take heed and listen to their demands. With financial stakes so high for developers and residents and the approval process being susceptible to public pressure and politics, it is no surprise that there is now a subset of political culture known as land use politics. Patterns of land use arise naturally in a culture through customs and practices, but land use may also be formally regulated by land use planning through zoning and planning permission17 laws, or by private agreements such as restrictive covenants18.

Notes: 1. Land use — землепользование. 2. Wilderness — дикая природа; дикая местность. 3. Built environment — антропогенная среда, преобразованная человеком среда. 4. Deforestation — обезлесение, вырубка леса. 5. Urban sprawl — рост городов, урбанизация. 6. Salinization — засолонение (почв). 7. Desertification — опустынивание. 8. Fossil fuel — ископаемое топливо. 9. Anthropogenic — антропогенный, вызванный деятельностью человека. 10. Greenhouse gases — парниковые газы (вызывающие парниковый эффект: водяной пар, углекислый газ, метан и т. п.). 11. Zoning — зонирование (разбивка города, страны или другой территориальной единицы на зоны различного назначения, например, жилые, производственные, сельскохозяйственные и др.).

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12. Ordinance – указ, декрет, закон; предписание; постановление; распоряжение. 13. Zoning regulations – правила зонирования (районирование населённого пункта). 14. Biodiversity – биоразнообразие, биологическое разнообразие. 15. Comprehensive plan – комплексный план. 16. Developer – застройщик. 17. Planning permission – разрешение на перепланировку. 18. Restrictive covenant – рестриктивное [ограничительное] условие.

Text 19 THE NATURE AND PRINCIPLES OF LAND EVALUATION

General. Decisions on land use have always been part of the evolution of human society. In the past, land use changes often came about by gradual evolution, as the result of many separate decisions taken by individuals. In the more crowded and complex world of the present they are frequently brought about by the process of land use planning. Such planning takes place in all parts of the world, including both developing and developed countries. It may be concerned with putting environmental resources to new kinds of productive use. The need for

land use planning is frequently brought about, however, by changing needs and pressures, involving competing uses for the same land. The function of land use planning is to guide decisions on land use in such a way that the resources of the environment are put to the most beneficial use for man, whiles at the same time conserving those resources for the future. This planning must be based on an understanding both of the natural environment and of the kinds of land use envisaged. There have been many examples of damage to natural resources and of unsuccessful land use enterprises through failure to take account of the mutual relationships between land and the uses to which it is put. It is a function of land evaluation to bring about such understanding and to present planners with comparisons of the most promising kinds of land use. Land evaluation is concerned with the assessment of land performance when used for specified purposes. It involves the execution and interpretation of basic surveys of climate, soils, vegetation and other aspects of land in terms of the requirements of alternative forms of land use. To be of value in planning, the range of land uses considered has to be limited to those which are relevant within the physical, economic and social context of the area considered, and the comparisons must incorporate economic considerations. The aims of land evaluation. Land evaluation may be concerned with present land performance. Frequently however, it involves change and its effects: with change in the use of land and in some cases change in the land itself. Evaluation takes into consideration the economics of the proposed enterprises, the social consequences for the people of the area and the country concerned, and the

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consequences, beneficial or adverse, for the environment. Thus land evaluation should answer the following questions: - How is the land currently managed, and what will happen if present practices remain unchanged? - What improvements in management practices, within the present use, are possible? - What other uses of land are physically possible and economically and socially relevant? - Which of these uses offer possibilities of sustained production or other benefits? - What adverse effects, physical, economic or social, are

associated with each use? - What recurrent inputs are necessary to bring about the desired production and minimize the adverse effects? What are the benefits of each form of use? If the introduction of a new use involves significant change in the land itself, as for example in irrigation schemes, then the following additional questions should be answered: - What changes in the condition of the land are feasible and necessary, and how can they be brought about? - What non-recurrent inputs are necessary to implement these changes? The evaluation process does not in itself determine the land use changes that are to be carried out, but provides data on the basis of which such decisions can be taken. To be effective in this role, the output from an evaluation normally gives information on two or more potential forms of use for each area of land, including the consequences, beneficial and adverse, of each.

Text 20 LAND EVALUATION AND LAND USE PLANNING

Land evaluation is only part of the process of land use planning. Its precise role varies in different circumstances. In the present context it is sufficient to represent the land use planning process by the following generalized sequence of activities and decisions: recognition of a need for change; identification of aims; formulation of proposals, involving alternative forms of land use, and recognition of their main requirements; recognition and delineation of the different types of land present in the area; comparison and evaluation of each type of land for the different uses; selection of a preferred use for each type of land; project design, or other detailed analysis of a selected set of alternatives for distinct parts of the area. This, in certain cases, may take the form of a feasibility study.

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Land evaluation plays a major part and contributes information to the subsequent activities. Thus land evaluation is preceded by the recognition of the need for some change in the use to which land is put; this may be the

or forestry plantations, or the provision of services, such as the designation of a national park or recreational area. Recognition of this need is followed by identification of the aims of the proposed change and formulation of general and specific proposals. The evaluation process itself includes description of a range of promising kinds of use, and the assessment and comparison of these with respect to each type of land identified in the area. This leads to recommendations involving one or a small number of preferred kinds of use. These recommendations can then be used in making decisions on the preferred kinds of land use for each distinct part of the area. Later stages will usually involve further detailed analysis of the preferred uses, followed, if the decision to go ahead is made, by the implementation of the development project or other form of change, and monitoring of the resulting systems.

development of new productive uses, such as agricultural development schemes

Text 21 PRINCIPLES OF LAND EVALUATION

Certain principles are fundamental to the approach and methods employed in land evaluation. These basic principles are as follows: 1. Land suitability is assessed and classified with respect to specified kinds of use. This principle embodies recognition of the fact that different kinds of land use have different requirements. As an example, an alluvial flood plain with impeded drainage might be highly suitable for rice cultivation but not suitable for many forms of agriculture or for forestry. The concept of land suitability is only meaningful in terms of specific kinds of land use, each with their own requirements, e.g. for soil moisture, rooting depth, etc. The qualities of each type of land, such as moisture availability or liability to flooding, are compared with the requirements of each use. Thus the land itself and the land use are equally fundamental to land suitability evaluation. 2. Evaluation requires a comparison of the benefits obtained and the inputs needed on different types of land. Land

in itself, without inputs, rarely if ever possesses productive potential; even the

collection of wild fruits requires labour, whilst the use of natural wilderness for nature conservation requires measures for its protection. Suitability for each use is assessed by comparing the required input, such as labour, fertilizers or road construction, with the goods produced or other benefits obtained. 3. A multidisciplinary approach is required. The evaluation process requires contributions from the fields of natural science, the technology of land use, economics and sociology. In particular, suitability evaluation always incorporates economic considerations to a greater or lesser extort. In qualitative evaluation,

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economics may be employed in general terms only, without calculation of costs and returns. In quantitative evaluation the comparison of benefits and inputs in economic terms plays a major part in the determination of suitability. It follows that a team carrying out an evaluation require a range of specialists. These will usually include natural scientists (e.g. geomorphologists, soil surveyors, ecologists), specialists in the technology of the forms of land use under consideration (e.g. agronomists foresters, irrigation engineers, experts in livestock management), economists and sociologists. There may need to be some combining of these functions for practical reasons, but the principle of multidisciplinary activity, encompassing studies of land, land use, social aspects and economics, remains. 4. Evaluation is made in terms relevant to the physical economic and social context of the area concerned. Such factors as the regional climate, levels of living of the population, availability and cost of labour, need for employment, the local or export markets, systems of land tenure which are socially and politically acceptable, and availability of capital, form the context within which evaluation takes place. It would, for example be unrealistic to say that land was suitable for non-mechanized rice cultivation, requiring large amounts of low-cost labour, in a country with high labour costs. The assumptions underlying evaluation will differ from one country to another and, to some extent, between different areas of the same country. Many of these

factors are often implicitly assumed; to avoid misunderstanding and to assist in

comparisons between different areas, such assumptions should be explicitly stated. 5. Suitability refers to use on a sustained basis. The aspect of environmental degradation is taken into account when assessing suitability. There might, for example, be forms of land use which appeared to be highly profitable in the short run but were likely to lead to soil erosion, progressive pasture degradation, or adverse changes in river regimes downstream. Such consequences would outweigh the shortterm profitability and cause the land to be classed as not suitable for such purposes. This principle by no means requires that the environment should be preserved in a completely unaltered state. Agriculture normally involves clearance of any natural vegetation present, and normally soil fertility under arable cropping is higher or lower, depending on management, but rarely at the same level as under the original vegetation. What is required is that for any proposed form of land use, the probable consequences for the environment should be assessed as accurately as possible and such assessments taken into consideration in determining suitability. 6. Evaluation involves comparison of more than a single kind of use. This comparison could be, for example, between agriculture and forestry, between two or more different farming systems, or between individual crops. Often it will include comparing the existing uses with possible changes, either to new kinds of use or modifications to the existing uses. Occasionally a proposed form of use will be compared with non-use, i.e. leaving the land in its unaltered state, but the principle of comparison remains. Evaluation is only reliable if benefits and inputs from any given kind of use can be compared with at least one, and usually several different, alternatives. If only one use is considered there is the danger that, whilst the land may indeed be suitable for that use, some other and more beneficial use may be ignored.

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Text 22 LAND MONITORING

Benefiting from Earth Observation satellite data, the GMES (Global Monitoring for Environment and Security) land monitoring service provides

accurate and crossborder1 harmonized geo-information at global to local scales.

The service provides geographical information on land cover including its seasonal and annual changes and monitors variables such as the vegetation state or the water cycle. It has a wide range of applications for land use (land cover change, soil sealing, water quality and availability, spatial planning, forest monitoring and global food security). The pre-operational land monitoring service of GMES is currently provided through the EU-funded project geoland. The project develops a set of three mapping services which serve as a basis for the provision of a series of information services. EUROLAND (Mapping service). The European Land Monitoring Service addresses the local and the continental component (i.e. high spatial resolution, wallto-wall land cover parameters and land cover change) of the land monitoring service. **EUROLAND** contributes developing and implementing an efficient processing chain for future updates. The Biogeophysical Parameters Service provides a series of parameters on regional, European and global scales, both in near-realtime and off-line mode, which describe the continental vegetation state, the radiation budget at the earth's surface and the water cycle. The Seasonal and Annual Change Monitoring Service aims to close the gap between lowresolution global coverage and the high-resolution by providing seasonal to annual European-wide coverage of physical properties describing biogeophysical information parameters, such as land cover and land cover change. The Spatial Planning Service provides highly accurate products and tools to describe, explain and forecast urban land use changes, from regional to European scale. Combining geographic information with ancillary geospatial and statistical data, the service helps analyzing demographic developments and urban land trends. It also helps describing the state of land consumption and its impact on the environment. The AgroEnvironment Service supports the timely and accurate monitoring of agricultural land use state and its changes at European, national and regional levels. It provides indicators addressing agricultural land use and trends, farming pressure on water and soil resources, and the impact of agricultural land use changes on biodiversity and landscapes.

The Water Monitoring Service provides a pan-European model in order to allow an integrated analysis of transnational water bodies. In particular it addresses water balance, flow rates and flow depths in all major streams and rivers, soil moisture level, lake/reservoir depths and levels, snow depths, snow water equivalent and regional snow coverage.

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The Forest Monitoring Service provides highly accurate and spatially detailed information on the state and development of forests. It contains information for Forest Area by four forest types (coniferous forest2, broad-leafed forest, mixed forest and un-stocked areas/clear-cuts) as well as Forest Area Change. The Land Carbon Service aims to set up pre-operational infrastructures for providing variables related to the terrestrial carbon cycle3, in near-real-time (NRT), for describing the continental vegetation state (leaf area index and biomass), the surface fluxes (carbon and water), and the associated soil moisture. The Natural Resource Monitoring in Africa Service will provide decision makers with factual environmental information. The thematic focus is on natural resource management in a seasonal as well as multi-annual perspective to facilitate decision making processes and medium term planning exercises. The Global Crop Monitoring Service provides objective, near real-time assessments of crop conditions and yield forecasts in support of European policies in the fields.

Notes: 1. Cross-border – заграничный, зарубежный, иностранный. 2. Coniferous forest – хвойный лес. 3. Carbon cycle – углеродный цикл.

Text 23 RERORMING THE SWEDISH CADASTRE

Sweden's greatest economic asset is real property1. All land in Sweden is subdivided into real property units. Lantmateriet is responsible for ensuring an efficient and legally secure real property subdivision and for maintaining a

register containing information about real property, such as ownership and mortgages. In Sweden, real property formation, which includes cadastral surveying and real property registration, is an important means of implementing legal changes and measures relating to real property. Official authorisation is required and Lantmäteriet2 has the overall responsibility for the activities in the entire country. This cadastral system is relatively unique to Sweden and Finland. The 'förrättning"3 procedure is a secure, simple, neutral and cost-efficient system. The legislation is from 1970's, but has a long history. However, legislative work is currently in progress in Sweden aimed at making possible the formation of properties in strata4. During recent years,

Lantmäteriet has carried out a rationalisation programme to improve the efficiency of cadastral procedures: new technology and new working methods have been introduced and comprehensive training programmes have been undertaken. By using new technical support routines, modern field surveying methods, based on GPS and GIS, productivity has further increased.

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Property formation includes – in addition to technical work – making legal decisions concerning the formation of new properties (subdivision), changes to existing properties (reallotment), creation of joint-properties, easements, utilities and common facilities. Previously the process was divided into several parts with many employees involved but is now handled by only one or two cadastral surveyors. The cadastral surveyor is responsible for the whole procedure and takes important decisions such as the right to use new land, the time for taking over ownership, compensation and distribution of costs. The decisions are finally registered in the Real Property Register, which includes the Digital Cadastral Index Map. Clients include private property owners and also many companies and organisations. Nowadays the market for cadastral services includes key activities within environmental and infrastructure sectors such as telecommunications, energy, railways, public and private roads, forestry and the Swedish Church. A cadastral procedure begins when a written application is submitted to Lantmäteriet. The cadastral surveyor discusses the implications of

the application including price and delivery times with the applicant. When the procedure has gained legal force, the results are registered in the Real Property Register. The complete documentation including minutes map and descriptions are sent to the appointed interested parties. The cadastral dossier is placed in Lantmäteriet's archives.

Notes: 1. Real property – недвижимость. 2. Lantmäteriet (швед.) – Land Registration Division (отдел регистрации земли). 3. The "förrättning" procedure – the cadastral procedure (система кадастрового учёта). 4. Property in strata – право собственности в многоквартирных домах.

Text 24 OPTICAL ENGINEERING

Optical engineering is the field of study that focuses on applications of optics.

Optical engineers design components of optical instruments such as lenses, microscopes, telescopes, and other equipment that utilize the properties of light. Other devices include optical sensors and measurement systems, lasers, fiber optic communication systems, optical disc systems (e.g. CD, DVD), etc. Because optical engineers want to design and build devices that make light do something useful, they must understand and apply the science of optics in substantial detail, in order to know what is physically possible to achieve (physics and chemistry). However, they also must know what is practical in terms of available technology, materials, costs, design methods, etc. As with other fields of engineering, computers are important to many (perhaps most) optical engineers. They are used with instruments, for simulation, in design, and for many other applications.

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Engineers often use general computer tools such as spreadsheets1 and programming languages, and they make frequent use of specialized optical software designed specifically for their field. Optical engineering metrology

uses optical methods to measure micro-vibrations with instruments like the laser speckle interferometer 2. 4,000 years ago there were some signs and indications that early optical engineers used optical applications. People who designed and built the Stonehenge3 and Pyramid of Cheops used basic optical engineering principles. These structures had a connection with the earth and sun. These early engineers knew light travels in straight lines and understood the cycle of the seasons, which made these structures relative to the calendar and the compass. In 350 BC, Plato and Aristotle argued about the accurate nature of light. Plato thought vision was achieved by the discharge of optical beams from the eyes. Aristotle believed vision is accomplished when particles from the object releases into the pupil of the eye. In 300 BC, Euclid, who wrote and studied optics and geometry, wrote the book Optics, which heavily contributed to the study of the science of optics. Optical engineering is the engineering discipline that focuses on the design of equipment and devices that function by using light. It is based on the science of optics, a field of physics that studies the properties and behaviors of visible light and its two nearest neighbors on the electromagnetic spectrum, infrared and ultraviolet. The practice of optical engineering is ancient, and the use of mirrors, shaped and polished crystals, or containers of clear water for purposes such as magnification or focusing sunlight to start fires is more than 2,000 years old. In modern times, this field is important to a very wide array of technologies, including optical instruments such as microscopes and binoculars, lasers, and many commonly used electronic and communication devices. Some practical applications of optics can be done using a model of electromagnetic radiation based on classical physics. This is because the predictions of modern quantum mechanics diverge noticeably from classical mechanics only at the atomic or subatomic scale or under extremely unusual conditions such as nearabsolute zero temperatures. Many modern optical technologies are based on how individual photons interact with atoms and particles, where the predictions of classical mechanics cease to be a useful approximation of reality, and so the science of quantum optics is necessary to understand and master these

phenomena. Materials science is also important knowledge for optical engineering. The design of many devices that use light to view or analyze objects involves optical engineering. Viewing instruments such as binoculars, telescopes, and microscopes use lenses and mirrors to magnify images, while corrective lenses for eyeglasses and contact lenses refract incoming light to compensate for defects in the wearer's vision. Thus, their creation demands considerable scientific knowledge of how these optical components will affect incoming light. Successful optical lens design requires understanding of both how a lens composition, structure, and shape will affect the functioning of an optical device, and how a lens shape and materials will affect factors such as the device's mass, size, and distribution of weight, as well as its ability to operate in different conditions.

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The design of devices called spectrometers cannot be done without optical engineering. A spectrometer uses the properties of incoming photons to discover information about the chemical composition or other traits of the matter that the light has been emitted by or interacted with. Spectrometers exist in a wide array of different types and are enormously important to modern science and industry, in applications ranging from identifying the composition of minerals to quality control in the metalworking industry to studying the motion of other galaxies. Optical engineering is likewise essential to fiber-optic technology, which transmits information through cables using pulses of light instead of electricity. Optical fibers are flexible materials that can be used as waveguides, materials that can guide the direction of light. They guide light as it travels by taking advantage of a phenomenon called total internal reflection, which keeps the light channeled down the core of the fiber. The design of optical fibers requires an understanding of how light is refracted as it moves through different media, along with the refractive qualities of different materials. Fiberoptics is essential to modern communication technologies, such as telephones, high-speed Internet, and cable television, due to their enormous capacity. The design of lasers, which produce narrow beams of coherent light, also relies

heavily on optical engineering. Lasers work by energetically exciting a material, called a gain medium, until it begins releasing energy in the form of photons. Designing a working laser involves knowledge of both the quantum properties of light and of different materials that can be used as gain media in order to create photons with the qualities necessary for the laser's intended use and of how optical equipment such as lenses and mirrors can focus that light. Laser technology is widely used in modern life. It is the basis for optical disk media formats such as CDs and DVDs, the detection technology LIDAR (light detection and ranging), and in many industrial applications.

Notes: 1. Spreadsheet – электронная таблица. 2. Laser speckle interferometer – интерферометр с использованием лазерной спекл-структуры. 3. Stonehenge – Стоунхендж (один из самых больших и известных в мире кромлехов; сооружён в 1900–1600 до н.э.; расположен близ Солсбери, графство Уилтшир).

Text 25 WHAT DOES A LASER ENGINEER DO?

A laser engineer is a scientist or engineer who has extensive training in designing, building, operating, and maintaining high-energy manufacturing or research laser equipment. The qualifications for this position will likely depend upon the particular area in which the engineer works. Those in a research and development

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position will likely be designing new laser technology, improving existing technology, and developing new products. Those in manufacturing will be more hands-on1, building products and parts and designing processes that utilize solid state laser technology. Educational requirements will vary among employers, but most laser engineers have a bachelor's degree in some type of science-related field, like physics, engineering, laser technology or optics. Some

laser engineers have a master's degree or even a PhD2 depending on the position. Most laser engineers have experience in the field of laser product development, laser applied research, or modeling solid state lasers in an industrial or manufacturing context. Solving problems in the use of laser equipment is one of the basic responsibilities for a laser engineer. Diagnosing technical problems and using test equipment to fix lasers is part of this job. A

laser engineer working in a manufacturing context will likely have good interpersonal skills because he communicates frequently with operators and vendors. A laser engineer working in a research context is more likely to focus on the conceptual and creative aspect of laser technology, so collaborative skills and teamwork are more important. One of the primary job duties of a laser engineer is working with specialized computers to program basic functions for

laser equipment, enter data, and create software to work with the laser equipment. Along with the standard business programs, a laser engineer needs a working knowledge of Autocad®, materials resource planning, product data management, and other engineering-related software. Laser engineers working in the manufacturing area create or review technical drawings and coordinate with manufacturing personnel to determine the actual steps and type of lasers necessary in various manufacturing processes. A research laser engineer also needs to create and review detailed technical drawings to be used in the design and creation of laser technology and equipment.

Notes: 1. Hands-on – практический. 2. PhD – от Doctor of Philosophy; = Ph.D. а) доктор философии (учёная степень; примерно соответствует степени кандидата наук в РФ.

Text 26 DIGITAL MAPPING

Digital mapping (also called digital cartography) is the process by which a collection of data is compiled and formatted into a virtual image. The primary

function of this technology is to produce maps that give accurate representations of a particular area, detailing major road arteries and other points of interest. The technology also allows the calculation of distances from one place to another. Though digital mapping can be found in a variety of computer applications, such as Google

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Earth, the main use of these maps is with the Global Positioning System, or GPS satellite network, used in standard automotive navigation systems. History. The roots of digital mapping lie within traditional paper maps. Paper maps provide basic landscapes similar to digitized road maps, yet are often cumbersome, cover only a designated area, and lack many specific details such as road blocks. In addition, there is no way to "update" a paper map except to obtain a new version. On the other hand, digital maps, in many cases, can be updated through synchronization with updates from company servers. Early digital maps had the same basic functionality as paper maps – that is, they provided a "virtual view" of roads generally outlined by the terrain encompassing the surrounding area. However, as digital maps have grown with the expansion of GPS technology in the past decade, live traffic updates, points of interest and service locations have been added to enhance digital maps to be more "user conscious". Traditional "virtual views" are now only part of digital mapping. In many cases, users can choose between virtual maps, satellite (aerial views), and hybrid (a combination of virtual map and aerial views) views. With the ability to update and expand digital mapping devices, newly constructed roads and places can be added to appear on maps. Data Collection. Digital maps heavily rely upon a vast amount of data collected over time. Most of the information that comprise digital maps is the culmination of satellite imagery 1 as well as street level information. Maps must be updated frequently to provide users with the most accurate reflection of a location. While there is a wide spectrum on companies that specialize in digital mapping, the basic premise is that digital maps will accurately portray roads as they actually appear to give "life-like experiences2". Functionality and Use. Computer programs and applications

such as Google Earth and Google Maps provide map views from space and street level of much of the world. Used primarily for recreational use, Google Earth provides digital mapping in personal applications, such as tracking distances or finding locations. The development of mobile computing (tablet PCs3, laptops, etc.) has recently (since about 2000) spurred the use of digital mapping in the sciences and applied sciences. As of 2009, science fields that use digital mapping technology include geology, engineering, architecture, land surveying, mining, forestry, environment, and archaeology. The principal use by which digital mapping has grown in the past decade has been its connection to Global Positioning System (GPS) technology. GPS is the foundation behind digital mapping navigation systems. The coordinates and position as well as atomic time obtained by a terrestrial GPS receiver from GPS satellites orbiting the Earth interact together to provide the digital mapping programming with points of origin in addition to the destination points needed to calculate distance. This information is then analyzed and compiled to create a map that provides the easiest and most efficient way to reach a destination. More technically speaking, the device operates in the following manner: GPS receivers collect data from "at least twenty-four GPS satellites" orbiting the Earth, calculating position in three dimensions.

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1. The GPS receiver then utilizes position to provide GPS coordinates, or exact points of latitudinal and longitudinal direction from GPS satellites. 2. The points, or coordinates, output an accurate range between approximately "10-20 meters" of the actual location. 3. The beginning point, entered via GPS coordinates, and the ending point, (address or coordinates) input by the user, are then entered into the digital map. 4. The map outputs a real-time visual representation of the route. The map then moves along the path of the driver. 5. If the driver drifts from the designated route, the navigation system will use the current coordinates to recalculate a route to the destination location.

Notes: 1. Satellite imagery – получение изображений с помощью ИСЗ. 2. Lifelike experiences – реальное представление. 3. Tablet PC – планшетный ПК; карманный ПК.

Text 27 CARTOGRAPHY

Cartography (from Greek chartis = map and graphein = write) is the study and practice of making maps. Combining science, aesthetics, and technique, cartography builds on the premise that reality can be modeled in ways that communicate spatial information effectively. The fundamental problems of traditional cartography are to: Set the map's agenda and select traits of the object to be mapped. This is the concern of map editing. Traits may be physical, such as roads or land masses, or may be abstract, such as toponyms or political boundaries. Represent the terrain of the mapped object on flat media. This is the concern of map projections. Eliminate characteristics of the mapped object that are not relevant to the map's purpose and reduce the complexity of the characteristics that will be mapped. This is the concern of generalization. Orchestrate the elements of the map to best convey its message to its audience. This is the concern of map design. Modern cartography is closely integrated with geographic information science (GIS science) and constitutes many theoretical and practical foundations of geographic information systems. Technological changes. Mapping can be done with GPS and laser rangefinder1 directly in the field (for example by Field-Map technology). Real-time map construction improves productivity and quality of mapping. Image is showing mapping of forest structure (position of trees, dead wood and canopy). In cartography, technology has continually changed in order to meet the demands of new generations of mapmakers and map users. The first maps were

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manually constructed with brushes and parchment2; therefore, varied in quality and were limited in distribution. The advent of magnetic devices, such as

the compass and much later, magnetic storage devices3, allowed for the creation of far more accurate maps and the ability to store and manipulate them digitally. Advances in mechanical devices such as the printing press4, vernier, allowed for the mass production of maps and the ability to make accurate reproductions from more accurate data. Optical technology, such as the telescope, other devices that use telescopes, allowed for accurate surveying of land and the ability of mapmakers and navigators to find their latitude by measuring angles to the North Star at night or the sun at noon. Advances in photochemical technology, such as the lithographic and photochemical processes, have allowed for the creation of maps that have fine details, do not distort in shape and resist moisture and wear. This also eliminated the need for engraving, which further shortened the time it takes to make and reproduce maps. Advances in electronic technology in the 20th century ushered in another revolution in cartography. Ready availability of computers and peripherals such as monitors, plotters, printers, scanners (remote and document) and analytic stereo plotters, along with computer programs for visualization, image processing, spatial analysis, and database management, have democratized and greatly expanded the making of maps. The ability to superimpose spatially located variables onto existing maps created new uses for maps and new industries to explore and exploit these potentials. These days most commercialquality maps are made using software that falls into one of three main types: CAD, GIS and specialized illustration software. Spatial information can be stored in a database, from which it can be extracted on demand. These tools lead to increasingly dynamic, interactive maps that can be manipulated digitally. With the field rugged computers5, GPS and laser rangefinders, it is possible to perform mapping directly in the terrain. The construction of the map in real time improve productivity and quality of the result. Real time mapping is done for example with Field-map technology. Map types. In understanding basic maps, the field of cartography can be divided into two general categories: general cartography and thematic cartography. General cartography involves those maps that are constructed for a general audience

and thus contain a variety of features. General maps exhibit many reference and location systems and often are produced in a series. For example, the 1:24,000 scale topographic maps of the United States Geological Survey (USGS) are a standard as compared to the 1:50,000 scale Canadian maps. The government of the UK produces the classic 1:50,000 (replacing the older 1 inch to 1 mile) "Ordnance Survey" maps6 of the entire UK and with a range of correlated larger- and smaller-scale maps of great detail. Thematic cartography involves maps of specific geographic themes, oriented toward specific audiences. As the volume of geographic data has exploded over the last century, thematic cartography has become increasingly useful and necessary to interpret spatial, cultural and social data.

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An orienteering map combines both general and thematic cartography, designed for a very specific user community. The most prominent thematic element is shading, that indicates degrees of difficulty of travel due to vegetation. The vegetation itself is not identified, merely classified by the difficulty that it presents. A topographic map is primarily concerned with the topographic description of a place, including (especially in the 20th and 21st centuries) the use of contour lines showing elevation. Terrain or relief can be shown in a variety of ways. A topological map is a very general type of map, the kind you might sketch on a napkin. It often disregards scale and detail in the interest of clarity of communicating specific route or relational information. Beck's London Underground map is an iconic example. Though the most widely used map of "The Tube7," it preserves little of reality: it varies scale constantly and abruptly, it straightens curved tracks, and it contorts directions. The only topography on it is the River Thames, letting the reader know whether a station is north or south of the river. That and the topology of station order and interchanges between train lines are all that is left of the geographic space. Yet those are all a typical passenger wishes to know, so the map fulfils its purpose. Map symbology. The quality of a map's design affects its reader's ability to extract information and to learn from the map. Cartographic symbology has

been developed in an effort to portray the world accurately and effectively convey information to the map reader. A legend explains the pictorial language of the map, known as its symbology. The title indicates the region the map portrays; the map image portrays the region and so on. Although every map element serves some purpose, convention only dictates inclusion of some elements, while others are considered optional. A menu of map elements includes the neatline (border), north arrow, overview map, bar scale8, projection and information about the map sources, accuracy and publication. When examining a landscape, scale can be intuited from trees, houses and cars. Not so with a map. Even such a simple thing as a north arrow is crucial. It may seem obvious that the top of a map should point north, but this might not be the case. Map coloring9 is also very important. How the cartographer displays the data in different hues can greatly affect the understanding or feel of the map. Different intensities of hue portray different objectives the cartographer is attempting to get across to the audience. Today, personal computers can display up to 16 million distinct colors at a time. This fact allows for a multitude of color options for even the most demanding maps. Moreover, computers can easily hatch patterns in colors to give even more options. This is very beneficial,

when symbolizing data in categories such as quintile and equal interval classifications. Map projections. The Earth being spherical, any flat representation generates distortions, where shapes, distances, and areas cannot all be conserved simultaneously. The mapmaker must choose a suitable map projection according to the space to be mapped and the purpose of the map.

Notes: 1. Laser rangefinder – лазерный дальномер. 2. Parchment – пергамент, пергаментная бумага.

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3. Magnetic storage — магнитное запоминающее устройство. 4. Printing press — печатная машина; печатный станок. 5. Rugged computer — дооборудованный, с особой надёжностью и т. п. 6. Ordnance Survey map — карта Великобритании или Ирландии, выпускаемая картографическим

управлением этих стран. 7. The Tube – метрополитен, подземка (в Лондоне). 8. Bar scale – масштабная шкала. 9. Map coloring – раскрашивание карты; раскраска карты.

Text 28 AERIAL PHOTOGRAPHY

Aerial photography1 is the taking of photographs of the ground from an elevated position. The term usually refers to images in which the camera is not supported by a ground-based structure. Cameras may be handheld or mounted, and photographs may be taken by a photographer, triggered remotely or triggered automatically. Platforms for aerial photography include fixed-wing aircraft, helicopters, balloons, blimps2 and dirigibles, rockets, kites, poles, parachutes, and vehicle mounted poles. Aerial photography should not be confused with Air-to-Air3 Photography, when aircraft serve both as a photo platform and subject. Aerial photography is used in cartography (particularly in photogrammetric surveys, which are often the basis for topographic maps), land-use planning, archaeology, movie production, environmental studies, surveillance4, commercial advertising, conveyancing, and artistic projects. In the United States, aerial photographs are used in many Phase I Environmental Site Assessments for property analysis. Aerial photos are often processed using GIS software. Oblique photographs. Photographs taken at an angle are called oblique photographs5. If they are taken from a low angle earth surface-aircraft, they are called low oblique6 and photographs taken from a high angle are called high or steep oblique7. Vertical photographs. Vertical photographs are taken straight down. They are mainly used in photogrammetry and image interpretation. Pictures that will be used in photogrammetry are traditionally taken with special large format cameras with calibrated and documented geometric properties. Combinations. Aerial photographs are often combined. Depending on their purpose it can be done in several ways: panoramas can be made by stitching several photographs taken with one handheld camera; in

pictometry8 five rigidly mounted cameras provide one vertical and four low oblique pictures that can be used together. In some digital cameras for aerial photogrammetry images from several imaging elements, sometimes with separate lenses, are geometrically corrected and combined to one image in the camera. Orthophotos. Vertical photographs are often used to create orthophotos, photographs which have been geometrically "corrected" so as to be usable as a map.

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In other words, an orthophoto is a simulation of a photograph taken from an infinite distance, looking straight down to nadir9. Perspective must obviously be removed, but variations in terrain should also be corrected for. Multiple geometric transformations are applied to the image, depending on the perspective and terrain corrections required on a particular part of the image. Orthophotos are commonly used in geographic information systems, such as those used by mapping agencies (e.g. Ordnance Survey10) to create maps. Once the images have been aligned, or 'registered', with known real-world coordinates, they can be widely deployed. Large sets of orthophotos, typically derived from multiple sources and divided into "tiles" (each typically 256 x 256 pixels in size), are widely used in online map systems such as Google Maps. OpenStreetMap offers the use of similar orthophotos for deriving new map data. Google Earth overlays orthophotos or satellite imagery 11 onto a digital elevation model 12 to simulate 3D landscapes. Aerial video. With advancements in video technology, aerial video is becoming more popular. Orthogonal video is shot from aircraft mapping pipelines, crop fields, and other points of interest. Using GPS, video may be embedded with meta data and later synced with a video mapping program. This 'Spatial Multimedia' is the timely union of digital media including still photography, motion video, stereo, panoramic imagery sets, immersive media constructs, audio, and other data with location and datetime information from the GPS and other location designs. Aerial videos are emerging Spatial Multimedia which can be used for scene understanding and object tracking. The input video is captured by low-flying aerial platforms and

typically consists of strong parallax from non-ground-plane structures. The integration of digital video, global positioning systems (GPS) and automated image processing will improve the accuracy and cost-effectiveness of data collection and reduction.

Notes: 1. Aerial photography – аэрофотосъёмка. 2. Blimp – аэростат. 3. Air-to-air – воздух-воздух, воздухо-воздушный. 4. Surveillance – наблюдение, контроль. 5. Oblique photograph – перспективный аэрофотоснимок. 6. Low oblique photograph – перспективный аэрофотоснимок без захвата линии горизонта. 7. High oblique photograph – перспективный аэрофотоснимок с захватом линии горизонта. 8. Pictometry – пиктометрия (уникальная информационная система, объединяющая аэрофотосъемку и программное обеспечение, способное обеспечить рассмотрение объектов с разных сторон и в разных масштабах). 9. Nadir – надир (точка, противоположная зениту). 10. Ordnance Survey – картографическое управление (в Великобритании и Ирландии). 11. Satellite imagery – получение изображений с помощью ИСЗ. 12. Digital elevation model – цифровая модель местности