POLITICAL ASPECTS of CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION and PUBLIC SPEAKING SKILLS

Учебное пособие

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От автора

В процессе преподавания иностранного языка студентам специальности «Теория и методика преподавания иностранных языков и культур» необходимо уделять внимания формированию не только языковых навыков, а более сложных комплексов знаний – профессиональных коммуникативных компетенций.

В ходе обучения важно максимально подготовить студентов к будущей профессиональной деятельности на иностранном языке и развить соответствующие профессиональные свойства личности, в частности общую политическую компетентность, лидерские качества, умение решать проблемы, доказывать и аргументировать свою точку зрения, строить стратегии и тактику переговоров, работать в группе, в том числе незнакомой и разновозрастной. Эти навыки необходимы как для преподавательской деятельности выпускников, так и работы в сфере межкультурной коммуникации и перевода.

Данное учебное пособие предназначено для студентов направления «Лингвистика», но может быть также использовано студентами других направлений («Международные отношения», «Политология»).

Структура пособия включает в себя книгу для студента и аудио-видео приложение, где приведены образцы речей различных политиков, аудиотексты из материалов Voice of America и других источников Интернет.

Каждая тема в рамках изучения определенной темы предполагает работу над чтением оригинальных политических текстов, аудирование неадаптированных текстов, обучение профессионально ориентированному письму, создание собственных речевых произведений различного формата и тематики, самостоятельное чтение статей, монографий и интернет-источников по изучаемой проблематике.
# POLITICAL ASPECTS OF CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION AND PUBLIC SPEAKING

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Unit 1
What is Politics?

Reading.

- What do you think politics is?
- What does “political science” include? Define the notion.
- Why did you make up your mind to become a politician (a political scientist)?
- Read and translate the definitions and mind the difference:

**politics** noun, singular or plural
- 1 a the art or science of government; b : the art or science of guiding or influencing governmental policy c : the art or science of winning and holding control over a government
- 2 a political affairs or business; esp : competition between groups or individuals for power and leadership b : political life especially as a profession
- 3 political opinions

**power politics**: noun singular or plural : politics characterized by attempts to advance national interests through military and economic coercion

**policy** noun Inflected Form: plural –cies: Etymology: Middle French policie - government, regulation, from Late Latin politia
- 1 a prudence or wisdom in the management of affairs : sagacity; b : management or procedure based primarily on material interest
- 2 a frame of reference or a set of principles or rules determining what and how things are done by a person or group it's our policy not to give refunds
- **good–neighbor policy**: noun : a policy of friendship, cooperation, and noninterference in the affairs of another country

**politician** noun
- 1 one experienced in the art or science of government; esp : one actively conducting governmental affairs
- 2 one engaged in party politics as a profession

**political science** noun : a social science concerned chiefly with the description and analysis of political institutions and processes – political scientist noun

Text 1
Political science

Read and translate the text, write down and learn the new words:

One meaning of the Greek word politeia is “government.” The word was used in ancient Greece as a general term to describe the way city-states were ruled, and it is derived from the word polis, which means “city-state.” Today the word politics refers to all aspects and types of government. Political science is a more specific term. It means the systematic study of government by the best scientific methods available. As such it is one of the social sciences, along with cultural anthropology, economics, geography, and sociology. Political science is also closely related to law because lawmaking is one of the chief functions of government. The scope of political science is as broad as the nature of government. It studies comparative types of governments; the structure, function, and agencies of governments; the roles of citizens; decision-making processes; special-interest groups and lobbying; the power of elites in society; voting patterns; the operation and influence of political parties; the shaping of public opinion and its impact on government; and the relations of media and other institutions to government. Organizations such as the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan gather vast amounts of data on elections and voter behavior.

Modern political science originated during the 19th century, when people believed that almost any subject matter could be turned into a scientific discipline. The subject matter itself, however, is very
old. Government is one of the most fundamental human institutions and therefore has been written about for many centuries. Much of the writing is philosophical and theoretical. While it discusses what government is, its chief interest is in determining what government should be. Much of the literature tends to be utopian, describing supposedly ideal states that have little possibility of realization. Plato's 'Republic' is an excellent example of political philosophy because in it he describes the ideal state and its functions. Other political philosophers include the Roman orator Cicero, author of another 'Republic'; St. Augustine of Hippo, author of 'The City of God'; Thomas Aquinas and Dante, both of whom wrote on kingship; Niccolò Machiavelli, author of 'The Prince'; Thomas Hobbes, who summed up his ideas of the state in 'Leviathan'; Montesquieu, author of 'The Spirit of Laws'; John Locke, who wrote 'Two Treatises on Government'; and Edmund Burke, author of 'Reflections on the Revolution in France'. Political science is concerned with the actual workings of government, not with the ideal state.

The founder of the subject was Aristotle in the 4th century BC. His best-known book on government is 'Politics', but he also composed a study of the Athenian constitutions. 'Politics' examines the different kinds of city-states, compares forms of government, presents the causes of revolution, and concludes with an elaborate plan for educating citizens in their responsibilities. Although Aristotle pioneered the field of political science, the subject remained within the scope of philosophy until the 19th century. The natural and physical sciences had by then broken away from philosophy. The social sciences were the last to do so, possibly because of disagreement about whether such subjects could be considered true sciences. One of the starting points in the development of modern political science came in the writings of the French socialist Claude-Henri de Rouvroy. He suggested in 1813 that politics and ethics should both become what he called positive sciences whose authority would rest upon objective evidence rather than mere speculation. He was followed in this viewpoint by the philosopher August Comte, author of 'Plan of the Scientific Operations Necessary for the Reorganization of Society' (1822). Another proponent of the scientific study of government was Ludwig Gumplowicz, a Polish-born professor of sociology in Graz, Austria. He studied the nature of groups and concluded that social movements are the result of social interaction, not of individual actions. Political science was taken up enthusiastically in the United States, a nation with a history of political experimentation. Some of the most notable works on government were written about the American system. The debates about ratification of the Constitution led to the writing of the federalist papers by John Jay, James Madison, and Alexander Hamilton in 1787. In the 1830s Alexis de Tocqueville published his 'Democracy in America', probably the best analysis of United States political institutions ever written. Two generations later the British writer James Bryce published 'The American Commonwealth'.

Politics has played a significant role in the American consciousness ever since the colonial era. As early as 1642, before the term political science was coined, Henry Dunster, president of Harvard College, added to the curriculum a course on ethics and politics. In the mid-19th century the president of Yale College, Theodore Dwight Woolsey, introduced a course in political philosophy into the school. The first permanent professorship in political science was created at Columbia University in 1857. The first man to teach the course was Francis Lieber, a German immigrant and author of 'On Civil Liberty and Self-Government' (1853). In 1880 a whole school of political science was established at Columbia by John W. Burgess, who had studied in Paris at the École Libre des Sciences Politiques (Free School of Political Sciences). In the same year the Academy of Political Science was founded. Another professional organization, the American Political Science Association, was founded in 1903. From 1880, faculties of political science began appearing at more colleges and universities. The recognition of political science as a subject was accomplished in England with the founding of the London School of Economics and Political Science in 1895. A professorship in the discipline was established at Oxford University in 1912. Apart from Great Britain and a few other European nations, the development of political science outside the United States was slow. The Japanese writer Kiheiji Onozuka published his 'Principles of Political Science' in 1903, but no significant headway was made in the discipline in Japan until after World War II. Beginnings
in the systematic study of political systems were not made in Denmark until 1959, when the Institute of Governmental Studies at the University of Aarhus was founded. The International Association of Political Science, with headquarters in Paris, was founded in 1949.

In Communist regimes around the world, the study of political science was all but impossible until the late 1980s. Since these regimes regarded themselves as having a transitional form of government on the way to the ideal Socialist society, all other political arrangements were viewed as flawed. In 1989, however, the Communist systems of Eastern Europe collapsed, and the Soviet Union entered a period of political instability. Doctrines of Marx and Lenin were abandoned nearly everywhere, and the serious study of other political systems was undertaken. Some 20th-century writers who influenced the development of political science are Arthur F. Bentley, author of ‘The Process of Government’ (1908); Graham Wallas in ‘Human Nature in Politics’ (1908); Walter Lippmann, author of ‘Public Opinion’ (1922); Charles Merriam, author of ‘New Aspects of Politics’ (1925); Harold D. Lasswell in ‘Politics: Who Gets What, When, How’ (1936); David Easton, author of ‘The Political System’ (1953); and Carl Friedrich’s ‘Man and His Government’ (1963). Recent works include Mark R. Amstutz, ‘An Introduction to Political Science’ (1982); John H. Hallowell, ‘Main Currents in Modern Political Thought’ (1984); J.R. Lucas, ‘The Principles of Politics’ (1985); C. Baker and H.B. Guyana, ‘Politics, Economics, and Society’ (1986); Jessica Kuper, ‘Political Science and Political Theory’ (1987); and Alan R. Ball, ‘Modern Politics and Government’ (1988).

(from: Britannica Student Encyclopedia from Encyclopedia Britannica 2004 Children's Edition.)

Exercises:
1. Translate the words and word combinations from English into Russian:
ancient Greece, to describe, to derive from, to refer to, available, cultural anthropology, closely related to, lawmaking, one of the chief functions, the scope of, agencies of governments, decision-making processes, special-interest groups, lobbying, voting patterns, shaping of public opinion, impact on government, vast amounts of data, along with, subject matter, little possibility of realization, to sum up, to be concerned with, to remain within the scope, a starting point, to rest upon, objective evidence, mere speculation, social interaction, notable works, a significant role, to enter a period of political instability, to influence the development, Survey Research Center, the field of political science, to add to the curriculum.

2. Give synonyms to:
to describe, aspects, type, specific, to relate to, chief, scope, broad, to influence, to shape, impact on, vast amount, data, to originate, discipline, function, to sum up, to be concerned with, to compose, to examine, elaborate, to suggest, interaction, to take up, to coin, to introduce, significant, headway, to regard, to collapse, to enter, to abandon, to undertake.

3. Form all the possible derivatives from:
to derive, to relate, broad, to elect, organization, scientific, to tend, to determine, possible, arrangements, conscious, stable.

4. Give the English variants for the words:
Общий термин, управлять, доступные научные методы, тесно связан, процесс принятия решений, формирование общественного мнения, модель голосования, влиять на, изучать, политический эксперимент, в рамках политологии, точка отсчета, воспринять, признание, поколение, филиал, период политической нестабильности, отвергать, предпринять.

5. Ask different types of questions on the first part of the text.
6. Paraphrase the second abstract of the text (substitute all the possible words and expressions by their synonyms).
7. Translate the third abstract of the text from English into Russian and from Russian into English in chain (work in pairs).
8. Make the plan of the text and retell it.
9. Translate from Russian into English:
ПОЛИТИКА (греч. politika — государственные или общественные дела, от polis — государство) — сфера деятельности, связанная с отношениями между социальными группами, сутью которой является определение форм, задач, содержания деятельности государства. Различают внешнюю и внутреннюю политику. Внутренняя политика охватывает основные направления деятельности государства, партий (экономическая, социальная, культурная, техническая политика и др.). Внешняя политика охватывает сферу отношений между государствами.

ПОЛИТИЧЕСКАЯ СИСТЕМА ОБЩЕСТВА — система социальных институтов государственно-организованного общества, осуществляющих определенные политические функции; включает государство, партии, профсоюзы, организации и движения, преследующие политические цели. Значительную роль в политическом развитии общества играет церковь.

ПОЛИТОЛОГИЯ (греч. πολιτικός — принадлежащий гражданам, гражданский, от греч. πολίτης — гражданин, далее от греч. πόλις — город; др.-греч. λόγος — мысль, причина), или политическая наука — наука о политике, то есть об особой сфере жизнедеятельности людей, связанной с властными отношениями, с государственно-политической организацией общества, политическими институтами, принципами, нормами, действие которых призвано обеспечить функционирование общества, взаимоотношения между людьми, обществом и государством.

Оформилась как самостоятельная отрасль научного знания в конце 1940-х; до того круг вопросов, связанных с теорией государственного устройства, рассматривался в рамках философии, а с конца XIX века — также социологии.

В СССР официально была названа «буржуазной лженаукой», что, однако, не помешало открытию в 1955 году Советской ассоциации политических наук.

В рамках системно-управленческого подхода в политологии объектом изучения политологии называются процессы и эффективность политического управления всеми видами технологий и процессов жизнедеятельности в государстве. В качестве логической основы системы политического управления рассматривается идеология.

В 1948 г. под эгидой ЮНЕСКО был созван международный коллоквиум политологов, где рассматривались вопросы политической науки, был определён предмет, объект, задачи политологии. Всем странам было рекомендовано ввести эту науку для изучения в высшие учебные заведения.

Как учебная дисциплина политология заявила о себе в 1857 году, когда в Колумбийском университете (США) была создана кафедра истории и политической науки. В 1872 году во Франции была открыта приватная школа политической науки, которая готовила кадры для чиновничего аппарата. Большую роль также сыграл международный симпозиум по политической науке, проведённый в 1948 году под эгидой ЮНЕСКО. Именно тогда был предложен термин «политология» и была разработана рекомендация по введению преподавания соответствующей дисциплины в рамках системы высшего образования.

Объектом изучения политической науки является политика, политическая сфера общественной жизни.

Предметом политологии являются закономерности взаимоотношений социальных субъектов по поводу политической власти.

Current events.

Using informational internet sites find and render the information about current political events.
**Text 2**

**Definition techniques.**

In the course of developing a report, essay, memo, etc. writers are often called upon to define their terms. Some of the more common definitional techniques used in professional and academic writing are described below.

- An **Aristotelian** or **formal** definition assigns a thing to a genus or class and then indicates the differences between the thing and other members of the class. Example: Craps is a gambling game played with two dice in which a first throw of 7 or 11 wins the bet; a first throw of 2, 3, or 12 loses; and a first throw of any other number (a point) must be repeated to win before a 7 is thrown--otherwise, the player loses both the bet and the dice.
- An **explication** defines the meaning of key words in an Aristotelian or formal definition. An example that might follow the above definition: Dice are small cubes marked on each side with a number of small dots, varying from 1 to 6. The number of dots on opposite sides always add up to 7.
- An **operational** definition refers individuals to a location or situation where they might observe a phenomenon. Example: If you are driving south along a highway, you will experience the Doppler effect if you listen to the sound of a car heading north that approaches and then passes you.
- An **analysis** separates a whole into its component parts. Example: Air is a colorless, odorless, tasteless, gaseous mixture containing nitrogen, oxygen, carbon dioxide, neon, and helium.
- An **example** suggests one member of a class of objects to convey an accurate impression of the entire class. Example: The maple is an example of a deciduous tree.
- **Graphics** provide a pictorial representation where lines, dots, arrows, etc. are configured into representational patterns.
- **Comparisons** and **contrasts** suggest ways in which objects or concepts are similar to or different from one another. Example: Both the maple and the pine are trees; but the former is deciduous, the latter coniferous.
- An **elimination** indicates what something is not to clarify what it is. Example: Clear-cutting is not the removal of only a few trees in a forest area.
- An **etymology** explores the origin and historical development of a word. Example: Synchronism can be better understood if we realize that the original meaning of syn was together, and that of chronism was time.
- **History** records the events in the development of something. Example: It will be easier to understand what is meant by the discipline of technical communication if we explore how it evolved.


**Exercises:**

1. **Analyse the definitions given at the beginning of the unit. What types of definitions are used?**
2. **Define the words:**
   government, city-states, term, structure, function, agencies of governments, decision-making processes, special-interest groups, lobbying, voting patterns, to pioneer, viewpoint, proponent, headquarters, transitional form of government, to flaw.
3. **Give the summary of Text 1, using the following vocabulary:**
   1. The title of the article is…
   2. The article is entitled…
   3. In the first abstract (part) of the article the author:
      - States ( Says)
      - Argues
- Thinks
- Believes
- Puts forward (advances) the idea
- Declares
- Introduces the notion of...
- Propounds a notion (a theory)...
- Sets out a doctrine (theory)...

4. In the second part (abstract) (then) the author...
   - (re)formulates a hypothesis
   - identifies the problems of...
   - highlights ...
   - specifies...
   - justifies...
   - rejects...
   - makes an assumption about smth.
   - rests his argument on...
   - recognizes the merit of...
   - grounds his argument on...
   - accepts (denies) the validity of ...
   - advocates...
   - argues for/against smth.
   - focuses on...
   - pays attention to...
   - draws our attention to...
   - probes into...
   - points out flaws (in the argument)...
   - explores, studies, investigates...
   - appraises smth...
   - shares views (assumptions)...
   - accepts...
   - recognizes...
   - tends to agree...
   - affirms...
   - asserts...
   - acknowledges...
   - notes...
   - assumes...
   - implies...
   - emphasizes...
   - rejects...
   - contends...
   - claims...
   - enumerates...
   - gives examples...
   - proves...
   - classifies...
   - passes over to...
   - outlines

5. At the end the author:
   - arrives at a conclusion (solution)...
   - concludes (comes to a conclusion)...
   - sums up...
- offers a criterion for…
- summarizes with…

**Word combinations:**

- philosophical justification
- staunch admirer (supporter)
- seminal work
- foundational paper (principles, work)
- articulate and persuasive champion (supporter)
- intellectual precursor
- deep commitment
- visionary leader
- social misfits
- radical bigots
- divine right (power)
- pointed criticism
- social upheaval (turmoil)
- benevolent authoritarianism
- unattainable goal
- unqualified success
- severe reprisals
- ineffective and unworkable system
- prophetic warning
- proper upbringing
- immutable standard
- canonical work
- flawed political strategy argument
- compelling argument
- unassailable proposition
- valid assumption
- definitive solution
- arbitrary judgment

**Introducing points in an argument:**

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<th>is that…</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Another important reason</td>
<td>would be that…</td>
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<tr>
<td>The most important disadvantage</td>
<td>might be that…</td>
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<td>The second drawback</td>
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<td>A further problem</td>
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<td>The main concern</td>
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<td>issue</td>
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<td>consideration</td>
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<td>explanation</td>
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Text 3.
(Home reading)
Public speaking

Read and translate the text, write down and learn the new words:

Among the many ways in which people communicate through speech, public speaking—also called oratory—has probably received more study and attracted more attention than any other. Politicians campaigning for public office, salespeople presenting products, and preachers delivering sermons all depend upon this form of public communication. Even people who do not make speaking a part of their daily work are often asked to make public speeches: students at graduation or at pep rallies, for instance, or members of churches, synagogues, clubs, or other organizations. Nearly everyone speaks in public at some time or other, and those who perform the task well often become leaders.

Public speaking is not informal conversation between two people—nor is it free discussion in a small group or seminar. Speaking becomes public speaking when a person addresses a group of more than one, without interruption, and takes responsibility for the words and ideas being expressed. Public speaking always includes a speaker who has a reason for speaking, an audience that gives that speaker its attention, and a message meant to accomplish a purpose.

There are many reasons for speaking in public. An orator may hope to teach an audience about new ideas, for example, or provide information about some topic. Creating a good feeling or entertaining an audience may be another purpose. Public speakers, however, most often seek to persuade an audience to adopt new opinions, to take certain actions, or to see the world in a new way.

Public speakers usually know well in advance when they are scheduled to make an address. Consequently, they are able to prepare their message before they deliver it. Sometimes, though, speakers must deliver the message unprepared, or off the cuff, such as when they are asked to offer a toast at a wedding reception or to participate in a televised debate or interview. Spontaneous speaking of this type is called extemporaneous, or impromptu, speaking. When they do not have to speak extemporaneously, most speakers write their own speeches. Politicians and business executives sometimes employ professional writers who prepare their speeches for them. These professional writers may work alone or in small teams. Although the speaker may have some input into the contents of the speech, the writers sometimes have a great influence over the opinions expressed by their employers. Regardless of how a speech is prepared, the person who delivers it is given credit for its effect upon its hearers.

Several centuries before the Christian era, societies began to recognize the significance of public speech. In about 2400 BC an Egyptian named Ptahhotep taught the art of “fair-speaking.” Later, public speech inspired the ancient Hebrews to follow what they believed to be a divine call to seek freedom from their slavery under the Egyptian pharaohs. Once free, their culture and religion were preserved and advanced by inspired public speakers called prophets. Jeremiah and Hosea exemplify the Hebrew prophets. Public speech remained influential among the Hebrews and the Egyptians, and it was soon recognized in Greece. There, in the 5th century BC, disputes over land ownership were resolved through exercises in public speaking. Those who best argued their cases won land. Many Greeks believed that public oratory was the glue of a free society. They hoped that by propagating and criticizing new ideas through vigorous public speaking they would make prudent decisions.

Aristotle wrote a large volume devoted entirely to the art of persuading others through speech. His ‘Rhetoric’ is still read today. Oratory was so important in ancient Greece that some men traveled throughout the land selling their services as teachers of the art. Unfortunately, some of these orators gained the reputation of teaching people how to convince others to believe anything they were told-
whether true or false, good or bad. To some observers this practice revealed the harm that powerful public speech can cause when it is misused.

Through public speaking, men and women have shaped present-day societies and charted the course of many nations. They have combined good training and ideas with a desire to persuade others. A great American orator in the 1700s was Patrick Henry. His famous “Give Me Liberty or Give Me Death” speech inspired many during the time of the American revolution. Daniel Webster, President Abraham Lincoln, and William Jennings Bryan were famous 19th-century American orators. Elizabeth Cady Stanton had a great influence on the early struggle for women's rights in the United States through her powerful speaking. In the 20th century the American presidents Woodrow Wilson and Franklin Delano Roosevelt and the British prime minister Winston Churchill were renowned for their speaking abilities. The positive effects they achieved contrast with the negative influence that the Nazi dictator Adolf Hitler exerted through his own form of effective public speaking. Often inspired by the ancient prophets, a few religious leaders became famous public speakers. The 18th-century English preacher who founded Methodism, John Wesley, is among these. During the same century the preaching of Jonathan Edwards had great power throughout America. Martin Luther King, Jr., Billy Graham, and Fulton J. Sheen are three examples of powerful American religious orators from the last half of the 20th century. In addition to religious effect, some of these speakers had strong political influence.

(from: Britannica Student Encyclopedia from Encyclopedia Britannica 2004 Children’s Edition.).

Exercises:
1. Translate the word combinations from English into Russian:
to attract attention, public office, to depend upon, daily work, pep rallies, to take responsibility for, to accomplish a purpose, to persuade an audience to adopt new opinions, to take certain actions, off the cuff, to offer a toast, business executives, to be given credit for, to argue ones cases, glue, to propagate and criticize new ideas through vigorous public speaking, to make prudent decisions, to gain the reputation.

2. Give synonyms to:
to communicate, to receive, to perform (the task), a reason, to provide information, to seek, to participate, extemporaneous, input, opinion, to preserve, to advance, to exemplify, to devote, to convince, to reveal, harm, to chart, to inspire, to renown, to exert, prophets, a purpose.

3. Form all the possible derivatives from:
campaign, to interrupt, to employ, to observe, to achieve.

4. Give the English variants for the words:
Привлекать внимание, обращаться к аудитории, прерывать, брать ответственность за свои слова, достичь цели, обеспечивать информацию, заранее, убедить принять новую точку зрения, предпринять определенные действия, спонтанная речь, экспромт, вклад, содержание, влиять на, произносить речь, завоевать репутацию, разоблачать, вред, воодушевлять.

5. Explain or paraphrase the words:
to deliver (a report), to address, an audience, schedule, spontaneous.

6. Give definitions to the notions in bold.

7. Entitle all the parts of the text and make a plan.

8. Make the summary of the text.

9. Ask problem questions on the text.

Listening:
Listen to the text “Splendid speaking” and discuss it in the group.

Writing:
Write summaries to Text 1 and 3. Be ready to retell them in the group.

Speaking:
Discuss the merits and drawbacks of each student’s summary.
Reading.

- Do you know any people, who are considered to be good speakers?
- What does it mean “to be a good speaker”?
- Do you think it is important to be a good speaker? Why? How can it influence your life?
- Read the text “Public Speaking Improves Every Area of Your Life” in Supplementary and discuss it. Do you agree with the author? Why?

Text 1
Public Speaking Improves Every Area of Your Life

Whether you are having a casual telephone conversation, teaching a Sunday school class, having a conversation with your boss, or giving a formal presentation, you are involved in public speaking. Following are examples of how public speaking can positively influence your everyday life, your career, your relationships, your communication style, and much more.

**Build success in your professional life.** Most presidents and CEOs of companies possess strong speaking skills. I work with many high-level executives in the business world, and when I ask them why they feel they need coaching to improve their speaking skills, they all indicate that they know their success and their companies’ future business ventures rely on their ability to speak well. Their promotions to the top were related directly to their ability to communicate effectively.

**Communicate with others more clearly.** Many mistakes or misinterpretations are a result of not properly communicating your ideas. Good public speaking skills help you articulate ideas well and make them come alive for the listener. This was one of the most critical skills I needed to develop as an engineer, because I often had to speak to audiences that didn’t know the first thing about how to “shore up” a building, for example, but had the authority and the money to fund my next project. If I was ineffective in conveying why they should invest more money, I might have been out of a job.

**Build overall confidence.** As you become better at organizing and communicating your ideas, Good public speaking skills help you articulate ideas well and make them come alive for the listener. This was one of the most critical skills I needed to develop as an engineer, because I often had to speak to audiences that didn’t know the first thing about how to “shore up” a building, for example, but had the authority and the money to fund my next project. If I was ineffective in conveying why they should invest more money, I might have been out of a job.

**Increase your comfort level in social situations.** How many of you have ever been invited to a party and are afraid to strike up a conversation? (Don’t be shy, no one can see you.) Social situations are, in fact, the perfect opportunity to practice your public speaking skills. Here’s a little bonus: It is a known fact that people who speak well are perceived as better looking. Thank God, now I know why I worked so hard at it, and it wasn’t just my cute smile that made me popular with the girls.

**Speak more confidently on the telephone.** Whether you call to request information, make a cold call at work, communicate with a client, or just leave a phone message, others can hear your confidence level in the tone of your voice. Did you know that over 86 percent of your telephone message is communicated through the tone of your voice?

**Run meetings or present new ideas more effectively.** I remember running my son’s Cub Scout pack. Having the ability to conduct a Cub Scout meeting with six to eight screaming, energetic boys definitely challenged my public speaking skills (and required a lot of aspirin). Organizing and running a meeting with adults is more difficult, I think, because you can’t bribe them with candy.
Become an effective member or volunteer. At some point in your life, you may volunteer or even be affectionately coerced to lead or participate in a professional or social organization. Your success within the organization depends significantly on your ability to speak to a group and keep their attention engaged in order to achieve common goals and objectives.

Establish trust and respect from others with greater ease. Your success in dealing with clients—or even your own children—depends a great deal on your speaking skills. The ability to convince people with words is key to establishing trust and respect. This can include not only what you say, but how you say it. If these examples describe characteristics you want to possess, then congratulations—you have the desire to succeed as a public speaker.

Exercises:
1. How do you understand the main items of the text?
   Agree or disagree with the author.
2. Can you add any reasons by yourself?
3. Read Text 2 and put down your own goals in public speaking.

Text 2
Setting Your Personal Speaking Goals

At the end of each year I try to sit down and establish some new goals for the upcoming year. Before I do this I take some time to reflect on the previous year as what I accomplished. I try to look at what went well this year as well as what did not work so well.

It is only after this process can I decide what makes sense to eliminate and what makes sense to keep doing.

Do you set goals? Do you have some established end-of-year routine that you do to determine what needs to change? If you don't already, this is the year to start the process of reflecting on your accomplishments for the previous year and establishing new goals for the current year.

I often decide in the early part of each year what seminars, workshops or training I want to take for myself. People often ask me why I continue to attend seminars even though I am a professional speaker. I tell them that even professional speakers need to "sharpen their skills" or even attend courses to just validate what they do now.

Professional speakers learn a lot from each other. Professional speakers realize the importance of honing their skills on a regular basis and often work with speaker coaches. Whether you are a professional speaker or someone just starting as a speaker it is important to constantly improve what you do. Maybe your goal is to develop a new or additional topic to speak on. That's what I did… I have prepared several sessions aimed at helping other people, especially speakers grow their internet business. My new 90 minute keynote and FULL day session is entitled, "How to Grow Your Business Using the Internet". These programs are designed to help people with the powerful technology we have in front of us today…The internet.

Maybe your goal is to become a professional speaker or maybe your goal is to speak more than your did last year. Maybe you goal is to learn how to use the internet more effectively. In any event, take the time to reflect on what your did this past year and write down what you hope to achieve this year.

Read the text about a critique and be ready to criticize Text 1 due to the model suggested.
Text 3
(Home reading)
A critique
By Susan Katz and Jennie Skerl

When college professors ask you to write a critique of a text, they usually expect you to analyze and evaluate, not just summarize. A summary merely reports what the text said; that is, it answers only the question, "What did the author say?" A critique, on the other hand, analyzes, interprets, and evaluates the text, answering the questions how? why? and how well? A critique does not necessarily have to criticize the piece in a negative sense. Your reaction to the text may be largely positive, negative, or a combination of the two. It is important to explain why you respond to the text in a certain way.

Step 1. Analyze the text
As you read the book or article you plan to critique, the following questions will help you analyze the text:

- What is the author's main point?
- What is the author's purpose?
- Who is the author's intended audience?
- What arguments does the author use to support the main point?
- What evidence does the author present to support the arguments?
- What are the author's underlying assumptions or biases?

You may find it useful to make notes about the text based on these questions as you read.

Step 2. Evaluate the text
After you have read the text, you can begin to evaluate the author's ideas. The following questions provide some ideas to help you evaluate the text:

- Is the argument logical?
- Is the text well-organized, clear, and easy to read?
- Are the author's facts accurate?
- Have important terms been clearly defined?
- Is there sufficient evidence for the arguments?
- Do the arguments support the main point?
- Is the text appropriate for the intended audience?
- Does the text present and refute opposing points of view?
- Does the text help you understand the subject?
- Are there any words or sentences that evoke a strong response from you? What are those words or sentences? What is your reaction?
- What is the origin of your reaction to this topic? When or where did you first learn about it?
- Can you think of people, articles, or discussions that have influenced your views? How might these be compared or contrasted to this text?
- What questions or observations does this article suggest? That is, what does the article make you think about?

Step 3. Plan and write your critique
Write your critique in standard essay form. It is generally best not to follow the author's organization when organizing your analysis, since this approach lends itself to summary rather than analysis. Begin with an introduction that defines the subject of your critique and your point of view. Defend your point of view by raising specific issues or aspects of the argument. Conclude your critique by summarizing your argument and re-emphasizing your opinion.

You will first need to identify and explain the author's ideas. Include specific passages that support your description of the author's point of view.
Offer your own opinion. Explain what you think about the argument. Describe several points with which you agree or disagree.
For each of the points you mention, include specific passages from the text (you may summarize, quote, or paraphrase) that provide evidence for your point of view.
Explain how the passages support your opinion.

What do you think are the main elements of public speaking? Read the text below and answer this question.

Text 4
Elements of Good Speaking

Match the words and their Russian equivalents:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Russian</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Russian</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Russian</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. to provoke</td>
<td>a. возникать</td>
<td>1. in a fair and logical way</td>
<td>a. побуждать</td>
<td>2. to arise</td>
<td>b. хитрость</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. to arise</td>
<td>b. знать</td>
<td>2. content.</td>
<td>b. знать</td>
<td>3. to excite</td>
<td>c. провоцировать</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. to excite</td>
<td>c. желать</td>
<td>3. to be aware of</td>
<td>c. желать</td>
<td>4. psychological makeup</td>
<td>d. доверие</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. psychological makeup</td>
<td>d. содержание</td>
<td>4. to reveal</td>
<td>d. содержание</td>
<td>5. to hold attention</td>
<td>e. психологический образ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. to hold attention</td>
<td>e. выстраивать</td>
<td>5. to alert</td>
<td>e. выстраивать</td>
<td>6. clarity</td>
<td>f. волновать</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. clarity</td>
<td>f. логически правильно</td>
<td>6. to desire</td>
<td>f. желать</td>
<td>7. appropriate to the occasion</td>
<td>g. полнота, законченность</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. appropriate to the occasion</td>
<td>g. удерживать внимание</td>
<td>7. to entertain</td>
<td>g. полнота, законченность</td>
<td>8. sensitivity</td>
<td>h. целостность</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. sensitivity</td>
<td>h. важный вопрос</td>
<td>8. to encourage</td>
<td>h. важный вопрос</td>
<td>9. deception</td>
<td>i. чувствительность</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. deception</td>
<td>i. определяемый</td>
<td>9. a matter of significance</td>
<td>i. определяемый</td>
<td>10. credibility</td>
<td>j. заслуживать</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. credibility</td>
<td>j. раскрывать</td>
<td>10. to marshal</td>
<td>j. раскрывать</td>
<td>11. to deserve</td>
<td>k. приводить в состояние готовности</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. to deserve</td>
<td>k. соответствующий случай</td>
<td>11. completeness</td>
<td>k. приводить в состояние готовности</td>
<td>12. integrity</td>
<td>l. ясность</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. integrity</td>
<td>l. желать</td>
<td>12. definable</td>
<td>l. желать</td>
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Translate from English into Russian without a dictionary
The Greek philosopher Aristotle described three essential factors for a speaker to remember when preparing a public speech. These are also factors for listeners to keep in mind as they evaluate speeches. By their Greek titles they are ethos, pathos, and logos.

Ethos is related to the English word ethics. It refers to the character, quality, or integrity of the person speaking. If members of an audience do not believe that a speaker deserves respect, they do not listen. An audience gives its respect to a speaker who it believes has high moral character or special knowledge about the topic addressed. Positive ethos is called credibility. Speakers seek credibility by being well prepared, by showing respect and understanding for their audiences, and by demonstrating interest in their subjects. The finest speakers not only wish to appear credible to their audience but also try to avoid the appearance of deception. They seek to understand all sides of an issue before speaking about it in public, and they are willing to learn something new from other speakers. They speak honestly and with respect for their listeners. Sensitivity and awareness of the time and place of a speech is another factor in ethos. Careful speakers talk in a way appropriate to the occasion. Telling jokes while speaking at a memorial service, for example, is inappropriate.
Speakers also win an audience's approval by speaking with enough volume, clarity, and expression to hold its attention.

**Pathos.** Unless they analyze their audiences before speaking, few speakers can be successful. Knowing what moves, inspires, and persuades people is part of what Aristotle meant by pathos. Pathos refers to the emotions and deeply felt values of listeners—their psychological makeup. An effective speaker studies and considers the people who might hear a speech in order to determine what may excite their anger, arouse their pity, or provoke them to take action, whether positive or negative. When Martin Luther King, Jr., spoke to an audience of more than 200,000 civil rights marchers in Washington, D.C., in 1963 he associated the love his listeners felt for the American dream of liberty with the struggle of black Americans for social equality. By knowing the deeply felt values of his audience, reinforcing them through his own credibility as a speaker, and identifying the dream of civil rights with those values, King delivered one of the most effective speeches in American history.

**Logos.** The third element of speaking is logos. From the Greek logos is derived the English word logic. Logos refers to the content or argument of a speech. A speech has a definable logic. If the purpose is to inform an audience of a new body of knowledge, the logos of the speech includes the completeness and clarity of the knowledge presented. If the purpose is to persuade an audience to accept a new opinion on a matter of significance, logos refers to the logical order of the reasons a speaker marshals to support the appeal to that audience to change its opinions. If the purpose is to entertain, encourage, or inspire, logos entails beautiful language, images, or humor to achieve these goals. After establishing credibility and identifying with the values or emotions of an audience, a speaker then uses logos to achieve the desired purpose. Concern for ethos alerts speakers and listeners to how a speech reveals the character and credibility of the person who presents it. Sensitivity to pathos shows how a speaker identifies with the values and emotions of an audience. Awareness of logos helps a speaker to present an argument in a fair and logical way and helps a listener to understand better a speaker's purpose.

(From: "Britannica Student Encyclopedia from Encyclopedia Britannica 2004 Children's Edition.")

**Listening / Video:**
Watch W. Churchill, M.L. King and B. Obama delivering their speeches and answer the questions:
- What words can we use to characterize each orator’s speech?
- What components did it have?
- What specific techniques did you notice?
- Whom do you consider to be more effective? Why?

Choose a fragment from any orator’s speech and deliver it as if you were W. Churchill, M.L. King or B. Obama.

How would you motivate people to speak in public? Make a short speech to your group mates.

Evaluate it according to the following scheme:

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Address</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Contents (if they are adequate to the audience)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Structure</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Manner of presentation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Conclusion</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Audience reaction</strong></td>
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Read the text and say if the principles work for you.
Do your knees feel like Gumby's when you have to get up and speak in front of a group?

Do you feel like the next words out of your mouth are going to be the dumbest words ever uttered by a human?

If you said yes to either of the questions above, be advised, you have a full-blown case of stage fright, says Lenny Laskowski, a professional speaker and President of LJL Seminars.

According to the book of lists, the fear of speaking in public is the #1 fear of all fears. The fear of dying is #7! Over 41% of people have some fear or anxiety dealing with speaking in front of groups. People who have this fear can experience all kinds of symptoms: Sweaty palms, accelerated heart rate, memory loss and even difficulty in breathing.

Some of the world's most famous presenters have freely admitted to nervousness and stage fright. Mark Twain said it best, "There are two types of speakers: those that are nervous and those that are liars".

Everyone, even experienced speakers, has some anxiety when speaking in front of a group of people. This is perfectly normal. The best way to deal with this anxiety is to first acknowledge that this fear is perfectly normal and you are not alone. To reduce your fear, you need to make sure you properly and thoroughly prepare yourself before you speak. Proper preparation and rehearsal can help to reduce this fear by about 75%. Proper breathing techniques can further reduce this fear by another 15%. Your mental state accounts for the remaining 10%.

Below are just a few suggestions you should use to overcome your speaking anxiety. The first and most important of all is preparation. I like to think of it as the 9 P's:

- Prior Proper Preparation
- Prevents Poor Performance
- of the Person Putting on the Presentation.

Nothing will relax you more than to know you are properly prepared. Below are 10 steps you can take to reduce your speech anxiety.

1. **Know the room** - become familiar with the place in which you will speak. Arrive early and walk around the room including the speaking area. Stand at the lectern, speak into the microphone. Walk around where the audience will be seated. Walk from where you will be seated to the place where you will be speaking.

2. **Know the Audience** - If possible, greet some of the audience as they arrive and chat with them. It is easier to speak to a group of friends than to a group of strangers.

3. **Know Your Material** - If you are not familiar with your material or are uncomfortable with it, your nervousness will increase. Practice your speech or presentation and revise it until you can present it with ease.

4. **Learn How to Relax** - You can ease tension by doing exercises. Sit comfortable with your back straight. Breathe in slowly, hold your breath for 4 to 5 seconds, then slowly exhale. To relax your facial muscles, open your mouth and eyes wide, then close them tightly.

5. **Visualize Yourself Speaking** - Imagine yourself walking confidently to the lectern as the audience applauds. Imagine yourself speaking, your voice loud, clear and assured. When you visualize yourself as successful, you will be successful.

6. **Realize People Want You To Succeed** - All audiences want speakers to be interesting, stimulating, informative and entertaining. They want you to succeed - not fail.

7. **Don't apologize For Being Nervous** - Most of the time your nervousness does not show at all. If you don't say anything about it, nobody will notice. If you mention your nervousness or apologize for any problems you think you have with your speech, you'll only be calling attention to it. Had you remained silent, your listeners may not have noticed at all.
8. **Concentrate on Your Message - not the medium** - Your nervous feelings will dissipate if you focus your attention away from your anxieties and concentrate on your message and your audience, not yourself.

9. **Turn Nervousness into Positive Energy** - the same nervous energy that causes stage fright can be an asset to you. Harness it, and transform it into vitality and enthusiasm.

10. **Gain Experience** - Experience builds confidence, which is the key to effective speaking. Most beginning speakers find their anxieties decrease after each speech they give. If the fear of public speaking causes you to prepare more, then the fear of speaking serves as its own best antidote.

Remember, "He who fails to prepare is preparing for failure - so Prepare, Prepare, Prepare"

(Lenny Laskowski  1997 LJL Seminars http://www.ljlseminars.com)

**Writing:**
Write a speech on the topic: “The importance of going on foot” for different audiences: children and scientists.

**Speaking:**
Deliver your speech. Though it is a joke, you should persuade your readers.

**Current events.**
Using informational internet sites find and render the information about current political events.

**Vocabulary:**
ancient, to describe, to derive from, to refer to, available, to relate to, lawmaking, the scope of, agencies of governments, lobbying, voting patterns, shaping of public opinion, impact on, vast amounts of data, along with, subject matter, to sum up, to concern with, a starting point, to rest upon, evidence, mere speculation, social interaction, notable, significant, to enter, to influence smth, the field of political science, to add to the curriculum, broad, to originate from, to compose, to examine, elaborate, to suggest, to take up, to coin, to introduce, headway, regard, to collapse, to abandon, to undertake, elections, organization, scientific, to tend, to determine, arrangements, government, city-states, term, structure, function, to pioneer, to break away from, viewpoint, proponent, headquarters, transitional form of government, to flaw, to attract attention, public office, to depend upon, daily work, pep rallies, to take responsibility for, to accomplish a purpose, to persuade an audience, to adopt new opinions, to take certain actions, off the cuff, to offer a toast, business executives, to give credit for, to argue ones cases, glue, to propagate, to criticize, vigorous, to make prudent decisions, to gain the reputation, to communicate, to receive, to perform (the task), to reason, to provide information, to seek, to participate in, input, opinion, to preserve, to advance, to exemplify, to devote, to convince, to reveal, harm, to chart, to inspire, to renown, to exert, purpose, campaign, to interrupt, to employ, an observer, to achieve, to deliver, to address, schedule, spontaneous, extemporaneous, impromptu.
A third of people on the planet will be learning English in the next decade, says the report. Researcher David Graddol says, two billion people will be learning English as it becomes a truly "world language". This growth will see French declining internationally, while German is set to expand, particularly in Asia. But the UK Education Secretary, Charles Clarke, has warned against the "arrogance" of English speakers who fail to learn other languages. "The Future of English" report, launched in Edinburgh at a British Council conference on international education, has used computer modelling to forecast the onset of a "wave" of English-learning around the world. In the year 2000, the British Council says there were about a billion English learners - but a decade later, this report says, the numbers will have doubled.

The research has looked at the global population of young people in education - including 120 million children in Chinese primary schools - and how many countries are embedding English-language learning within their school systems. The linguistic forecast points to a surge in English learning, which could peak in 2010. Speaking earlier at the same conference, Mr Clarke argued that the UK needed to improve language skills - and conceded that the country was still lagging behind in learning languages. "To be quite candid, I'm the first to acknowledge there is an immense amount to do," said Mr Clarke. "Not least to contest the arrogance that says English is the world language and we don't have to worry about it - which I think is dangerous and pernicious." The report's author agrees that English speakers should not be complacent because they can speak this increasingly widely-used language. He says Chinese, Arabic and Spanish are also going to be key international languages. "The fact that the world is learning English is not particularly good news for native speakers who cannot also speak another language. The world is rapidly becoming multi-lingual and English is only one of the languages, people in other countries are learning," said Mr Graddol. He also says that language learning numbers will decline as English becomes a "basic skill" - learnt by primary-age children, rather than something that older children or adults might want to acquire later. Mr Graddol also warns there could be a backlash against the global spread of English and a reassertion of national languages.

(from BBC NEWS: http://news.bbc.co.uk/go/pr/fr/-/hi/education/4080401.stm Published: 2004/12/09 00:11:01 GMT)
6. Explain the notion “world language” and outline its characteristic features.
7. Ask various types of questions to the text, using some introductions, such as: do you agree that..., ...according to your point of view, ...do you think...and others.
8. Do you agree with the statements in bold? Ground on your opinion.
9. Do you think Mandarin Chinese can replace English as a world language? In what case?

Text 2
What is an abstract?
by John December and Susan Katz

An abstract is a stand-alone statement that briefly conveys the essential information of a paper, article, document or book; presents the objective, methods, results, and conclusions of a research project; has a brief, non-repetitive style.

Although an abstract appears as the first section of a paper, it should be written last. You need to have completed all other sections before you can select and summarize the essential information from those sections.

Many abstracts are published without the complete paper itself in abstract journals or in online databases. Thus, an abstract might serve as the only means by which a researcher determines what information a paper contains. Moreover, a researcher might make a decision whether to read the paper or not based on the abstract alone. Because of this need for self-contained compactness, an abstract must convey the essential results of a paper.

Many publications have a required style for abstracts; the "Guidelines for Authors" provided by the publisher will provide specific instructions. This document describes general guidelines.

What goes in an abstract?
In doing any research, a researcher has an objective, uses methods, obtains results, and draws conclusions. In writing the paper to describe the research, an author might discuss background information, review relevant literature, and detail procedures and methodologies. However, an abstract of the paper should:
• describe the objective, methods, results, and conclusions;
• omit background information, a literature review, and detailed description of methods;
• avoid reference to other literatures.

What is the style of an abstract?
The style of an abstract should be concise and clear. Readers do not expect the abstract to have the same sentence structure flow of a paper. Rather, the abstract's wording should be very direct. For example, the following abstract is a self-contained description of an imaginary physics project. The key elements of an abstract are in boldface, and its style conforms to the suggestions above.

Abstract
This study's objective was to determine the strangeness measurements for red, green, and blue quarks. The Britt-Cushman method for quark analysis exploded a quarkstream in a He gas cloud. Results indicate that both red and green quarks had a strangeness that differed by less than \(0.453 \times 10^{-17}\) Zabes/m² for all measurements. Blue quarks remained immeasurable, since their particle traces bent into 7-tuple space. This study's conclusions indicate that red and green quarks can be used interchangeably in all He stream applications, and further studies must be done to measure the strangeness of blue quarks.

How do you write an abstract?
Writing an abstract involves boiling down the essence of a whole paper into a single paragraph that conveys as much new information as possible. One way of writing an effective abstract is to start with a draft of the complete paper and do the following:
1. Highlight the objective and the conclusions that are in the paper's introduction and the discussion.
2. Bracket information in the methods section of the paper that contains keyword information.
3. Highlight the results from the discussion or results section of the paper.
4. Compile the above highlighted and bracketed information into a single paragraph.
5. Condense the bracketed information into the key words and phrases that identify but do not explain the methods used.
6. Delete extra words and phrases.
7. Delete any background information.
8. Rephrase the first sentence so that it starts off with the new information contained in the paper, rather than with the general topic. One way of doing this is to begin the first sentence with the phrase "this paper" or "this study."
9. Revise the paragraph so that the abstract conveys the essential information.


Exercises:
1. Make an abstract of Text 1
2. Compare it with abstracts of your group mates. Choose the best one. Give your reasons.

Text 3
Pros and Cons of Globalization

Globalization has made world a smaller place. Let's know how, it's pros and cons and it's general impact. Globalization refers to the absence of the walls of matchboxes that every country had, between themselves based on suspicion, mutual distrust and ambition. We were different countries, in fact divided into worlds, and therefore could never manage to deal with natural holocausts and deadly epidemics, which time and again challenged us. Globalization has strengthened the nexus and has helped us to know each other’s need in a better way. It has helped to demolish those walls that separated us and curbed our natural identity of being fellow human beings. Globalization has primarily become a fiscal term but its impact is not limited to the economy of the countries only, the term globalization actually refers to every aspect of life like cultural, social, psychological and of course, political.

It is true that the impact of globalization is visible and affects largely the politics and the economy of the country but its effect on the mindset and the culture is noticeable gradually in the way people think and react. It’s like the Iceberg theory wherein what we do and say are at the tip and what we think and believe is at the base. The base is not visible but manifestations at the top are conspicuous. It applies here as well where people do not change abruptly but may be after a decade the change starts showing and seems radical.

Pro-globalization
Globalization is not a new phenomena, the base was laid long back when the Dutch East India Company and the British East India Company started trading with India. In history there were trade relations between different countries like Arab and Egypt and now in modern times that has translated into Globalization or Free Trade. It’s true that ultimately all the free trade resulted in the white man taking the burden proactively but then globalization leads to more employment and higher standard of living, especially among the developing countries. Theories suggest that globalization leads to efficient use of resources and benefits all who are involved.

According to libertarians, globalization will help the whole world to deal with crises like unemployment and poverty. It will help us to raise the global economy only when the involved power blocks have mutual trust and respect for each other’s opinion. Globalization and democracy should go hand in hand. It should be pure business with no colonialist designs. The way we have developed
in the last 10 years, globalization seems to have given us good returns. Globalization has made the life of the third world citizen completely a different story. There are so many foreign companies that have made way to Orient and have made India a brand name all over the world.

Pros and Cons of Globalization

The pros of Globalization are many and they are as follows:

- Now there is a worldwide market for the companies and for the people there is more access to products of different countries.
- There is a steady cash flow into the developing countries, which gradually decrease the dollar difference.
- Due to the presence of a worldwide market, there is an increase in the production sector and there are lots of options for the companies now.
- Gradually there is a world power that is being created instead of compartmentalized power sectors. Politics is merging and decisions that are being taken, are actually beneficial for people all over the world.
- There is more influx of information between two countries, which do not have anything in common between them.
- There is cultural intermingling and each other is trying to know about the other’s cultural preferences and in the process of doing so, we are actually coming across things that we like and in the course of time adopt it.
- Since we share financial interests, corporate and governments are trying to sort out ecological problems for each other.
- Socially we have become more open and tolerant towards each other and they who live in the other part of the world are not aliens as we always thought. There are examples like now Indian girls work in call centers and work nights, which was a taboo even two years back. We are celebrating Valentine’s Day, scraping on Orkut, watching the Idol series, Fear factor, the Indian version Big Brother.
- There is a lot of technological development that we have undergone over the years. There are fewer brain drains since Asians are working in their own country though for a foreign company but are earning foreign exchange for their country.

There are cons as many as pros, which are as follows:

- It is true that Europeans are losing jobs and that is posing a problem for them since the companies are outsourcing work to the Asian countries since the cost of labor is low and profits the company considerably.
- There is immense pressure on the employed Europeans who are always under the threat of the business being outsourced.
- Corporates are building up units in other countries equally well equipped as they have done at their own country, thus transferring the quality to other countries.
- There are some experts who think that globalization; along with the positive aspects is also leading to the incursion of negatives like communicable diseases and social degeneration.
- There is also a threat of corporates ruling the world because there is a lot of power, which is invested in them due to globalization.
- For nations that are at the receiver’s end are also giving up the reins in the ends of a foreign company which might again lead to a sophisticated form of colonization.

Impact of Globalization

Globalization has made way for free trade and business and has communication between various parts of the globe. It has potential to make this world a better place to live in. It is changing the political scenario thus deep-seated problems like unemployment; poverty and shift in power are coming to the picture. The marginal are getting a chance a to exhibit in the world market. The term "brand" is catching up in the Asian countries.

It, however, is not only modernizing but also westernizing and to an extent also sinicizing the native cultures. The power play is leading to the linguicide or linguistic, cultural and traditional genocide.
That is probably where we need to keep a check and not let diffusion go wild. There has been significant de-localization that needs individuals to be more tolerant since face-to-face interaction is no more the order of the day. One American is trying to sort out his billing issue of his mobile phone with an Indian who is not a direct employee of the service provider. Now that sounds complicated and is complicated and has to be dealt carefully.


Text 4
(home reading)
An Anglosphere Primer

Over the past several years, a new term, Anglosphere, has crept into political and social discussion in the English-speaking world. This term, which can be defined briefly as the set of English-speaking, Common Law nations, implies far more than merely the sum of all persons who employ English as a first or second language. To be part of the Anglosphere requires adherence to the fundamental customs and values that form the core of English-speaking cultures. These include individualism, rule of law, honoring contracts and covenants, and the elevation of freedom to the first rank of political and cultural values.

Nations comprising the Anglosphere share a common historical narrative in which the Magna Carta, the English and American Bills of Rights, and such Common Law principles as trial by jury, presumption of innocence, "a man's home is his castle", and "a man's word is his bond" are taken for granted. Thus persons or communities who happen to communicate or do business in English are not necessarily part of the Anglosphere, unless their cultural values have also been shaped by those values of the historical English-speaking civilization.

The Anglosphere, as a network civilization without a corresponding political form, has necessarily imprecise boundaries. Geographically, the densest nodes of the Anglosphere are found in the United States and the United Kingdom, while Anglophone regions of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Ireland, and South Africa are powerful and populous outliers. The educated English-speaking populations of the Caribbean, Oceania, Africa and India constitute the Anglosphere's frontiers.

The Anglospherist school of thought asserts that the English-speaking nations have not only formed a distinct branch of Western civilization for most of history, they are now becoming a distinct civilization in their own right. Western in origin but no longer entirely Western in composition and nature, this civilization is marked by a particularly strong civil society, which is the source of its long record of successful constitutional government and economic prosperity. The Anglosphere's continuous leadership of the Scientific-Technological Revolution from the seventeenth century to the twenty-first century stems from these characteristics and is thus likely to continue for the foreseeable future. Finally, beginning in World War I and continuing into the post-Cold War world, Anglosphere nations have developed mutual cooperative institutions. The Anglosphere potential is to expand these close collaborations into deeper ties in trade, defense, free movement of peoples, and scientific cooperation, all bound together by our common language, culture, and values.

2001, 2002 by James C. Bennett
Presented to the Foreign Policy Research Institute

Exercises:
Discuss the following questions:

- What is Anglosphere?
- Should there be a common international language?
- What do you think of English as a global language?
- What are the differences between the Oriental and Occidental societies?
- Do you think Russia belongs to the Oriental or Occidental world?
All reports have the same purpose: to convey information. Reports differ from essays in two main ways.

- The purpose of a report is to convey information, while the purpose of an essay is to demonstrate your knowledge of the subject and writing skills.
- The information in a report will usually be new to the reader, while the information in an essay may already be known.

There are two basic kinds of report.

- **Informational reports** tell the reader about a topic. They present information without analysis or recommendations. The report writer's task is to select and emphasise the relevant facts clearly and concisely.
- **Analytical reports** tell the reader to do something. They analyse and interpret data and make recommendations. The report writer's task is to select and emphasise the facts and arguments that support the recommendations.

One of the first questions to ask yourself is: What kind of report are you writing? Preparing a report begins long before you begin writing. The key questions to begin with are:

- What is the purpose of your report?
- Who is the report written for?

What are the key points of information that you want your reader to take away? Sections of a report Formal reports also take many forms depending on the field and topic. Many companies and organisations have their own house styles for reports. Formal reports are usually divided into sections with numbered headings. Although report formats vary, most reports contain the following sections.

**Title page.** Apart from the title of the report, which should give a clear idea of the topic of the report, a title page usually includes:

- Your name and position
- The name of the person or group that the report is addressed to
- The names of anyone else the report is distributed to
- The date

**Contents.** The contents page should list the main section headings of the report with page numbers. It may also list the tables and figures in the report.

**Executive summary.** A good executive summary allows a busy reader to get the main points of the report without reading the whole report. It should be short and should include:

- The purpose of the report
- The problem or issues dealt with and the main points of discussion
- The conclusions of the report
- Any recommendations made

The executive summary comes at the beginning of the report, but it is a good idea to write it after you have finished writing the whole report.

**Introduction.** The introduction explains the background to the report, its purpose and the points covered. A good introduction will be short and will help to guide the reader.

**Main body.** The main body of the report should contain a clear explanation of what you have discovered and how you have found it out. It is often divided into sections with headings that describe the topics covered. Another way to divide up the main body is:

- **Procedure** - what you did
- **Findings** - what you have found out
- **Discussion** - relating what you have found out to what the reader already knows
Many reports contain tables and figures. Each table or figure should have a caption containing a number and a title. You should only include tables and figures which contribute to the information you want to convey. It is not necessary to summarise all the information in a table in your text, but you should always explain the main points illustrated in the text following the table.

**Conclusion.** This contains the conclusions you draw from the information presented in the main body of the report. Conclusions should be firmly and briefly stated. You should not introduce new information.

**Recommendations.** Recommendations are suggestions for actions or changes. They should be specific rather than general. If the purpose of the report is simply to present information on a topic for discussion, a recommendations section may not be necessary.

**Bibliography.** A report may contain references or recommendations for reading in a bibliography. A bibliography may not be necessary, however. In reports, full references to readings introduced in the text are often given as footnotes.

**Appendices.** Appendices may include tables, texts, graphs, diagrams, photographs, questionnaires, etc. You should put these in an appendix when placing them in the main body of the report would interrupt the process of reading. Items in an appendices should be referred to somewhere in the main body. If you do not need to refer to them in the main body, you might think about whether you need to include them at all.

**Report formats**

A formal report should be formatted so that it is easy to read and looks professional. Microsoft Word and other word-processing packages can help you to:

- Use attractive fonts and page layouts
- Insert page numbers
- Automatically number headings
- Draw tables and figures
- Automatically number table and figure captions and insert references to them in the text
- Generate a table of contents and lists of tables and figures.

Before you produce your report, spend some time reading the help information provided with your word-processor to find out how to use these features.

If you use Microsoft Word, you may also use a report template, which will give you a basic layout for a professional report before you start writing.

Below are 15 suggested steps in preparing a formal analytical report. What order would you put them in?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Make a title page and table of contents</th>
<th>Prepare tables and graphics</th>
<th>Define your sources of data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Decide on your recommendations</td>
<td>Gather and analyse your data</td>
<td>Decide on the key points to include in the report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edit and proof-read the report</td>
<td>Select data to support your key points</td>
<td>Decide on the best structure for the report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write a draft</td>
<td>Define the readers of your report</td>
<td>Decide on the best order for your points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Format the report professionally</td>
<td>Write an executive summary</td>
<td>Define the purpose of your report</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Gathering Information & Materials

The most difficult and also the most important part of making a presentation is actually getting started.

Your first step is to collect and read as much information as possible about your subject. Take notes.

The next step involves selecting the information and deciding how much of it you will present. To accomplish this, you need to know how long your talk will be. Naturally, the amount of material you will discuss in an hour differs from the amount you will handle in a full-day presentation; however, the format or structure should be the same in both cases.

Deciding on the format is your next step. It is at this point that you need to decide how and in what sequence you will present the material you have chosen.

Other matters to consider are:
1. What visuals will I use?
2. Where will I stand when I speak?
3. How can I present the material clearly and in an interesting fashion?

When asked to speak in public, the first things some people think about are: "What am I going to wear?", "Will there be a lot of people there?" "What if I mess up?"

These are all important questions, but they represent just a small part of what needs to be taken into consideration when preparing a presentation.

Quality Speech Material
We often ask ourselves, "What if my speech is not good enough?" If we construct our speeches with care and properly prepare and practice, our speech material will always be good.

Don't be afraid to take risks and present new material. Remember, practice makes perfect.

Speech Preparation as a Process
Genuine speech preparation means digging something out of yourself. You need to both gather facts and arrange your thoughts. It is not enough to simply collect ideas. You must also nurture them and reflect on how to present them in a unique, organized manner.

A speech needs time to grow. Prepare for weeks. Sleep on your topic, dream about it and let your ideas sink into your subconscious. Ask yourself questions. Write down your thoughts. Keep adding new ideas.

Once you've determined your purpose for delivering this speech, state the purpose in a sentence and focus your speech around that purpose. Ask yourself, "How does this purpose relate to the audience?"

Let your purpose drive your speech

Try to come up with a good title, too. Aim not only to inform your listeners, but also persuade them.

As you prepare each presentation, you should develop a simple and orderly outline. You will need to decide the sequence you will follow from these organizational patterns:
- Sequential
- Categorical
- Problem and solution
- Contrast and comparison
In developing the sequence of your presentation, mind-mapping or webbing techniques can be very useful. Remember to decide, too, on the transitions between sections and examples you will use. Real-life anecdotes can be particularly effective.

The use of personal stories always works best for my audiences. Most professional speakers always use personal stories and quite often it is a personal story that becomes their "signature" story.

To be successful it is extremely important to start gathering information as soon as possible. Many people ask me, "Lenny, how far in advance should I begin preparing for my speech?" I always tell them, "You should begin preparing your speech the moment they ask you to speak!" The sooner you begin the more time you will have to practice your speech.

I'd like to leave you with one of my favorite Mark Twain stories. As many of you may or may not know, Mark Twain was a great speaker. In fact, Mark Twain is one of the earliest known professional speakers and when asked one day if he could prepare a speech for an upcoming engagement, he responded,"If you want me to speak for an hour, I am ready today". "If you want me to speak for just a few minutes, it will take me a few weeks to prepare."

As with most speakers, it usually takes more time to prepare a short version of a speech than a longer one. When you prepare your next speech, try preparing two - one that will run approximately one hour and one that will only run 10 minutes. You will find that Mark Twain was right. "In either case, you must gather your facts and decide on what is most important.

(Lenny Laskowski 1997 LIL Seminars http://www.ljlseminars.com)

Make an oral report with a poster presentation on the topic:
“English as a global language” or any other topic of interest. You may need expressions from the book Миньяр-Белоручева А.П. Англо-русские обороты научной речи, М., 2005

Listening:
Listen to the text “Foreign Language Learning in the US” and discuss it in the class

Writing:
1. Write a report with a poster presentation on the topic: “English as the global language”
2. Write an Essay: “Pros and cons of globalization”

Speaking:
1. Discuss pros and cons of globalization
2. Deliver your report and be ready to ask questions

Current events.
Using informational internet sites find and render the information about current political events.

Unit 4
International trade

Read the text below, translate it and learn the new words:

Text 1
The Scope of Trade

What is now called international trade has existed for thousands of years—long before there were nations with specific boundaries. Speaking in strictly economic terms, international trade today is not between nations. It is between producers and consumers or between sets of producers in different parts of the world. Nations do not trade; only economic units do. Agriculture, industry, and service enterprises are economic units; nations are political units.
Trade originated centuries ago because different sets of people each had something the other wanted, whether finished products, natural resources, or food. The Industrial Revolution, which began in the mid-18th century, enabled a few economies to develop and compete in similar goods. Today's globalized economies are spreading the manufacturing processes themselves around the world. Comparative Advantage has been customary to think of trade as the shipping of products across national borders. This is how economist Adam Smith explained it in 1776. His book 'The Wealth of Nations' implied by its title that nations were economies or at least that there were national economies. Nations are, in fact, collections of economies, all of them regional or local; and the economies would exist whether a nation existed or not. In the United States, for instance, the economy of the Los Angeles area is different from that of Detroit. Each has its distinctive characteristics and problems. The components of economies, whether agricultural, industrial, or services, conduct their business on a local, regional, or national basis. Farm products from Texas are sold in New York; cars from Detroit are sold in all parts of the country. Getting products to customers is merely a matter of transportation over longer or shorter distances. Of necessity, many businesses also trade across national boundaries. They do so to obtain natural resources such as iron, coal, petroleum, and aluminum. They also trade in finished products, such as cars and television sets. When Adam Smith explained trade, he did so in terms of comparative advantage: businesses within each nation produced what was most suitable to their region. He used the example of Portuguese wine versus English woolens. The Portuguese, with their climate, were much better able to produce good wines than were the English. Conversely, the English had ideal conditions for raising sheep and getting wool for clothing. When Smith explained trade this way, he was implying that it was the nation as such that was producing and exchanging wealth. It was really the individual producers, as economic units, who were conducting the exchanges and benefitting from them. Economically speaking, trade across national boundaries does not differ from trade across state lines in the United States or across provincial boundaries in Canada. Economies are networks of markets consisting of producers and consumers. If the producer is in Geneva, Switzerland, and the consumer in Geneva, Ill., it is no more significant than having a consumer in St. Paul, Minn., buy from a producer in next-door Minneapolis. As management expert Peter F. Drucker has stated: "Business is where the markets are."


Exercises:
1. Explain the italicized grammar phenomena.
2. Give the summary of the text.
3. Define the notions in bold.
4. Do you agree with the underlined statements?
5. Ask problem questions.

Read the text below, translate it and learn the new words:

Text 2

International Bodies and Agreements

As in every area in which people deal with one another, problems are inevitable in international trade. Common place misunderstandings spring from differences in language, in culture, and in business practice. Problems may be complicated by simple distance and by complex currency conversions. They may spring from a belief that one country is unfairly competing in another country's market. In international trade an industry may be helped by its government, a practice considered unfair by competitive industries in other countries. Officially sanctioned low wage scales or other price-cutting policies may give the first country's industry a pricing advantage that the other countries' industries cannot tolerate if their workers are to maintain their standard of living. Sometimes government officials would rather help support their export industries and keep workers on
the job than risk social unrest; sometimes they find that it costs less to help pay workers than to pay benefits to the unemployed. Governments may also find that they can make exports more competitive if they intervene—that is, buy or sell in the currency markets and keep the cost low in relation to other currencies. For reasons of practicality, justice, and compassion, it is also necessary to make sure that heavy supplies of agricultural products do not lower the prices so sharply and suddenly as to drive growers out of business and disturb markets in ensuing years. To deal with the complexities of international trade, several international agencies have been established.

The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) focuses on international economic relations and attempts to encourage economic growth and raise living standards in less developed countries. The various UNCTAD committees meet at regular intervals, and the full body meets every few years. The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) was established in 1961 to promote economic and social welfare in member countries and to stimulate and harmonize efforts on behalf of developing nations. Nearly all industrialized “free market” countries are members. As of 2001 the membership consisted of Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, South Korea, Luxembourg, Mexico, The Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The headquarters are in Paris.

International Bodies and Agreements Europe

An Union (EU), formerly called the European Communities, is the collective name of three organizations—the European Economic Community, or Common Market, the European Coal and Steel Community, and the European Atomic Energy Community. A merger of the communities’ executives went into effect on July 1, 1967. The permanent structure consists of a Council of Ministers, a Commission, a European Parliament, and a Court of Justice. Beginning after 1992, the communities aimed to integrate their economies, coordinate social development, and ultimately bring about political union. The full members are Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, The Netherlands, the United Kingdom, Spain, Portugal, Austria, Finland, and Sweden. Many nations in Africa, the Caribbean, and the Pacific are affiliated with the EU but are not full members.

The Role of Government International Bodies and Agreements

Development banks, such as the Asian Development Bank, the African Development Bank, and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, or World Bank, help with economic and social development in various regions. General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) was both an organization and a set of agreements. The purpose of GATT was to get rid of quotas and to lower tariffs. GATT was started in 1947 as a temporary arrangement. It persisted through eight rounds of trade talks, however, until it was finally replaced by the World Trade Organization. Negotiators met periodically to set rules and discuss lowering trade barriers.

International Bodies and Agreements World Trade Organization (WTO). The WTO was formed in 1995 as a multilateral organization to monitor trade and resolve disputes. In addition to negotiating new agreements it was charged with enforcing the provisions established by GATT. There are also United States government agencies that help promote United States exports to pay for imports and to create jobs for American workers.


Exercises:
1. Explain the italicized grammar phenomena.
2. Give the summary of the text.
3. Define the notions in bold.
4. Do you agree with the underlined statement?
5. Ask problem questions.

Read the text below, translate it and learn the new words:
An international organization designed to supervise and liberalize world trade, the World Trade Organization (WTO) is the successor to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), which was created in 1947. The GATT was founded in the expectation that it would soon be replaced by a specialized agency of the United Nations to be called the International Trade Organization (ITO). The ITO never materialized, however, and GATT proved remarkably successful in liberalizing the world's trade over the next five decades. By the mid-1990s, however, there were calls for a stronger multilateral organization to monitor that trade and resolve disputes. The WTO came into being on Jan. 1, 1995, with 104 countries as its founding members. The organization is charged with policing member countries' adherence to all prior GATT agreements, including those of the last major GATT trade conference, the Uruguay Round (1986–94), at the conclusion of which GATT had formally gone out of existence. The WTO is also responsible for negotiating and implementing new trade agreements. The WTO is governed by a Ministerial Conference, which meets every two years; a General Council, which implements the conference's policy decisions and is responsible for day-to-day administration; and a director-general, who is appointed by the Ministerial Conference. The WTO's headquarters are in Geneva, Switzerland. In the late 1990s the WTO was increasingly associated with the problems of globalization and unrestricted free trade. In December 1999 a WTO meeting in Seattle, Wash., provoked massive protests by various environmental, labor, and human rights organizations. In particular, they focused on the need for labor standards that would prevent the exploitation of workers, as well as restrictions to prevent industries from flouting environmental standards in developing nations with few regulatory laws. During a speech at the meeting, United States President Bill Clinton stated that labor and environmental standards should be written into WTO agreements and that nations that break the rules should be sanctioned. Representatives from several developing nations were angered by the statement, insisting that the United States was interested in imposing labor and environmental standards only as a means of protecting its highly paid workers from a truly free market. As some 100 of the 135 WTO members come from developing countries, an impasse was reached on the issue that ultimately torpedoed the meeting.


Exercises:
1. Explain the italicized grammar phenomena.
2. Give the summary of the text.
3. Define the notions in bold.
4. Do you agree with the underlined statement?
5. Ask problem questions.

Listening:

Speaking:
Economical crisis – a real or invented one.

Writing:
Essay “Why do we need economic crisis?”
Current events.

Using informational internet sites find and render the information about current political events.
Unit 5
Making a Speech

Text 1
Soft speaker: top 4 ways to let yourself be heard

by Susan Berkley. 2002

Do people often tell you that they can't hear you or understand what you're saying? You may think it's because you are not speaking loudly enough. But actually, volume may be only part of the problem. I suggest doing a systems check on these four areas:

ARTICULATION/PRONUNCIATION

VOCAL VOLUME LEVEL

VOICE PROJECTION

THE WAY YOU FEEL ABOUT YOURSELF

1. ARTICULATION/PRONUNCIATION

There is a difference between not being heard (being inaudible) and not being understood (being unintelligible). Sometimes people confuse the two. Unintelligibility may be caused by problems with articulation and pronunciation. People with poor articulation can sound throaty because their tongue is pulled too far back, or they may sound muffled because they don't move their tongue enough when they speak. Both problems affect our ability to be understood. Make sure your tongue is positioned toward the front of your mouth and that you use your tongue to clearly enunciate your words. For severe articulation problems, consult a licensed speech pathologist.

If you mispronounce your words you will also have a difficult time being understood. Brush up on pronunciation skills by consulting a good pronouncing dictionary. At the Merriam Webster website you can actually hear how many words are supposed to be pronounced in standard American English. Try this cool feature at http://www.m-w.com/

2. CONTROLLING VOCAL VOLUME

Imagine that your voice has a volume knob with five settings:

1-WHISPER

2-SOFT

3-CONVERSATIONAL

4-LOUD

5-YELL

For normal and healthy conversational speech, do not use volume levels 1 or 5. Both can strain the voice. Yell only in an emergency and save your whispers for the library, theatre or bedroom.

Strive to speak most of the time at volume level 3. Use levels 2 and 3 for color, emphasis and variety. A conversational level will differ with each situation. To be heard it must be adjusted so that we are speaking at a level that is slightly louder than the background noise around us. Obviously, there is much more background noise, for example, in a crowded restaurant than in a quiet conference room.
3. PROJECTING THE VOICE

Volume level should not be confused with projection. To project the voice, don't try to yell or force it out of your body. This causes strain. To have a voice that carries well, you must use your body's natural resonators.

Your body has three resonating cavities: the voice box, the mouth and the nose. The voice is produced at the vocal chords and then amplified in the facial mask around the lips and nose. To have a beautiful voice and project it without strain, you must focus your voice in the facial mask, blending the oral and nasal resonators.

Speech therapist Dr. Morton Cooper says the simplest way to find your facial mask is to hum. Try it now. HMMMMMMMMM. Good. Now practice alternating humming and speaking. HMMMMMMMy name is Susan. HMMMMMMMy favorite color is blue. HMMMMMMMany people say I'm a great dancer... etc. Have fun with it. Practice humming and speaking throughout the day. Once you get the hang of what a resonant voice feels like, you can drop the hum and feel the vibration of your words in your facial mask.

**Assignment:**
1. Address the people, who are near to you, at a distance, far from you. Feel the difference when you address people at different distance.

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**Text 2**

How to get any audience to love and admire you

*by Susan Berkley.*

Although TV and radio are mass media, the best broadcasters are able to make each listener feel as if they are sharing an intimate one-on-one conversation. They never elevate themselves about their audience, but speak to everyone as if they were a dear, cherished friend.

Perhaps the first broadcaster to use this technique was President Franklin D. Roosevelt in his famous radio broadcasts, the "fireside chats." FDR delivered 31 of these chats over the course of his presidency, beginning on March 12, 1933. Fortunately for us, he was closely observed by his labor secretary Frances Perkins, who gives us great insight into FDR's media style.

Here's what we can learn from Perkins' observations of FDR. While these techniques are especially useful for radio and TV interviews, use them when speaking to ANY audience; over the phone or face-to-face.

1. **He visualized his audience as individuals, never as a mass of people.**
   When I was a broadcaster on the #1 morning show in New York City, there were hundreds of thousands listening. If I had thought about all these people, I probably would have fainted out of nervousness. Instead I imagined that the only person listening was my very best friend. Your audience listens to you one person at a time, so speak to them as individuals, never as a group. Create a prototype audience member and make up a story about their life, their problems, their needs. They are sympathetic to your cause. They have come to you for help. Speak to this one person whenever you have a faceless audience- on radio, TV or over the phone. With practice, you can learn to transpose the face of your prototype onto an entire live audience.

2. **He visualized his audience on the porch, at the dinner table.**
   The dinner table visualization works great to create a feeling of intimacy and trust. I use it all the time when pitching my products and services over the phone. I imagine I've invited the other person over for dinner. We're having a casual conversation in a familiar setting. We both feel comfortable
and relaxed. The telephone works just like the radio. It's the theatre of the mind, and you are the set designer. So create a set that works for you.

3. He was conscious of their faces and hands, their clothes and homes.
   The more specific you are about your listener, the more you will connect. Can you tell me the color of their eyes? What are they wearing? Where do they live? Hands speak volumes about a person. What do they reveal?

4. His voice and facial expression as he spoke were those of an intimate friend.
   Your tone of voice is closely linked to your facial expression. A frown on your face will make your voice sound harsh and cold. But a smile will warm up your voice, making it sound warm and inviting.

5. As he talked his head would nod and his hands would move in natural, simple gestures.
   Most people think that good communication is mouth-centric. Nothing could be farther from the truth! To be a powerful communicator, you have to use your entire body. Gestures and body language add energy and enthusiasm to your speech.

6. His face would smile and light up as though he were actually sitting on the front porch or in the parlor with them. People felt this and it bound them to him in affection.
   A smile is one of the most powerful tools you have to create rapport with your listener, even when they can't see you! Smile while you speak. Smile while you dial. Smile even if you don't feel like it. The techniques used by FDR over 60 years ago are still relevant today. Give your very own fireside chat the next time you have to speak to an audience: over the air, on the phone or face-to-face...and that's one more way to unlock the hidden power of YOUR voice.

Assignment:
1. Turn your back to the audience and read them a story as if you were a mother (radio program conductor). Single out you and your group mates merits and drawbacks.

Text 3
How to Deal With a Hostile Audience

1. Listen carefully to the question & repeat it aloud - Make sure you understood the question correctly & that your audience knows the question to which you are responding.

2. Answer directly. Look directly at the person asking the question - Give simple answers to simple questions. If the question demands a lengthy reply, agree to discuss it later with anyone interested.

3. Refer to your Speech - Whenever possible, tie your answer to a point in your speech. Look upon these questions as a way to reinforce & clarify your presentation.

4. Anticipate areas of questioning - Prepare factual support material in three or four areas in which you anticipate questions.

5. Be friendly, always keep your temper - A cool presentation creates an aura of confidence. When the questioner is hostile respond as if he or she were a friend. Any attempt to "put down" your questioner with sarcasm will immediately draw the audience's sympathy to the questioner.

6. Always tell the truth - If you try to bend the truth, you almost always will be caught. Play it straight, even if your position is momentarily weakened.

7. Treat two questions from the same person as two separate questions

8. Don't place your hands on your hips or point at the audience - These are scolding poses and give you the appearance of preaching.

9. Keep things moving - There is a rhythm to a good question-and-answer exchange. They volley back & forth in a brisk manner. Keep your answers brief and to the point with many members of the audience participating.

10. Conclude smartly - Be prepared with some appropriate closing remarks. End with a summary statement that wraps up the essential message you want them to remember.

(Lenny Laskowski 1997 LJL Seminars http://www.ljlseminars.com)
Text 4

How to Handle That Dreaded Question & Answer Period

Many presentations today are followed up with a question and answer period. To some people this can be the most exciting part of the presentation. To others it can be their worst nightmare. In fact, there are some presenters who purposely avoid the question and answer period all together. Below I have provided a 5 step approach to handling questions along with some additional tips to make your next question and answer session go smoother.

1. **Listen to the entire question** Listen to the entire question BEFORE you begin to answer any questions. Too many people start responding to a question before the entire question is even asked. Not waiting to hear the entire questions can result in you providing a response which had nothing to do with the question. Force yourself to LISTEN to the entire question and make sure you understand the question.

2. **Pause** and allow yourself time to value the question and listener. REPEAT the question out loud so the entire audience can hear it. It is important that everyone "hear" the question or the answer you provide may not make sense to some of the people. By repeating the question, this will allow you some additional time to evaluate the question and formulate a response.

3. **Credit The Person** for asking the question. You may say something like, "That was a great question" or, "Glad you asked that question" or even, "I get asked that question by many people". One word of caution. If you credit one person with asking a question, be sure to credit EVERYONE for asking a question. You don't want people to feel their question was not as important.

4. **Respond to the Question** honestly and the best you can. If you do NOT know an answer to a question, do not try to fake it. Be honest, and tell them you do not know but DO promise to research the answer for them and DO get back to them.

5. **Bridge** to the next question by asking them a question. "Does that answer your question?", "Is that the kind of information you were looking for?". This is critical. Once they respond to you, "YES" you now have permission to go on to the next person. This also gives them one more opportunity to say, "No" and allow them to clarify their question more by asking it again.

Additional Tips on Handling Questions

A. Ask people to stand up when they ask a question. This does two things: (1) It shows you more readily who is asking the question, and (2) It make it easier for the audience to also hear the question.

B. Have small sheets of paper available for people to write down their questions during your presentation. They may forget what they were going to ask earlier.

C. Allow people to pass the questions to you if they feel uncomfortable standing up and asking the question out loud. This gives the person who truly wants to ask a question an option.

D. Always repeat the question - this does three things: (1) it makes sure you understood the question, (2) it gives you a chance to value the question and think of an answer, and (3) it assures the other people in the audience can hear the question since you are facing them.

E. Always take time to think "before" you answer all questions. This allows you time to think, especially for those difficult questions. Do the same for those questions you readily know the answer for. Responding too quickly to those questions you are most comfortable with will only bring attention to those questions you do not.

F. Have a pencil and paper available for you to write down questions you can't answer. You select someone to record the questions on paper. This way, you can properly follow up with the person who asked the question you couldn't answer. Be sure to get their name & phone number or address. Promise to get back to them and DO get back to them.

Assignment:

Make a presentation and a speech for a work shop and evaluate yourself due to the following:

(Lenny Laskowski  1997 LJL Seminars http://www.ljlseminars.com)
Self evaluation
http://aerg.canberra.edu.au/pub/aerg/edu12min.htm

Structure
Organize your talk along the following lines:

Tell the audience what your talk is about and where you aim to take them.

Introduce the subject by posing the problem you are to address in the context of what is already known.

Describe your approach and methods minimally - if you can assume knowledge of the audience, assume it to be already given. This section may be longer if you are presenting a research proposal.

Present the results, focussing on no more than three key ideas. Bring each idea to closure. This section may be shorter if you are presenting a research proposal.

Discuss the implications of the results for management or the discipline of study.

Some good advice: A noted speaker was asked his secret of success. "First," he said, "you write an exciting opening that will draw the attention of everyone in the room. Then you compose a dramatic summary and closing words that will leave the audience spellbound. Then," he advised, "you put them as close together as possible."

Criteria for success
A talk will be considered successful if

the talk does not exceed the allotted time of twelve minutes.

the subject is well introduced with the scope set and the objectives clearly stated.

the talk is focussed on no more than three major points with supporting data and argument.

there is minimal information provided on materials and methods, unless the talk is methodological or a research proposal.

the implications for the discipline of study or in application are clearly stated.

the talk, and each of the sentient ideas, are brought successfully to closure - the audience is not left hanging or thinking "so what"?

textual overheads/slides do not exceed 12 in number.

overheads/slides are clearly legible from the rear of the room by the most myopic, and are free of unnecessary detail or excessive content.

the talk is presented in a clear voice, audible from the back of the room and relatively free from, uh, vocal faults.

the speaker is clearly enthused by his or her topic.

questions are addressed without evasion and answers demonstrate deep understanding of the research topic and key issues that relate to it.
Presentation Skill Self-evaluation
To be a more effective presenter, it is useful to evaluate your own presentation skills. The following self-evaluation form can help you identify areas you should try to improve. Please read each item below and rank yourself from 1 to 5 based on how frequently you believe you adhere to the item (1=never and 5=always). Then concentrate on the points that you have ranked with low numbers when you are trying to improve your oral presentation skills.

When you have finished, compute your score and save a copy of this page for your record. After you have worked on your presentation skills unit complete this questionnaire again to see if you shown any improvement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) I determine some basic objectives before planning a presentation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) I analyze the values, needs and constraints of my audience.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) I write down some main ideas first, in order to build a presentation around them.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) I incorporate both a preview and review of the main ideas as my presentation is organized.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) I develop an introduction that will catch the attention of my audience and still provide the necessary background information.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6) My conclusion refers back to the introduction and, if appropriate, contains a call-to-action statement.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7) The visual aids I use are carefully prepared, simple, easy to read, and have impact.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8) The number of visual aids will enhance, not detract, from my presentation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9) If my presentation is persuasive, arguments are used that are logical and that support my assertions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10) I use anxiety to fuel the enthusiasm of my presentation, not hold me back.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11) I ensure the benefits suggested to my audience are clear and compelling.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12) I communicate ideas with enthusiasm.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13) I rehearse so there is a minimum focus on notes and maximum attention paid to my audience.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14) My notes contain only &quot;key words&quot; so I avoid read up from a manuscript or technical paper.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15) My presentations are rehearsed standing up and using visual aids.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16) I prepare answers to anticipated questions, and practice responding to them.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17) I arrange seating (if appropriate) and check audio-visual equipment in advance of the presentation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18) I maintain good eye contact with the audience at all times.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19) My gestures are natural and not constrained by anxiety.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20) My voice is strong and clear and is not a monotone.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Evaluate your score:
- If you scored between 80-100, you are an accomplished speaker who simply needs to maintain basic skills through practice.
- If your total score was between 60-80, you have the potential to become a highly effective presenter.
- If your score was between 40 and 60, this resource can help you significantly.
- If you scored between 30 and 40, you should show dramatic improvement with practice.
If your total was below 30, roll up your sleeves and dig in. It may not be easy - but you can make excellent progress if you try. At the end of the course, take this evaluation again and compare your scores. You should be pleased with the progress you have made.


**Reading.**

- What is informational society?
- Do you agree with the statement, that we get not the information, but the informational product? How do you understand it?

**Text 5**

**Informational society**

A socially-inclusive information society will not come about by itself, nor can it be brought about solely by the efforts of information workers. How do we develop and share a vision of such a society? How do we identify and overcome the barriers to the fulfillment of that vision?

The information society implies potential changes in the ways in which people share information, send and receive messages, learn, gossip and interact. Network technologies such as the internet and mobile telephones are affecting the ecology of relationships. Transactions with authorities are becoming faster and more direct. Organizations are becoming ‘flatter’ and find it easier to work in partnership, more easily setting up virtual teams for particular projects. The potential for change can be bewildering and our understanding is subject to hype and extravagant claims. The risks of exclusion from these developments, at the local level, among specific social groups, and between nations, seem threatening. But the potential to exploit information and communication technologies, to reduce inequalities and enhance the quality of life seems beyond question. This seminar explores the nature of social exclusion and seeks to develop an understanding of the contribution of information and communication in promoting the conditions of inclusion. It will examine the relationship of information and communication to participative democracy; and considers both the role and skills of citizens, and the issues for policy. Topics covered include: Understanding exclusion, promoting inclusion civil society, social cohesion and diversity. Information, communication and community neighborhoods: communication and ‘place’ among communities of interest. Citizenship in the information society, information and democratic participation skills for the information society: ‘information capability’ policy for the information society: government strategies. The information society and global forces. The seminar has been designed to ensure active participation and involvement, and participants will be invited to share their own experience at several points in the program. Participant profile. The seminar is intended to attract people who can help bring about change, at local, regional or national level. It is designed to be of benefit to anyone involved in communication within a context of social inclusion. These could include practitioners, local government officers who are planning services, policy officials, information managers, and media representatives, members of self-help groups and researchers.

(From: “Information, communication and participative democracy”, Cardiff, 26-31 January 2004)

**Assignment:**

1. Define the type of the text above. Is it a narration, advertisement or something else?
2. Structure the text. Outline the main parts.
3. Compose a similar type of the text, advertising a conference or a workshop session.
Text 6
The end of history

Writing as the Berlin Wall fell in 1989, Francis Fukuyama famously announced the “End of History.” The world, he argued, was fast approaching the final stage of its political evolution. Western democratic capitalism had proved itself superior to all its historical rivals and now would find acceptance across the globe. Here were the communist regimes dropping into the dustbin of history, Fukuyama noted, while dictatorships and statist economies in Asia and South America were toppling too. A new world consumer class was evolving, leaving behind such retrograde notions as nationhood and national honor. As a result, war would grow rare or even vanish: what was there left to fight about? Gone, or going fast, was the old stuff of history—the mercurial, often larger-than-life men who sorted out on the battlefield the conflicts of traditions and values that once divided nations. Fukuyama acknowledged that the End of History would have a downside. Ennui would set in, as we sophisticated consumers became modern-day lotus-eaters, hooked on channel surfing and material comforts. But after the wars of the twentieth century, the prospect of peaceful, humdrum boredom seemed a pretty good deal.

How naive all this sounds today. Islamist hijackers crashing planes into the World Trade Center and the Pentagon, and the looming threat of worse terror outrages, have shown that a global embrace of the values of modern democracy is a distant hope, and anything but predetermined. Equally striking, it’s not just the West and the non-democratic world that are not converging; the West itself is pulling apart. Real differences between America and Europe about what kind of lives citizens can and should live not only persist but are growing wider.

Assignment:
1. Give the summary of the text.
2. Translate the words in bold.
3. Discuss the following items:
   ● Comment on the notion “the end of history”.
   ● What is the final stage of political evolution according to F. Fukuyama? What do you think about it?
   ● Do you agree that “Western democratic capitalism had proved itself superior to all its historical rivals and now would find acceptance across the globe”?
   ● Do you consider such notions as nationhood and national honor retrograde?
   ● Do you believe there is nothing to fight about in contemporary world?
   ● What are the main threats and dangers of the modern world according to the author?
   ● Why does he think that “Real differences between America and Europe about what kind of lives citizens can and should live not only persist but are growing wider”?

Text 7
Impromptu or Extemporaneous Speaking

While many of us do not like to speak in front of people, there are times when we are asked to get up and say a few words about someone or a topic when we have not planned on saying anything at all. We are more shocked than anyone else. Has this ever happened to you? If and when this does happen to you, be prepared to rise to the challenge. Below are some tips you can use the next time you are called on to speak.

- Decide quickly what your one message will be - Keep in mind you have not been asked to give a speech but to make some impromptu remarks. Hopefully they have asked you early enough so you can at least jot down a few notes before you speak. If not, pick ONE message or comment and
focus on that one main idea. Many times, other ideas may come to you after you start speaking. If this happens, go with the flow and trust your instincts.

- **Do not try and memorize what you will say** - Trying to memorize will only make you more nervous and you will find yourself thinking more about the words and not about the message.

- **Start off strong and with confidence** - If you at least plan your opening statement, this will get you started on the right foot. After all, just like with any formal speech, getting started is the most difficult. Plan what your first sentence will be. You may even write this opening line down on your note card and glance at it one more time just before you begin speaking. If you know you have three points or ideas to say, just start off simple by saying, "I would just like to talk about 3 points". The first point is... the second point is... and so on.

- **Decide on your transitions from one point to the other** - After you have decided on your opening remark or line, come up with a simple transition statement that takes you to your main point. If you have more than one point to make, you can use a natural transition such as, "My second point is... or my next point is..." etc. Just list on your note card or napkin, if you have to, the main points or ideas. Do not write out the exact words, but just the points you want to mention.

- **Maintain eye contact with the audience** - This is easier to do if you do not write down all kinds of stuff to read. Look down at your next idea or thought and maintain eye contact with your audience and speak from your heart. Focus on communicating TO your audience and not speaking AT the crowd.

- **Occasionally Throw in an off-the-cuff remark** - Because you want your style to be flexible and seem impromptu, trust your instinct and add a few words which just pop into your head. Keep it conversational and think of the audience as a group of your friends.

- **Finally, have a good conclusion** - Gracefully just state, "And the last point I would like to make is ....". Once you have made your last point, you can then turn control back to the person who asked you to speak in the first place.

With a little practice, this process will feel more natural to you. Anticipating that you MAY be asked to say a few words should force you to at least think about what you might say if you are asked. Then if you ARE asked, you are better prepared because you anticipated being asked. This is much better than thinking they won't ask you and they actually do!

(Lenny Laskowski 1997 LJL Seminars http://www.ljlseminars.com)

**Assignment:**
1. Make a toast on any topic you wish
2. Make a short speech to motivate your group mates to do smth.

**Listening:**

**Writing:**
Write a scenario and a speech for a work-shop.

**Speaking:**
Deliver your speech in the class and let other students evaluate it.

**Unit 6**

**Nationalism**

**Reading.**
What do you think this text is about?
Can you explain the notions “nation” and “nationalism” without reading the text?

Read the text below, translate it and learn the new words:
A nation is a unified territorial state with a political system that governs the whole society. A nation may be very large with several political subdivisions—such as the United States, China, Canada, or Australia—or it may be a small unit like the city-state of Singapore. A nation need not consist of a single, continuous geographical unit. The Philippines and Indonesia, for example, are made up of thousands of islands. Some nations consist almost entirely of a single ethnic group: Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Iceland are examples. Others—such as the United States and Canada—contain great ethnic diversity. In parts of Africa and India there are many tribes or ethnic divisions, and many languages and dialects are spoken. Just as students may have school spirit, so too may citizens have feelings of attachment, loyalty, and commitment to their country. For many, nationalism is the highest loyalty. It makes no difference if the nation is made up of one or of many ethnic groups. The attachment called nationalism, or patriotism, can be equally intense. Underlying this attachment is the natural human desire to belong to a society. As the nation is the most common political structure in the modern world, so nationalism is the most potent force. In the 20th century it proved far more powerful than religious ties or such ideologies as Communism or socialism. When a choice between adherence to an ideology or religion and loyalty to a nation has been required, the latter has normally won. Living as a citizen of a nation today is taken so much for granted that it is difficult to imagine alternatives, but in fact the nation and nationalism are fairly recent developments. Both emerged toward the end of the 18th century, though the growth that made them possible had long been in process. The American and French revolutions were the first striking manifestations of nationalism, and both happened within a short span of time. Previously people did not give their loyalties to a nation-state but to other forms of political organization: tribes, city-states, religious groups, kings, or nobles. For much of the ancient period, the Roman Empire was the all-embracing political system. After its fall the Western world became a civilization bound together by loyalties to either the Roman Catholic or Eastern Orthodox churches. In the Middle East and North Africa, the religion of Islam claimed the allegiance of most people. The emergence of national feeling was encouraged in the early years of the modern period (about 1500) by the establishment of absolute monarchies that pushed aside the religious and social allegiances of the Middle Ages. The Reformation destroyed the religious unity of Europe, and states became increasingly secularized. The growth of commerce and industry demanded larger territorial units with strong government in order to allow economies to develop in a dynamic way. With the centralization of political power came the new theories about the rights of individuals and the sovereignty of the people. During the 19th century nationalism spread throughout Europe and Latin America. Germany and Italy became unified nations. In Latin America, anticolonial revolutions broke the bonds with Spain and Portugal. In the 20th century, anticolonialism was the moving force behind nationalist movements in Asia and Africa. After World War II campaigns for self-determination succeeded more easily. By the 1990s there were more than 185 separate nations in the world.

Ethnocentrism
view or opinion that one's own group is the center of civilization; all other groups are merely a reflection of one's own group, and one's own way of life is the best way of life; group can be defined by economics, race, religion, caste, or class; some degree of ethnocentrism is known in all societies and cultures; racism and extreme nationalism are examples; solutions include comparative knowledge of one's own and other cultures; concept does not involve only a preference for one's own way of life, but prejudice against other ways of life.


Exercises:
1. Give Russian equivalents to the words and word combinations
Several political subdivisions, continuous geographical unit, to contain, a single ethnic unit, ethnic diversity, tribes, loyalty, commitment to their country, to belong to a society, potent political force,
religious ties, adherence to, to take for granted, to imagine alternatives, recent developments, to emerge, striking manifestation, all-embracing, a short span of time, to claim allegiance, to be encouraged, the establishment of absolute monarchies, to become secularized, territorial units, centralization of political power, to develop in a dynamic way, the sovereignty of the people, unified nations, to break the bonds, moving force, self-determination.

2. **Give English equivalents to the words and word combinations**
   Целое общество, город-государство, состоять из, этническое разнообразие, граждане, чувство привязанности, патриотизм, естественное человеческое желание,

3. **Paraphrase the words**:
   tribes ,attachment, adherence, to take for granted ,developments, striking manifestations, span of time, all-embracing, the allegiance, increasingly secularized, commerce, unified broke the bonds.

4. **Suggest the synonyms for the following words**: subdivison, geographical unit, to contain, attachment, loyalty, force, manifestation, and establishment.

5. **Ask problem questions**

6. **Define the main notions in the bold type**.

7. **Do you agree with the statements**:
   a/ nationalism is the highest loyalty
   b/ nationalism is the most potent political force.
   c/ During the 19th century, nationalism spread throughout Europe

8. **Give the summary of the text, paying attention to the main idea**.

9. **Discussion: What are the roots of nationalism?**

10. **Work in pairs**:
    Make up dialogues about nationalism in Russia.

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**Text 2**

**The Questions of Nationalism**

*(home reading)*

How does nationalism cause war? Indeed, what is nationalism and what is a nation? The dictionary defines a nation as a group claiming **common identity** and the right to be a state. But what kinds of groups does that encompass? What is the source of the common identity? One claim is ethnic similarity, but the United States is ethnically diverse and yet one nation. Another claim is **linguistic similarity**, but Switzerland is **linguistically diverse** and yet one nation, others say religion can be the basis of a nation and some states, such as Israel and Pakistan, are largely based on religious identity. The point is that when a group of people with a common identity calls itself a nation, there can be various sources of that identity. As the French thinker Ernest Renan put it; "The essential element of a nation is that all its individuals must have many things in common, but they must also have forgotten many things."

Nationalism is tricky because it is not merely a **descriptive term**, it is also **prescriptive**. When words are both descriptive and prescriptive, they become political words used in struggles for power. Nationalism has become a crucial source of state legitimacy in the modern world. Therefore, claims to nationhood become powerful instruments. If a people can get others to accept its claim to be a nation, it can claim national rights, and use such claims as a weapon against its enemies. For example, in the 1970s, the Arab states successfully lobbied in the UN General Assembly to pass a resolution that labeled Zionism as racism. Their intent was to deprive Israel of **the legitimacy** of calling itself a nation. To be labeled as racist is bad; to be labeled as nationalist is generally good. To argue that Israel was not a nation was to use words as weapons.

The analytic problem with the argument was that religion can be a basis of national identity. It is also true that a religious basis can make it more difficult for **minorities** outside the religion to share the national identity. The world is harder for Moslems in Israel than for Jews, just as the world is harder for Hindus in Pakistan than for Moslems. But it does not follow that because
people use religion to call themselves a nation that the state is racist. The UN General Assembly finally annulled the resolution by a second vote in 1991.

In the eighteenth century, nationalism was not all that important. Why have claims to nationalism become so important now? After all, humans are capable of multiple loyalties—above and below the state level—and these loyalties can change. Loyalties tend to change when the usual patterns of life are disrupted. The idea of the nation often starts among the most disrupted, with people who are marginal figures in their own cultures and less certain about their identity. These are often people who are jolted out of normal patterns and start to ask questions. National claims often start with intellectuals or with deviant religious groups. For example, the early Arab nationalists in the nineteenth century were often Christians rather than Moslems. Gradually their concerns about a new identity developed broader support as industry and urbanization disrupted the traditional patterns and loyalties of rural societies.

The disruptions that mobilize people for new identities can come from internal or from external forces. Modern nationalism was greatly stimulated by the French Revolution. The rise of the middle class disrupted traditional political and social patterns. Rising political groups no longer wanted the state of France to be defined by the king but to be defined in terms of the nation, all the people. And externally, as Napoleon’s armies marched across Europe, they disrupted society and mobilized nationalist feelings among German-speaking peoples and others. By the middle of the century, there was widening support for the idea that each nation should have a state. This ideal culminated in the unification of Germany and Italy. Ironically, Bismarck was a conservative who did not try to unite all German speakers, only those he could control for the Prussian crown. Nonetheless, he turned nationalism to his purposes, and the unification of Germany and Italy became the models of success.

World War II weakened the European colonial empires, and decolonization was one of the major movements in Asia and Africa over the next three decades. The metropolitan societies had been weakened by the war itself, and elites in the colonized areas began to use the idea of nationalism against the European empires. But if the nineteenth-century model of states based on language and ethnicity had been used to organize the postcolonial world, it would have led to thousands or mini-states in Africa and many parts of Asia. Instead, the postcolonial elites asserted the right of the state to make a nation, just the opposite of the nineteenth-century pattern. The local leaders argued they needed to use the state machinery that the colonists had established—the budget, the police, and the civil service—to shape a nation out of smaller tribal groups. The same ideology of nationalism came to be used to justify two things that are almost the opposite of each other—nation makes state, or state makes nation—because nationalism is a political word with an instrumental use.


Exercises:
1. **Give Russian equivalents to the following words and phrases:**
   - To cause the war, to claim common identity, ethnic similarity, ethnically diverse, religious identity, descriptive, prescriptive, state legitimacy, to claim national rights, to lobby, to be labeled as, to annul the resolution, marginal figures, deviant religious group, decolonization, to assert the right, to justify.

2. **Give English equivalents to the following words and phrases**
   - Этническое разнообразие, лингвистическое подобие, существенный элемент нации, описательный термин, борьба за власть, признание законности государства, оружие против врагов, лишить ч.-н., аннулировать резолюцию, развивать широкую поддержку, внутренние и внешние источники, ослабить общество, использовать государственную машину.

3. **Make true or false statements.**
4. **Define the main notions you’ve come across in the text in bold type.**
5. **Ask problem questions.**
6. **Give the summary of the text.**
7. Discussion:
Nationalism in the modern world.
8. Work in pairs
Nationalism and wars.

Text 3
Racism

Introduced into the English language long before its current meaning was commonly agreed on, the word race initially meant simply a group with something in common. This shared identity could be species-wide ("the human race") or could be based on a number of characteristics such as national interest ("the French race"), way of life ("a race of women warriors"), or religion ("the Jewish race"). As Europeans began to explore and colonize the world and to come into contact with a great many peoples with vastly different cultures, notions of a hierarchy of human types—designed to uphold the superiority of the conquerors—became popular. With the conquest and settlement of the New World, where there was a great labor shortage, these notions became part of the social fabric. The advancement of the sciences—the measurement of body parts, the "objective" quantification of intelligence—lent a seeming legitimacy to a social attitude of convenience. Over time, these factors solidified into a "racial worldview," a systematic, institutionalized set of beliefs and attitudes that viewed humankind as divided into permanently distinct and unequal populations that could be ranked in a hierarchy. Each race supposedly possessed a number of different behavioral and physical traits, such as skin color, head shape, and hair texture, that were transmitted from parents to offspring and that were sufficient to characterize the race as a distinguishable human type (for example, Caucasoid, Mongoloid, Negroid).

A product of the belief that humans are divided into separate and exclusive biological entities called "races" is racism, an ideology based on the notion that some races are innately superior to others. According to the "racial worldview," there is a causal link between inherited physical traits and traits of personality, intellect, morality, and other cultural behavioral features. Racism was at the heart of North American slavery and the colonization and empire-building activities of some Western Europeans overseas, especially in the 18th century. The idea of race was constructed to magnify the differences between people of European origin in the United States and those of African descent whose ancestors had been brought against their will to function as slaves in the American South. By projecting Africans and their descendants as lesser human beings, the proponents of slavery attempted to justify and maintain this system of exploitation. The contradiction between slavery and the ideology of human equality, accompanied by a philosophy of human freedom and dignity, seemed to demand the dehumanization of those enslaved. By the 19th century, racism had matured and the idea spread around the world. Conflicts stemming from racism and ethnocentrism remain a serious problem. Lingering racial divisions in post-apartheid South Africa, social inequality and unrest in the United States and other parts of the world, resentment in Great Britain directed against immigrants from former colonies, and reluctance on the part of many nations in many areas to accept Southeast Asian refugees are just a few examples of the results of conflicts between racial and ethnic groups.

Racism differs from ethnocentrism in that it is linked to supposedly physical and therefore immutable differences among people. Ethnic identity is acquired, and ethnic features are learned forms of behavior. Race, on the other hand, is a form of identity that is perceived as innate and unalterable. In the last half of the 20th century, many conflicts around the world were interpreted in racial terms even though their origins were in the ethnic hostilities that have long characterized many human societies (for example, Arabs and Jews, English and Irish). Racism reflects an acceptance of the deepest forms and degrees of divisiveness and carries the implication that differences between groups are so great that they cannot be transcended.

Exercises:
1. Give Russian equivalents to the following words and phrases:
   Current meaning, species-wide, to explore the world, vastly different cultures, to uphold the supe-
  riority of the conquerors, labor shortage, different behavioral and physical traits, distinguishable
   human type, descendants, proponents, innate, unalterable, to be transcended
2. Give English equivalents to the following words and phrases
   означать первоначально, основываться на, образ жизни, завоевание и заселение Нового мира,
   человечество, потомки, система эксплуатации, противоречие, дегуманизация, апартейд, эт-
   ническая враждебность, врожденный, неизменяемый.
3. Explain the following words that can be found in the text in the bold type.
4. Agree or disagree with the underlined statements.
5. Ask problem questions.
6. Define the main idea and present your own conclusion of what you have read about.
7. What is the difference between the notions: “nationalism, nationhood, ethnocentrism, racism”?
8. Is there any difference between the original meaning of these words and the contempo-
   rary ones?

Listening:
1. See the film about Ku Klux Klan, Africans in America, Welcome home, South Korea and discuss
   them.
2. See Movie Maker films, made by students and discuss their merits and drawbacks.

Writing:
Write an Essay on one of the topics:
- Ethnocentrism in the modern world.
- The policy of dubious standards.
- The implied motives of racism. Can we speak about racism in Russia?
- Nationalism and nationhood: what is bad and what is good.

Speaking:
Discuss the problems of nationalism and racism and various points of view on the matter.

Text 4
What Not To Do When Making a Keynote Presentation

By Don Wetmore 1999

1. TRY TO FOOL THE AUDIENCE. It probably won't work. Audiences are very perceptive. They
   know when the speaker is congruent and "walks the talk". They also know when the presenter
   is just giving a book report, having spent a little time in preparation to learn about the high
   points of the topic presented. When you are the keynoter, your audience ought to sense that
   you are not just a gallon of water, but, rather, a fountain of knowledge.
2. READ IT FROM YOUR TEXT. We liked hearing stories read to us as children. But our a-
   udiences are adults. They want to experience what is in your heart and in your mind. Notes to
   guide you through the important points are fine, but if you are reading from a text, you may as
   well hire a professional ac-
   tor who is trained to bring a script to
   life. Know your material cold. Tailor it as you deliver it. As your
   audience reacts to a particular point, expand on it. Feed them what they hunger for.
3. USE INSIDE STORIES. Be sure to mention some event or some anecdote about someone that
   most of your audience will know nothing about. Isolate the majority of your audience. Keep them
   in the dark. Make them feel that they are not among the chosen few. Use their time to have a private,
   inside dialogue with someone. They will be riveted.
4. MAKE YOUR AUDIENCE THE BUTT OF A JOKE. Humor is a wonderful communication
   tool (if you are funny). Self-deprecating humor that reveals your own vulnerabilities and foibles
   works. Stories about people and events, other than your audience, if done in good taste, will set the
tone for a positive learning environment. But if you direct the barbs of your humor directly to your audience, you set up an "us versus him/her" climate that will interfere with your message getting out. Attacking an audience, even if not meant to offend, will tend to make them defensive and distrustful of the speaker.

5. GO OVER THE TIME LIMIT. You have a contract with your audience. Their obligation is to be attentive. Yours is to deliver the material that was promised and to do it within the announced time frame. If you are given twenty minutes, finish in twenty minutes. If no time frame is announced, tell the audience up front how much of their time you will take. ("We are going to be together for the next 50 minutes and during this brief time"). I frequently tell my audiences at the outset of my presentation, "I will be your speaker and you will be my audience. If you get done before I do, please let me know."

Project work.

Power Point Presentation on Nationalism or migrations.

Vocabulary:
tribe, attachment, adherence to, to take for granted, development, to emerge, span, nobles, to embrace, allegiance, commerce, to encompass, crucial, legitimacy, to intent, to deprive of, to disrupt, marginal figures, to jolt, deviant, rural, externally, proponents, dehumanization, to stem, to linger, unrest, reluctance, resentment, a refugee, immutable, implication, divisiveness, to transcend, hierarch, to uphold, settlement, labor shortage, social fabric, advancement, quantification, attitude of convenience, to solidify, to transmit, offspring.

Current events.

Using informational internet sites find and render the information about current political events.

Unit 7
Terrorism

Reading.
1. What do you know about terrorism?
2. What examples of world terrorism can you give?
3. What is modern terrorism?

Read and translate some background information.

Terrorism: "...the systematic use of terror or unpredictable violence against governments, publics, or individuals to attain a political objective. Terrorism has been used by political organizations with both rightist and leftist objectives, by nationalistic and ethnic groups, by revolutionaries, and by the armies and secret police of governments themselves. "Terrorism is defined in the U.S. by the Code of Federal Regulations as: "...The unlawful use of force and violence against persons or property to intimidate or coerce a government, the civilian population, or any segment thereof, in furtherance of political or social objectives." (28 C.F.R. Section 0.85). The FBI further describes terrorism as either domestic or international, depending on the origin, base, and objectives of the terrorists:
• Domestic terrorism is the unlawful use, or threatened use, of force or violence by a group or individual based and operating entirely within the United States or its territories without foreign direction committed against persons or property to intimidate or coerce a government, the civilian population, or any segment thereof, in furtherance political or social objectives.
• International terrorism involves violent acts dangerous to human life that are a violation of the criminal laws of the United States or any state, or that would be a criminal violation if committed within the jurisdiction of the United States or any state. These acts appear to be intended to intimi-
date or coerce a civilian population, influence the policy of a government by intimidation or coercion, or affect the conduct of a government by assassination or kidnapping. International terrorist acts occur outside the United States or transcend national boundaries in terms of the means by which they are accomplished, the persons they appear intended to coerce or intimidate, or the locale in which the perpetrations operate or seek asylum.

Assignment:
1. Comment on different types of terrorism.

Read the text below, translate it and learn the new words:

Text 1
Organizations, Goals, Tactics, and Financing

Terrorists use violence in an attempt to achieve political goals. Their intent is to bring about political change by creating a climate of fear within the society they oppose. The targeting of innocent victims and symbolic locations for a high-profile attack has long been the preferred method of terrorist organizations. Terrorism reached a new level of death and destruction on Sept. 11, 2001. In the worst attack on the United States since the bombing of Pearl Harbor in 1941, thousands of people were killed by suicide attacks on New York City's World Trade Center and the Pentagon in Washington, D.C. Using hijacked airliners in a coordinated assault, terrorists struck two major symbols of U.S. commercial and military strength. For centuries, terrorism was an instrument of repression by governments as well as a tool of revolutionaries trying to overthrow governments. During the last half of the 20th century, the occurrence of terrorism increased dramatically throughout the world. (See also anarchism; assassination; totalitarianism.) Several terrorist organizations started in the late 1960s. Their members traveled across national borders and often trained together in guerrilla camps in Cuba, Libya, Eastern Europe, and the Middle East. Some of the best-known terrorist organizations of the late 20th century were Germany's Baader-Meinhof Gang (Red Army Faction); the Red Brigades in Italy; the Japanese Red Army; the Provisional Irish Republican Army; the Ulster Defense Association; the Palestine Liberation Front and other groups at one time related to the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO); the Abu Nidal Organization (Black September) and Hezbollah (Party of God) in Lebanon; the Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine; the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC); Sendero Luminoso (Shining Path) in Peru; and the Islamic extremist group known as al-Qaidah. The goals of these groups varied. Some terrorist groups, such as Osama bin Laden's al-Qaidah, were Islamic extremists wanting to overthrow secular governments in countries with large Muslim populations. Other groups were purely nationalistic. The Provisional Irish Republican Army wanted the British to get out of Northern Ireland and to unite the two Irelands into a single nation. The FALN sought an independent Puerto Rico with a socialist government. Basque terrorists in northern Spain wanted to establish an independent homeland. The goal of many Palestinian terrorist groups was to establish an independent Palestinian state and to weaken or destroy the State of Israel. The tactics terrorists use, include murder, kidnapping for ransom, arson, train holdups, attacks on embassies, airplane hijackings, and bombings. Some groups adopted the tactic of suicide bombing. The suicide terrorist could destroy an important economic, military, political, or symbolic target by crashing into it with an airplane or explosives-laden automobile, or by detonating a bomb on their person. During the 1960s, many terrorist groups resorted to bank robbery and kidnapping for ransom to obtain funds. Although later terrorist organizations continued to use these tactics, some later groups were also given money from outside sources. Terrorist groups often received donations from people who supported their cause. In the United States, the Ku Klux Klan flourished during the 1920s because of money derived from the sale of memberships, regalia,
costumes, and publications. In the late 1970s the Irish Republican Army was assisted by extensive funding from Irish American sympathizers. Some countries, such as Cuba and Libya, also helped fund terrorists. Palestinian terrorist organizations received large amounts of money from petroleum-rich Arab nations that wanted Israel overthrown. From Antiquity Through the 19th Century Terror has been practiced throughout history. The 4th-century-BC Greek historian Xenophon wrote of the effectiveness of psychological warfare against enemy populations. The Roman emperors Tiberius and Caligula executed people in order to discourage opposition to their rule. The most commonly cited example of early terror, however, is the activity of the Jewish Zealots who attacked fellow Hebrews suspected of aiding the Romans. Starting in the late 1400s, the Spanish Inquisition used torture and execution to punish what it viewed as religious heresy. During the French Revolution, Robespierre openly supported the use of terror. After the American Civil War, defiant Southerners formed the Ku Klux Klan to intimidate the newly freed former slaves. In the latter half of the 19th century, terror was adopted in Western Europe, Russia, and the United States by anarchists who believed that revolutionary change was brought about by political assassination. From 1865 to 1905, a number of kings, presidents, prime ministers, and other government officials were killed by anarchists' guns or bombs.

Exercises:
1. Give Russian equivalents to the following words and phrases
   Unpredictable violence, to attain a political objective, rightist and leftist objectives, unlawful use, in furtherance, to create a climate of fear, innocent victims, hijacked airliners, an instrument of repression, to overthrow governments, to train in guerrilla camps, to be designated as, to weaken, to destroy, kidnapping, arson, train holdups, to obtain funds, to receive donations, psychological warfare, to discourage opposition, a commonly cited example,
2. Give English equivalents to the following words and phrases
   Националистические группы, использование силы, гражданское население, достигать политические цели, инструмент революционеров, значительно увеличиться, анархизм, экстремисты, сформировать независимое государство, похищение с целью выкупа, грабеж, получать пожертвования, процветать, историк, психологическая война, фанатик, подозревать, наказывать, поддерживать.
3. Define the main notions you’ve come across in the text in bold type.
4. Do you agree with the underlined statements?
5. Ask problem questions.
6. Single out the main idea of the text.
7. What terror organizations are mentioned in the text?
8. Can you think of any other examples?
9. What historical examples of terror attacks can you think of?
10. Give the summary of the text.

Read the text below, translate it and learn the new words:

Text 2
Modern Era of Terrorism

The 20th century witnessed great changes in the use and practice of terror. Political movements stretching from the extreme right to the extreme left of the political spectrum resorted to terrorism. The availability of automatic weapons and small, electrically detonated explosives gave terrorists a new lethality. In the 1960s the growth of international air travel provided new methods and opportunities. According to the United States Department of State, between 1968 and 1987 the number of international terrorist incidents increased by more than 600 percent. On July 23, 1968, a group of terrorists from the Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine hijacked one of Israel's El Al airliners in Rome and forced its pilot to fly it to Algeria. This event is considered the first attack in terrorism's war against the innocent citizens of contemporary societies. Some of the most notorious acts
of terrorism occurred in Europe, including the kidnapping and murder of Israeli athletes at the 1972 Summer Olympics in Munich, Germany, by a Palestinian organization called Black September; and the assassination of Aldo Moro, a former prime minister of Italy, by the Red Brigades in 1978. Another attack, resulting in hundreds of deaths, occurred in 1988 with the bombing of Pan Am flight 103 over Lockerbie, Scotland. Suspicion pointed to the involvement of Libya, and in 2001, a Libyan intelligence officer was convicted in The Netherlands under Scottish law on charges of having planted the suitcase bomb that blew up the plane.

Sept. 11, 2001. The deadliest terrorist attack to that time occurred on Sept. 11, 2001. Suicide terrorists affiliated with al-Qaeda hijacked four commercial airplanes, crashing two of them into the twin towers of the World Trade Center complex in New York City and one into the Pentagon near Washington, D.C.; the fourth plane crashed in western Pennsylvania. The crashes resulted in the destruction or severe damage of much of the World Trade Center complex and the destruction of the southwest side of the Pentagon. The combined death toll of the attacks included 266 people aboard the four planes and an estimated 3,000 people in the buildings and nearby areas. In response to the attack, the United States announced it would fight terrorism as the “first war of the 21st century.” The Office of Homeland Security was established to effect a national strategy to fight terrorism in the United States. Its function was to coordinate efforts to detect, prepare for, prevent, protect against, respond to, and recover from terrorist attacks. The United States also called on other governments to join in an alliance against terrorism by sharing information and supporting each other's efforts to combat terrorist organizations. Soon after the bombing, the United Nations Security Council passed a binding resolution requiring its member nations to pursue terrorists and their political and financial supporters. In another sign of international cooperation, 19 nations of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization agreed that a terrorist attack on any one of their nations was an attack on all. The Effect of Terrorism Since the late 1960s there have been thousands of terrorist-related deaths, mostly of innocent civilians. Terrorist successes, in terms of stated goals, have been few. Lebanese terrorists did drive U.S. military forces out of Beirut after a bombing in 1983 of a barracks in which nearly 250 Marines were killed. As the incidents of terrorism increased, many countries adopted precautions and security measures to prevent terrorist activities on their soil. As a result, the military, intelligence and security agencies, and police departments began to learn how to combat terrorists. Contributing to the difficulties in combating terrorism were countries such as Iran, Iraq, Sudan, and Afghanistan that supplied terrorist organizations with money, arms, safe haven, and bases of operation. There also was widespread concern that terrorists might gain access to weapons of mass destruction, including biological, chemical, or nuclear weapons (see chemical and biological terrorism). In the history of modern terrorism, few individual governments were able to find effective methods to prevent terrorism or to apprehend terrorists after they struck a target. After the Sept. 11, 2001, attack on the United States, however, governments were faced with combating not only the fear that terrorism can instill in a society but also the great loss of life and the economic devastation that can result from a terrorist act.


Exercises:
1. Suggest Russian equivalents to the following words and phrases:
To witness great changes, to stretch from the extreme right to the extreme left, the availability of atomic weapons, electrically detonated explosives, to provide new methods and opportunities, innocent citizens, notorious acts of terrorism, to occur, to crash, to result, severe damage, destruction, to estimate, to announce, to coordinate efforts, to prevent, to protect, to join in alliance, to pass a binding resolution, to pursue terrorists, to adopt precautions and security measures, intelligence agency, weapons of mass destruction, to be faced with.
2. Suggest Russian equivalents to the following words and phrases
Быть свидетелем, политический спектр, рассматривать, быть осужденным, по обвинению, взорвать самолет, врезаться, разрушение, потери, объявить, скоординировать усилия, предотвращать, защищать, объединиться в союз, принять резолюцию, принимать меры предосторожности, разведывательные службы, снабжать деньгами, быть широко распространенным.

3. Dictionary work. Find derivatives to the following words. Make up sentences with these words.
Terror, attack, ally, coordinate, to protect.

4. Do you agree with the underlined statements?

5. Ask problem questions.

6. Give the summary of the text.

7. Pair work. Analyze modern era of terrorism.

Read the text below, translate it and learn the new words:

Text 3
September, 11

Is terrorism just brutal, unthinking violence? No. Experts agree that there is almost always a strategy behind terrorist actions. Whether it takes the form of bombings, shootings, hijackings, or assassinations, terrorism is neither random, spontaneous, nor blind; it is a deliberate use of violence against civilians for political or religious ends. Is there a definition of terrorism? Even though most people can recognize terrorism when they see it, experts have had difficulty coming up with an ironclad definition. The State Department defines terrorism as "premeditated, politically motivated violence perpetrated against noncombatant targets by sub national groups or clandestine agents, usually intended to influence an audience." In another useful attempt to produce a definition, Paul Pillar, a former deputy chief of the CIA's Counterterrorist Center, argues that there are four key elements of terrorism: It is premeditated—planned in advance, rather than an impulsive act of rage. 

It is political—not criminal, like the violence that groups such as the mafia use to get money, but designed to change the existing political order. It is aimed at civilians—not at military targets or combat-ready troops. It is carried out by sub national groups—not by the army of a country. Where does the word "terrorism" come from? It was coined during France's Reign of Terror in 1793-94. Originally, the leaders of this systematized attempt to weed out "traitors" among the revolutionary ranks praised terror as the best way to defend liberty, but as the French Revolution soured, the word soon took on grim echoes of state violence and guillotines. Today, most terrorists dislike the label, according to Bruce Hoffman of the RAND think tank. Is terrorism a new phenomenon? No. The oldest terrorists were holy warriors who killed civilians. For instance, in first-century Palestine, Jewish Zealots would publicly slit the throats of Romans and their collaborators; in seventh-century India, the Thuggee cult would ritually strangle passersby as sacrifices to the Hindu deity Kali; and in the eleventh-century Middle East, the Shiite sect known as the Assassins would eat hashish before murdering civilian foes. Historians can trace recognizably modern forms of terrorism back to such late-nineteenth-century organizations as Narodnaya Volya ("People’s Will"), an anti-tsarist group in Russia. One particularly successful early case of terrorism was the 1914 assassination of Austrian Archduke Franz Ferdinand by a Serb extremist, an event that helped trigger World War I. Even more familiar forms of terrorism—often custom-made for TV cameras—first appeared on July 22, 1968, when the Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine undertook the first terrorist hijacking of a commercial airplane. Is terrorism aimed at an audience? Usually, yes. Terrorist acts are often deliberately spectacular, designed to rattle and influence a wide audience, beyond the victims of the violence itself. The point is to use the psychological impact of violence or of the threat of violence to effect political change. As the terrorism expert Brian Jenkins bluntly put it in 1974, «Terrorism is theatre."
Was September 11 the deadliest terrorist attack in history? Yes. Before September 11, the deadliest attacks were the bombings of airplanes, such as Pan Am flight 103, destroyed over Lockerbie, Scotland, in 1988 by terrorists linked to Libya, or the 1985 bombing of an Air India jet. Each of these attacks killed more than 300 people. The August 1998 bombings of the U.S. embassies in Kenya and Tanzania—before September 11, the largest attacks on major buildings—killed 224 people; these attacks have been linked to al-Qaeda. By way of comparison, Timothy McVeigh killed 168 people by bombing a federal office building in Oklahoma City in 1995. The failed February 1993 attempt by Islamist terrorists to destroy the World Trade Center killed six people and injured about 1,000 others. And the 1983 Islamist suicide bombing of the U.S. Marine barracks in Beirut, Lebanon, killed 242 Americans. Was September 11 part of an increasingly deadly trend in the evolution of terrorism? Yes. During the 1990s, there were fewer terrorist attacks, but they tended to kill more people. Experts attribute this trend—fewer attacks, more fatalities—to a rise in religiously motivated terrorism, which lacks some of the restraints of earlier versions of terrorism. They add that heightened vigilance and security has often made the hijackings and kidnappings popularized in the 1960s and 1970s more difficult, driving some groups toward simpler but sometimes deadlier bombing operations. Did anything hold back terrorists from mass killing in the past? Yes. Some terrorist groups before the 1990s often were limited by fears that too much violence could backfire. In other words, experts say, terrorist groups wanted to find the proverbial sweet spot: they sought to use enough shocking violence to bring attention to a cause they felt had been neglected, but they did not want to use so much violence that their audiences abroad would become permanently alienated. Nor did nationalist terrorist groups—such as the Palestine Liberation Organization or the Irish Republican Army (IRA)—want to go so far that they dried up support among their own people. These considerations often affected choices of targets as well as the level of violence. Between 1969 and 1993, for instance, less than a fifth of the IRA’s victims were Protestant civilians, reflecting a deliberate choice to avoid alienating potential Irish supporters. As the terrorism expert Brian Jenkins has put it, terrorists used to want a lot of people watching, not a lot of people dead. Have terrorists ever used weapons of mass destruction? Yes. In 1995, members of Aum Shinrikyo, a Japanese cult, released sarin nerve gas into the Tokyo subway, killing 12 and wounding over 3,500—the first recorded use of chemical weapons by terrorists. The first deadly use of biological weapons by terrorists was the late-2001 U.S. mailings of anthrax-laced letters by persons still unknown. Are religiously motivated terrorists like al-Qaeda less restrained than other terrorists? Yes, generally speaking. Not only are these terrorists’ goals often vaguer than those of nationalist terrorists—who want, for example, an independent state, a much more concrete goal than Osama bin Laden’s sweeping talk of jihad—but their methods are more lethal. That’s because, experts say, the religious terrorist often sees violence as an end in itself, as a divinely inspired way of serving a higher cause. As AND’s Hoffman notes, even such earlier terrorists as Carlos the Jackal and Abu Nidal never “contemplated, much less attempted, the complete destruction of a high-rise office building packed with people.” But for al-Qaeda, the Iranian-backed Hezollah, the Japanese cult Aum Shinrikyo, the Palestinian group Hamas, and other religious terrorist organizations, mass killings are considered not only acceptable but “holy.”

Exercises:
1. **Suggest Russian equivalents to the following words and phrases:**
   Brutal, unthinking violence, a deliberate use of violence, for political and religious ends, to be politically motivated, against noncombatant targets, groups of clandestine agents, deputy chief, to be premeditated, existing political order, combat-ready troops, to weed out traitors, a new phenomenon, to trace modern forms back to, deliberately spectacular, to influence a wide audience, psychological impact, the failed attempt, to heighten vigilance, proverbial sweet spot, to become alienated, inspired way of serving a higher cause.

2. **Suggest Russian equivalents to the following words and phrases:**
   Необдуманное насилие, преднамеренное использование, контртеррористический центр, изменить существующий политический строй, военные цели, защищать свободу, новое явле-
ниве, развязать мировую войну, быть направленным на, нарочито эпатажный, для сравнения, повышение бдительности, угн Самолета, похищение людей, сдерживать, ответный огонь, другими словами, привлечь внимание, зайти так далеко, потерять поддержку, влиять на выбор цели, потенциальные сторонники, оружие массового разрушения, независимое государство, служить высшим целям.

3. **Dictionary work**. Study the verbs and explain their meanings: to premeditate, to trace back to, to trigger, to tend to, to heighten, to limit, to support.

4. **Suggest synonyms**: violence, deliberate, definition, motivated, phenomenon, foe, to design, restraint, backfire, weapons, organization.

5. **Make up sentences with the words from the previous exercise**.

6. **Answer the questions**:
   - Is terrorism just brutal, unthinking violence?
   - Is there a definition of terrorism?
   - Where does the word "terrorism" come from?
   - Is terrorism a new phenomenon?
   - Is terrorism aimed at an audience?
   - Was September 11 the deadliest terrorist attack in history?
   - Was September 11 part of an increasingly deadly trend in the evolution of terrorism?
   - Did anything hold back terrorists from mass killing in the past?
   - Have terrorists ever used weapons of mass destruction?
   - Are religiously motivated terrorists like al-Qaeda less restrained than other terrorists?

7. **What are the main talking points of the article?**

8. **What is the author’s nationality and occupation, to your mind? What makes you think so?**

9. **Speaking. Pair work. Discuss terror attacks in Russia.**

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**Text 4**

**4 Common Ways to Remember Material**

Remembering speeches can be a very intimidating experience. There are many ways one can remember material and I would like to focus on what I believe are the 4 common ways to remember material.

1. **Memorizing**
2. **Reading from complete text**
3. **Using Notes**
4. **Using Visual Aids as Notes**

Let’s take a look at each of these in detail.

1. **Memorizing** - In my opinion, this is absolutely the worst way to keep track of material. People are preoccupied with trying to remember the words to say and not the ideas behind the words (or with the audience). As a result, normal voice inflection disappears. With memorizing, mental blocks become inevitable. With memorizing it is not a matter of "will" you forget; it's a matter of WHEN!

2. **Reading from complete text** - Listening to someone read a speech or presentation is hated by most people. People say, "If that's all they were going to do is read there speech, I could have read it myself." I’m sure many of us have experienced this at least once while attending a conference or two. Below are some reasons why I believe people read poorly:
   - The speaker loses normal voice inflection because they lose touch with the ideas behind the words. Listen for pauses. Natural speech is filled with pauses; unnatural speech is not.
   - The text isn't spoken language - too often speakers write their speeches in "business language". That is often hard to read, much less listen to.
• The speech isn't static - the potted plant will probably move more. There is little movement, little energy, little interest behind the lectern.
• There's no or little eye contact - any eye contact is with the text, not the audience. To read text while trying to maintain eye contact with the audience takes a lot of practice.
• The speaker is scared - many speakers read because they are afraid to try anything else. They know reading will fail but at least it will fail with a small "f" rather than a capital one.

NOTE: Don't get me wrong, there are times when speeches MUST be read. Many times it is necessary to read policy statements or company announcements. Also, some speeches must be timed right down to the second.

WHEN YOU HAVE TO READ!
If reading is absolutely necessary, here are some suggestions:
• Pay attention to the inflection in your voice - to sound natural, rehearse often, checking yourself for pauses. Ask yourself if your words sound the way you would say them if you weren't reading. Tape yourself and listen to your own voice. Take notes where changes should be made with the inflection in your voice.
• When preparing your written speech, say the words "out loud" first in order that your written text will read closer to your speaking style. This will make it easier to read and much easier to listen to. People often DO NOT write the same way as they speak and this makes reading more difficult. If we use wording and phrasing we normally use in our everyday language it will be easier to add the correct voice inflection and tone. Annotate your text to indicate which words to emphasize. Numbers are the easiest target words to say slowly with emphasis on each syllable.
• One of the biggest problems speakers face when reading text is that we often forget to use gestures. We are so busy making sure we read the text we fail to communicate effectively with our entire body. One thing we can do to help this is to "double space" your typed text to leave room to add notes or cues about gestures and other reminder type clues. We need to practice using this annotated text of our speech so we can easily and smoothly react to these cues for our gestures while at the same time correctly read the text. This does take some practice. Some people do this very effectively.
I work with ministers who do this extremely well, but they also practice a lot! Videotape yourself reading the speech and then sit and watch the speech, making notes as to the gestures which could have been used. Add notes to your written text based on this review, using notes or even pictures of the gestures to use and deliver the speech again, trying this time to add gestures. After a little practice, this will become second nature.
• When we read speeches, the amount of eye contact with our audience is usually less. In some cases, people who read speeches have NO eye contact. To avoid this, first write like you speak (see suggestion #2). When typing the text, use upper and lower case letters. This will make it easier to read. TYPING EVERYTHING IN UPPERCASE, AS I HAVE DONE HERE, MAKES IT MORE DIFFICULT TO READ. Don't have long paragraphs or you will lose your place every time you look up. Start a new paragraph every sentence or two. Also, have your text double spaced. Some people even go so far as alternating the color of the text for each paragraph.
Use unstapled pages for your text. Paper clip your pages and just before you begin, remove the paper clip. As you prepare your text, keep in mind that you will have to handle these pages and you want to do this smoothly and as quietly as you can. Do not have part of a sentence begin on one page and continue onto the next page. End the page with a complete sentence and paragraph. During your pauses, smoothly "slide" the page you just finished using to one side and continue with the text on the next page. Do not pick up the page and place it behind or turn the page over when done. This will be distracting and will bring attention to the fact that you are reading. Avoid handling the pages as much as possible while you are reading.
With a lot of practice and careful preparation, you can deliver a powerful speech, even when reading. Some of the world's greatest speeches were read, but you can be assured, they weren't reading them for the first time when delivering their speech to their audience. Practice, practice, practice.

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3. **Using Notes** - This is the most common way for remembering material. Using notes is better than reading since the speaker can have normal voice inflection and make more effective eye contact. If your notes are on the lectern, you probably won't move very far from them. If notes are in your hand, you probably won't gesture very much.

Below are some suggestions to consider if you decide to use notes:

**USING NOTES**

- Use note cards. Include quotes, statistics and lists you may need, NOT paragraphs of text. VERY IMPORTANT: Number your note cards! (Just in case you drop them).
- Don't put too much information on each note card or you will find yourself reading too much. Put only a few words or key phrases.
- Leave your notes on the lectern or table and move away occasionally. Don't be afraid to move away from your notes and get out of your comfort zone. Too many speakers use the lectern to hide behind and this restricts the effective use of your entire body.
- Practice using your note cards. If you find yourself reading your note cards too much, this is a sure clue you need to reduce the amount of written text on each card. Remember, all you need are short phrases or key words, enough to "jog" your memory.
- Use pictures or picture maps to guide yourself. Pictures help you to "visualize" the key points of your speech. Use mental pictures as well to tell the story in your head. This will take some creativity, but will be worth the effort.

4. **Using Visual Aids As Notes** - Simple visual aids can effectively serve as headings and subheadings. Speak to the heading. Say what you want to say and move on. If you forget something, that's okay; the audience will never know unless you tell them.

Practice creating just a few meaningful headings to use and practice using only these headings as your "cues". This will take practice, but practicing using only these few words will force you to better internalize your speech.

This has four important advantages:

- You don't have to worry about what you are going to say next. Your visual aids provide you with your "cues" of your next major idea or thought. All you need to do between ideas is to use an effective transitional statement. (See my tips on using transitions).
- Having only a few key words on your visual aid allows you to move around the room without the need or feeling you need to go back to your notes. In fact, most inexperienced speakers don't move around at all. Movement also helps you to relax and adds energy to your presentations. Movement also allows the listeners to follow you and pay closer attention to you and your message. Plan your movements during your rehearsals. Decide where in your presentation it makes sense to move. If you find yourself starting to sway from side to side, take one or two steps and stop again, standing evenly on both feet. Keep your weight evenly distributed on both feet. This will help keep you from swaying.
- You can have good eye contact with your audience. You can look at your audience all the time while speaking - except for that brief moment you look at your visual aid. But that's okay since the audience will probably follow you and also look at your visual aid. This will help the audience to "see" your message as well as "hear" your message. The more you rehearse and the more you become familiar with your visual aids, the easier it becomes.
- Your audience will feel comfortable that you are on your planned track. Well designed visuals aid show the audience that you DO have a plan and have properly prepared and are following your plan. Keep in mind, your visual aids do not have to be only word charts. They can contain diagrams, pictures or even graphs.

When you use visual aids, always introduce the visual aid BEFORE you show it using one of your transition statements. You can even use the "looking back / looking forward" transition: "Now that we have seen the ...let's now look at ...."

Regardless of which method you choose to use to remember your material, nothing will help you more that proper planning and preparation. Remember to **prepare, prepare, prepare!**

(Lenny Laskowski 1997 LJL Seminars http://www.ljlseminars.com)
Text 5

How to Use Transitions Effectively

Transitions are an integral part of a smooth flowing presentation, yet many speakers forget to plan their transitions. The primary purpose of a transition is to lead your listener from one idea to another. The following are some examples of transitions that work well:

1. **Bridge words or phrases** (furthermore, meanwhile, however, in addition, consequently, finally).
2. **Trigger transition** (same word or idea used twice: "a similar example is ...").
3. **Ask a Question** ("How many of you ....?")
4. **Flashback** ("Do you remember when I said ...?")
5. **Point-By-Point** ("There are three points ... The first one is. The second one is..etc.")
6. **Add a Visual Aid as a Transition** - Many times it may be appropriate to add a visual between your regular visual aids for the sole purpose of a "visual" transition. Many times a clever cartoon used here can add some humor to your presentations.
7. **Pausing** (Even a simple pause, when effectively used, can act as a transition. This allows the audience to "think" about what was just said and give it more time to register.
8. **Use Physical Movement** (The speaker should move or change the location of their body. This is best done when you are changing to a new idea or thought.
9. **Use a Personal Story** The use of a story, especially a personal one is a very effective technique used by many professional speakers. Used effectively, it can help reinforce any points you made during your presentation.
10. **Use the PEP formula (Point, Example, Point)** (This is a very common format used and can also be combined with the use of a personal story. Make sure stories or examples you use help reinforce your message.

Three common mistakes made when using transitions:
1. The most common mistake people make is that they DON’T use transitions at all. Transitions help your information flow from one idea to the next.
2. The second most common mistake is using transitions that are too short. Not enough time is spent bridging to the next idea. This is extremely important when changing to a new section of ideas within your presentation.
3. The third most common mistake is that people use the same transition throughout the presentation. This becomes very boring after a short while. Try to be creative with your transitions.

Transitions and the Team Presentation

Transitions become extremely important when a team presentation is involved. The transition from one speaker to the next must be planned and skillfully executed. Each speaker should use a brief introduction of the next topic and speaker as part of this transition.

Text 6

Five Ways to Make Your Body Speak

Dr. Ralph C. Smeadly, the founder of Toastmasters International, wrote, "The speaker who stands and talks at ease is the one who can be heard without weariness. If his posture and gestures are so graceful and unobtrusive, that no one notices them, he may be counted as truly successful." When your actions are wedded to your words, the impact of your speech will be strengthened. If your platform behavior includes mannerisms unrelated to your spoken message, those actions will call attention to themselves and away from your speech. Below I have provided 5 ways you can rid yourself of your distracting mannerisms.
1. Rid Yourself of Distracting Mannerisms

Eliminate vocal and visual impediments. Some common faults of inexperienced or ineffective speakers are:
· Gripping or leaning on the lectern
· Finger tapping
· Lip biting or licking
· Toying with coins or jewelry
· Frowning
· Adjusting hair or clothing
· Head wagging
These have two things in common:
· They are physical manifestations of simple nervousness.
· They are performed unconsciously.

When you make a verbal mistake, you can easily correct it, because you can hear your own words, but you can't see yourself, so most distracting mannerisms go uncorrected. You can't eliminate them unless you know they exist.

Videotape yourself.

The first step in eliminating any superfluous behavior is to obtain an accurate perception of your body's image. This should include:
· Posture
· Gestures
· Body movement
· Facial expressions
· Eye contact

The next step is to free yourself of physical behaviors that do not add to your speech. This can be accomplished by simply becoming aware of your problem areas. After you have videotaped yourself speaking, review the tape several times and make a list of all the distracting mannerisms you notice.

First review. Review your tape the first time without looking for mannerisms. Just listen to the presentation as if you were hearing it for the first time and evaluate the overall impact you experience from watching the tape.

Second review. Review your tape a second time (with the volume turned down) and look for visual distractions. Take notes on what you observe.

Third review. During this review, have the picture turned off and listen only to your voice. Many people have never even heard a taping of their own voice before. Become accustomed to listening to your voice. Get to know it as others hear it. Note what you like and what you don't like. Pay attention to the speed, the volume, and the tone of your voice.

Fourth review. Once you have made lists both of your distracting mannerisms and your more positive points, you are ready to have one or two family members watch the tape with you. Get their initial impression. Ask them to be honest.

Once you have completed these reviews, go over the list of all the distracting mannerisms you saw and heard. The next time you are having a conversation with someone you know well, try to notice whether you use any of these distracting mannerisms even in casual circumstances. Tackle each of your negative points one at a time.

2. Build Self-confidence by Being Yourself

The most important rule for making your body communicate effectively is to be yourself. The emphasis should be on the sharing of ideas, not on the performance.

Strive to be as genuine and natural as you are when you speak to family members and friends.

Large vs. small audiences. Many people say, "I'm okay in a small group, but when I get in front of a larger group I freeze." The only difference between speaking to a small informal group and to a sizable audience is the number of listeners. To compensate for this, you need only to amplify your nat-
ural behavior. Be authentically yourself, but amplify your movements and expressions just enough so that the audience can see them.

3. Let Your Body Mirror Your Feelings
If you are interested in your subject, truly believe what you are saying, and want to share your message with others, your physical movements will come from within you and will be appropriate to what you are saying.

By involving yourself in your message, you'll be natural and spontaneous without having to consciously think about what you are doing or saying. For many of us, this isn't as easy as it sounds because it requires us to drop the mask that shields the "real self" in public.

To become an effective speaker, it is essential that you get rid of your mask and share your true feelings with your audience. Your audience wants to know how you feel about your subject. If you want to convince others, you must convey your convictions.

4. Build Self-confidence Through Preparation
Nothing influences a speaker's mental attitude more than the knowledge that he or she is thoroughly prepared. This knowledge leads to self-confidence, which is a vital ingredient of effective public speaking.

How many of us have ever experienced a situation in which we had not prepared well for a presentation? How did we come across? On the other hand, think of those presentations that did go well. These are the ones that we had properly prepared for.

5. Use Your Everyday Speaking Situations
Whenever you speak to people, make an extra effort to notice how you speak. Observe, too, whether the facial expressions of your listeners indicate they do or do not understand what you are saying. Before calling to request something on the phone, plan and practice what you are going to say. Even this is essentially a short presentation. Another exercise is to prepare a 90-second presentation about yourself. Describe who you are and what you do. Record your presentation and review it using the four steps described above.

Since you are talking about yourself, you don't need to research the topic; however, you do need to prepare what you are going to say and how you are going to say it. Plan everything including your gestures and walking patterns.

Facial Expressions
Leave that deadpan expression to poker players. A speaker realizes that appropriate facial expressions are an important part of effective communication. In fact, facial expressions are often the key determinant of the meaning behind the message. People watch a speaker's face during a presentation. When you speak, your face—more clearly than any other part of your body—communicates to others your attitudes, feelings, and emotions.

Remove expressions that don't belong on your face. Inappropriate expressions include distracting mannerisms or unconscious expressions not rooted in your feelings, attitudes and emotions. In much the same way that some speakers perform random, distracting gestures and body movements, nervous speakers often release excess energy and tension by unconsciously moving their facial muscles (e.g., licking lips, tightening the jaw).

One type of unconscious facial movement which is less apt to be read clearly by an audience is involuntary frowning. This type of frowning occurs when a speaker attempts to deliver a memorized speech. There are no rules governing the use of specific expressions. If you relax your inhibitions and allow yourself to respond naturally to your thoughts, attitudes and emotions, your facial expressions will be appropriate and will project sincerity, conviction, and credibility.

Eye Contact
Eye contact is the cement that binds together speakers and their audiences. When you speak, your eyes involve your listeners in your presentation. There is no surer way to break a communication bond between you and the audience than by failing to look at your listeners. No matter how large your audience may be, each listener wants to feel that you are talking to him or her.
The adage, "The eyes are the mirror of the soul," underlines the need for you to convince people with your eyes, as well as your words. Only by looking at your listeners as individuals can you convince them that you are sincere and are interested in them, and that you care whether they accept your message. When you speak, your eyes also function as a control device you can use to assure your listeners' attentiveness and concentration.

Eye contact can also help you to overcome nervousness by making your audience a known quantity. Effective eye contact is an important feedback device that makes the speaking situation a two-way communication process. By looking at your audience, you can determine how they are reacting. When you develop the ability to gauge the audience's reactions and adjust your presentation accordingly, you will be a much more effective speaker.

How To Use Your Eyes Effectively

1. Know your material. Know it so well that you don't have to devote your mental energy to the task of remembering the sequence of ideas and words.

   You should prepare well (remember to use the 9 P's) and rehearse enough so that you don't have to depend heavily on notes. Many speakers, no matter how well prepared, need at least a few notes to deliver their message. If you can speak effectively without notes, by all means do so. But if you must use notes, that's fine. Just don't let them be a substitute for preparation and rehearsal.

   Even many experienced speakers use notes. Often, they take advantage of such natural pauses as audience laughter or the aftermath of an important point to glance briefly at their notes. To make this technique work, keep your notes brief. (See Chapter 6 for more on this topic.)

2. Establish a personal bond with listeners. How do you do this? Begin by selecting one person and talking to him or her personally. Maintain eye contact with that person long enough to establish a visual bond (about 5 to 10 seconds). This is usually the equivalent of a sentence or a thought. Then shift your gaze to another person.

   In a small group, this is relatively easy to do. But, if you're addressing hundreds or thousands of people, it's impossible. What you can do is pick out one or two individuals in each section of the room and establish personal bonds with them. Then each listener will get the impression you're talking directly to him or her.

3. Monitor visual feedback. While you are talking, your listeners are responding with their own non-verbal messages. Use your eyes to actively seek out this valuable feedback. If individuals aren't looking at you, they may not be listening either. Their reasons may include one or more of these factors:

   - They may not be able to hear you.
   - Solution: If you are not using a microphone, speak louder and note if that works.
   - They may be bored.
   - Solution: Use some humor, increase your vocal variety or add powerful gestures or body movements.
   - They may be puzzled.
   - Solution: Repeat and/or rephrase what you have just said.
   - They seem to be fidgeting nervously.
   - Solution: You may be using distracting mannerisms. Maybe you have food on your clothes (or worse, maybe your blouse is unbuttoned or your fly isn't closed). Make sure you are aware of these embarrassing possibilities before and during your speech. If necessary, try to correct them without bringing more attention to them. On the other hand, if your listeners' faces indicate pleasure, interest and close attention, don't change a thing. You're doing a great job!

Your Appearance

If your listeners will have on suits and dresses, wear your best suit or dress - the outfit that brings you the most compliments. Make sure that every item of clothing is clean and well tailored. Don't wear jewelry that might glitter or jingle when you move or gesture. This might divert attention from your speech. For the same reason, empty your pockets of bulky items and anything that makes noise when you move.
Part of the first impression you give occurs even before you are introduced to deliver your speech. As the audience arrives, your preparation should be concluded. You shouldn't have to study your speech. Instead, mingle with the audience, and project that same friendly, confident attitude that will make your speech a success.

When you speak—especially if you aren't well known to the audience—the most crucial part of your presentation is the first few minutes. During that initial segment, the audience will be making critical judgments about you. Your listeners will decide whether you are confident, sincere, friendly, eager to address them and worthy of their attention. In large measure, they will base this decision on what they see.

After your introduction, walk purposefully and confidently to the speaking position.

**Walking Patterns**

Why move in the first place?

Moving forces people to focus and follow you. The way you walk from your seat to the speaker's position is very important. When you are introduced, you should appear eager to speak. Too many speakers look as though they are heading toward execution.

Walk confidently from your seat to the lectern. Pause there for a few seconds, then move out from behind the lectern. As discussed before, it is wise to use the lectern as a point of departure, and not a barrier to hide behind.

Smile before you say your first words. Be careful not to stand too close to, nor move beyond, the people in the front row. Be careful not to walk too much. Doing so will work against you. Continuous pacing is distracting. Walking can be an effective way to stress an important idea. It is essential that your walk be purposeful and intentional, not just a random shift of position. Taking about three steps, moving at a shallow angle, usually works best.

When employing visual aids, use three positions. One position is your "home" position and should be front and center. The other two positions should be relatively near the "home" position. Never stand in front of any visual aid.

When you practice your speaking, make sure you also practice your walking patterns. Try walking to and from your three positions. These positions should be planned just as your hand gestures are.

When standing still, remember to maintain good posture. Stand up straight.

Remember it's not what you say it's how you say it and your body does speak very loudly. Only when you marry your verbal message and your nonverbal message do you begin to command presence as a speaker.

(Lenny Laskowski 1997 LJL Seminars http://www.ljlseminars.com)

**Writing:**

**Article:** Terroristic attacks in different countries (The history of terrorism, the types, regions, groups, aims, connection with religions, cases, ways to fight, your ideas).

**Listening:**

1. Work with the multimedia presentation “Terrorism”
2. Listen to the texts: “Special on terroristic attack”, “Can democracy stop terrorism?” Discuss them in the class.
3. Watch the film “September, 11” and discuss the authors position.

**Speaking:**

Dubious standards in solving the problem of terrorism.

**Current events.**

Using informational internet sites find and render the information about current political events.

**Vocabulary:**

To witness great changes, to stretch from the extreme right to the extreme left, the availability of atomic weapons, electrically detonated explosives, to provide new methods and opportunities, innocent citizens, notorious acts of terrorism, to occur, to crash, to result, severe damage, destruction, to estimate, to announce, to coordinate efforts, to prevent, to protect, to join in alliance, to pass a bind-
ing resolution, to pursue terrorists, to adopt precautions and security measures, intelligence agency, weapons of mass destruction, to be faced with, brutal, unthinking violence, a deliberate use of violence, for political and religious ends, to be politically motivated, against noncombatant targets, groups of clandestine agents, deputy chief, to be premeditated, existing political order, combat-ready troops, to weed out traitors, a new phenomenon, to trace modern forms back to, deliberately spectacular, to influence a wide audience, psychological impact, the failed attempt, to heighten vigilance, proverbial sweet spot, to become alienated, inspired way of serving a higher cause.

**Project work:** Movie Maker film: “The face of Terrorism”.

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**Unit 8**

**Social problems**

**Reading.**

**Text 1**

**Poverty**

In the United States during 1992, any family of four with an annual cash **income** of less than $14,335 (before taxes) was considered poor. The dollar amount was called the **poverty line**, an economic measuring rod devised in 1964. The line was set at three times the amount needed to provide the cheapest nutritionally balanced diet. The poverty line is adjusted annually for inflation. While the poverty line in the United States was more than $14,000, the average annual per-person income in Bangladesh was $200, in Ethiopia $130, in Haiti $340, and in Mali $265. Anyone in those nations with an income of $14,000 would be considered wealthy. During the Great Depression in the United States, when half the population was considered poor, a family with an income at the 1992 poverty line could afford to buy a house, a car, clothing, and food. The reality of poverty varies with location and social and political conditions. Poverty basically means a lack of, or an insufficient amount of, the three primary physical needs—food, clothing, and shelter. **But for poverty to be recognized**, it must exist alongside **prosperity**. Before the discovery of the New World, the American Indians would not have considered themselves poor, though they lived with only the bare necessities and a few handmade artifacts. The severity of poverty varies, depending on the economic vitality of the nation in which it occurs. In the modern industrialized societies of Western Europe, North America, and Japan, there are many government services provided to alleviate poverty. In addition, the homeless of many cities can often find some shelter and a mission offering free meals. The homeless of Calcutta, India, live and die in the streets with little assistance offered to them.

Types of Poverty To those who are poor, **poverty would seem to have no differences**. But four kinds of poverty have been described: class, regional, cyclical, and case. Each is a response to different social or economic circumstances. **Class poverty.** In many nations there are social classes that occupy a low status in relation to the rest of the population. Sometimes these classes are relegated to a low status by law, sometimes by custom or discrimination (see Segregation; Social Class). In India the caste system has created numerous classes whose members are often locked into poverty for life (see India, “Caste”). The burakumin in Japan are another example. In many countries some ethnic minorities occupy the lowest rungs on the economic ladder. This is true of many black and Hispanic Americans in the United States. It has also proved true for the “guest workers” in Northern Europe—individuals who migrated northward from poorer nations to find work after World War II. Because class poverty is often the result of prejudice and **discrimination**, it tends to perpetuate itself from one generation to the next. When this happens a “culture of poverty” develops. The term was coined by sociologist Oscar Lewis in his book ‘The Children of Sánchez’ (1961) about a Mexico City slum family. A similar culture of poverty among blacks in the United States was documented by Gunnar Myrdal in ‘An American Dilemma’ (1944). The landmark work, which reveals the extent of poverty in America, was written by Michael Harrington in ‘The Other America’ (1962)—a book that helped launch President Lyndon Johnsons antipoverty programs in 1964.
Regional poverty. The term **regional poverty** refers to poverty that is persistent in specific geographic areas. Within single nations there are often extensive pockets of poverty that endure for generations. Such regions include Appalachia in the eastern United States, the northern section of England, Northern Ireland, and southern Italy. More often, however, whole nations or sections of the world can be classified as poor: Central America, South America, the Middle East, sub-Saharan Africa, and huge portions of Central Asia. These areas are usually described as the Third World, the economically underdeveloped, or developing, nations (see Third World). Sometimes a shifting of regional poverty may occur. When industrialized nations move factory operations overseas to poorer countries to find cheaper labor, the result is loss of jobs in the home country. International competition has this effect in some industries. **Cyclical poverty.** The economies of industrialized nations go through cycles of prosperity and recession, commonly referred to as “boom and bust” (see Business Cycle). When an economic slump occurs, as happened in the early 1980s—and most seriously in the Great Depression—many workers lose their jobs. In 1935, for example, there were about 20 million persons unemployed in the United States. When the economy revives, cyclical poverty tends to disappear. Significant changes in industrial economies have led to what is called structural unemployment. Such loss of jobs results not so much from an economic slump as from technological innovations, such as automation, that displace many workers. Thus many workers find themselves with skills for which there are no jobs, while many jobs remain unfilled because workers with the proper skills cannot be found. Structural unemployment may last many years before workers can be retrained or move to a new labor market. Whole regions of some countries—especially coal-mining, steel-producing, and shipbuilding areas—have been hurt by changes in labor markets. **Case poverty.** Case poverty focuses on individuals who, for some reason, are unable to support themselves and to gain the basic necessities without assistance. Older people, fatherless children, the physically handicapped, chronic alcoholics, drug addicts, and the mentally ill are included among case-poverty victims. They are individuals who, even when the rest of society is prospering, lead a marginal existence. Curing Poverty Jane Jacobs, in her book ‘The Economy of Cities’ (1969), states, “Poverty has no causes. Only prosperity has causes.” In making this assertion she points to the only permanent way to eradicate poverty—through economic development. This means that individuals are able to become part of a labor force and earn enough money to afford the necessities—and, beyond them, the luxuries. The alternatives to development are charity or welfare. Neither can eliminate poverty. They serve to hold people in poverty by failing to offer the alternative of work. **Money given to the poor, when spent, is gone. It must continually be replaced by charitable organizations or by government agencies (see Welfare State). Readers interested in more information on this subject should consult ‘The Idea of Poverty' (Random House, 1984) by Gertrude Himmelfarb.


**Exercises:**
1. Explain the italicized grammar phenomena.
2. Give the summary of the text.
3. Define the notions in bold.
4. Do you agree with the underlined statements?
5. Ask problem questions.

Read the text below, translate it and learn the new words:
Text 2
Drug abuse

Drugs are not always beneficial to their users. In the sense of treating the cause or symptoms of an illness, some drugs have no beneficial use at all. People who use these drugs take them without medical approval and for recreational, not medical, reasons. Often the consequences of recreational drug-taking are harmful both to the individuals who abuse drugs and to the people around them. In earlier years most of the people who abused drugs either had easy access to medicines or were impoverished people for whom drugs seemed to provide the only escape from a hopeless existence. In the 1950s more people of all classes and occupations began to use mood-changing drugs without medical supervision, and more kinds of mood-changing drugs became available through both legal and illegal channels. Some mood-changing drugs induce relaxation or sleep. Others induce feelings of exhilaration. All affect the nervous system and all can cause emotional change. Research suggests that addictive drugs and drugs that are commonly abused increase levels of dopamine—an organic compound that inhibits the transmission of nerve impulses—in the brain. The temporary sense of well-being that is produced by such drugs fades when the effects of the drug have worn off, and users are faced with the same problems that plagued them previously. They may then take another dose of the drug rather than endure the pain and trouble of dealing with the original problems. When this happens, the users are said to have acquired a psychological dependence on the drug. As a result, they may stop maturing. In severe cases, drug addicts direct all their energies to getting more of the drug to which they are addicted. In less severe cases—particularly dependence on such legal drugs as the nicotine in cigarettes and the caffeine in coffee—users simply make taking the drug part of their daily routines. In this case the inconvenience of dependence may be considered the personal problem of the users themselves.

The opium poppy contains a narcotic drug called opium—the raw material for some of the most powerful painkillers medicine can provide. Opium itself, opium derivatives (called opiates) such as morphine and codeine, and synthetic chemicals that resemble opium (called opioids) are prescribed for the relief of extreme pain, but opium can also be converted into the dangerous drug heroin. The effect of opium-related drugs depends to a certain extent on the user. Pain-free persons may simply feel dizzy and nauseated on first taking such a drug. For most susceptible people, however, a dose of an opium-related drug makes worries seem distant. This carefree feeling may be followed by a period of stupor. A severe depression commonly follows the stupor, and a regular abuser will want another dose of the drug to ward off this depression. If people take any opium-related drug often enough, they become physically dependent, or addicted, to the drug. If they stop taking it, they become very ill with a withdrawal syndrome. If they are treated with proper medication, the withdrawal syndrome is said to be like influenza, but without such help it can be agonizing. Many drug habits are maintained to avoid this syndrome. (See also Habit and Addiction.) Heroin addiction presents a special danger. Other opium-related drugs are obtained illegally from medical supplies. Heroin, however, is not used for medicinal purposes, and the criminals who produce it are not subject to any quality controls. The heroin they peddle is usually contaminated with all sorts of microorganisms. Moreover, purchasers never know just how much heroin they are buying. Heroin often kills when an addict buys an unusually pure sample and unintentionally injects an overdose. (See also Opium.) The most effective form of treatment for addiction to heroin and other narcotics is the synthetic narcotic drug methadone. The drug itself is extremely addictive, but when it is given to heroin addicts on a daily basis, it prevents withdrawal syndrome and suppresses the drug hunger for heroin. The addict is then gradually weaned from the methadone addiction. (See also Narcotic and Sedative.) (From: Britannica Student Encyclopedia 2004 Children's Edition. 1994-2003

Exercises:
1. Explain the italicized grammar phenomena.
2. Give the summary of the text.
3. Define the notions in bold.
4. Do you agree with the underlined statements?
5. Ask problem questions.

Read the text below, translate it and learn the new words:
Juvenile delinquency. Causes and Effects

Social factors. In the United States, Europe, and Japan, most delinquents are boys, though since the early 1980s the number of delinquents who are girls has risen dramatically. Most of these in the United States come from the lower middle class and the poorest segments of society. One reason for this is the low esteem in which education is often held in these groups. Schooling seems boring and unchallenging, and the delinquent rebels against it by cutting classes or disrupting them and eventually may drop out altogether – as more than one quarter of teens did by the early 1990s. Such youths find in each other's company a compensation for their educational failure by rejecting the social values to which they are supposed to adhere. To make up for this failure, and finding their job market limited, they live dangerously and show contempt for authority. Many parents, educators, and others blame the violence found in many movies and television shows, rap music and heavy-metal rock lyrics, and comic books, as well as the economic aspirations and goals of society itself. The signs of affluence that children in the poor and working classes see about them – money, power, and a large array of consumer goods – make them desperately want some of these things even though they may feel they will never be able to afford them. Delinquency among middle-class youth has not been adequately researched, therefore its causes are even less clear. One theory suggests that for some boys it is a form of masculine protest against the dominant mother figure in many middle-class homes. This may be true when the father is away at work most of the time and has little contact with his children in free time. In places where drug abuse has become more common, crime has often increased.

Types of delinquent behavior. Traditionally, delinquency meant offenses such as truancy, assault, theft, arson, or vandalism. In recent decades, more violent crimes by teens became more common, especially for those who traffic in drugs or are addicted and commit crimes to support their habits. Bigotry could be seen in teens of all races; one example is the rise of white-supremacist gangs called skinheads. In the United States the Federal Bureau of Investigation reported that, for the period 1985–89, homicide arrests for those under age 18 rose 67 percent, compared with a 12 percent rise for those 18 or older. Sexual crimes also dramatically increased, with date rape one of the most common of adolescent sexual crimes. All the more troubling is the fact that the number of teenagers in the Childhood is a time of joy and innocence for most people; for others, life turns violent and so do they. Criminal acts of young persons are referred to broadly as juvenile delinquency. In some countries delinquency includes conduct that is antisocial, dangerous, or harmful to the goals of society. The general tendency is to limit the term to activities that if carried out by an adult would be called crimes, but in the United States since the 1980s juvenile delinquents are often referred to as “youthful offenders.” The age at which juveniles legally become adults varies from country to country, but it generally ranges from 15 to 18. Clearly the problem has skyrocketed; for example, in 1990 rates of arrest in California for burglary, theft, car theft, arson, and robbery are higher among juveniles than among adults. Sociological research has established such bases for predicting delinquent behavior as the nature of a child’s home environment, the quality of the child's neighborhood, and behavior in school. It has never been conclusively proved, however, that delinquency can be either predicted or prevented. It is far likelier that delinquency is an integral part of society and probably part of the maturation process that some children go through.

Causes and Effects For the majority of young offenders. Delinquency seems to be a phase passed through on the way to adulthood. Delinquent acts begin at about age 10 or 11, though there has been a substantial increase in even younger offenders in recent years. The more serious activities peak at 14 or 15 years of age and then begin to decline for the next several years. The exceptions to this generalization are some older youths who get involved in car theft, robbery, burglary, and even murder. They may well become adult criminals. For the majority, delinquent activities gradually decrease and may cease altogether as young people enter their 20s and face the prospect of full-time work and marriage. It does seem to be true, however, that the earlier in life delinquent activities are begun, the likelier it is that the pattern will persist – particularly in offenders who are convicted and
sentenced to juvenile correction institutions. Nature versus nurture. There has been much controversy among psychologists and sociologists in the late 20th century concerning whether some people are genetically disposed to crime or whether illegal acts have their origin in one's upbringing and environment. There is evidence to support both views. Those who believe it probable that there is a genetic disposition to crime have noted certain physical and personality differences between delinquents and nondelinquents. Delinquents have been found to have sturdier bodies and to act in a more aggressive way than nondelinquents. In their personality traits, delinquents are more extroverted, narcissistic, and impulsive, and less able to delay the satisfaction of desires. Some psychologists believe that there is an inherited flaw in the genetic makeup of a criminal that leads to rejection of society's standards. Others note that many violent prisoners have higher than normal levels of the male sex hormone testosterone. The contrary opinion tends to view delinquents as not substantially different from the remainder of the population. Not all sturdily built individuals, for instance, become criminals; many make their living as athletes or in a variety of professions. Studies in Great Britain have shown that delinquents tend to come from families where there is tension and much difficulty in interpersonal relationships. Family breakdown is also found to be a significant factor. The United States Bureau of Justice Statistics reports that in the late 1980s, about 70 percent of the juveniles in state reform institutions grew up in single-parent (usually with the mother as head of household) or no-parent families. Many delinquents come from homes where the parents abuse alcohol or drugs or are themselves criminals. Poverty, physical and verbal abuse, parents with little respect for themselves, and erratic discipline patterns emerge as contributing factors in such research. Beatings by parents or others can cause injuries to the brain, which in turn frequently cause neurological problems, paranoia, hallucinations, or violent behavior.

Causes and Effects Gangs and group crime. The cliché that “birds of a feather flock together” has special relevance for the social situation of delinquents. Alienated from society, they tend to form groups. Although nondelinquent teenagers also form gangs, delinquents are far likelier to do so. They are impelled by the need to belong and are drawn by the sense of security that a gang offers its members. In belonging to a gang there is a solidarity that an individual fails to find as a loner in society. Gang subculture has its own standards, obligations, and rights. It may also have its own dress code. Not all teens involved in a crime together are acting as a gang, however. In a well-publicized incident in 1989 a group of youths ages 14 to 16 raped and nearly murdered a young woman jogging in New York City's Central Park; they said they were “wilding,” roaming the park with no purpose but to create havoc and hurt people. Many schools are no safer than the streets; by 1990 it was estimated that more than 3 million incidents of attempted street crime (assault, rape, robbery, or theft) occur in schools or on school property each year. As more students carry weapons, more schools have instituted tough security measures. Society's Response Society tries to deal with youthful offenders in a variety of ways. The most common unofficial means are through school counseling and sessions with psychologists and psychiatrists. Social workers who deal with family problems also attempt to sort out the difficulties of young potential delinquents.


Exercises:
1. Explain the italicized grammar phenomena.
2. Give the summary of the text.
3. Define the notions in bold.
4. Do you agree with the underlined statements in bold?
5. Ask problem questions.

Listening:
Handguns in America
Kenya One Lap Top
Speaking:
Outline the main social problems of our modern society and the ways young people can help solve them. Discuss these ways.

Writing:
Workshop key speech – final variant

Current events.
Using informational internet sites find and render the information about current political events.

Unit 9
Human rights

Reading.
A right may be defined as something to which an individual has a just claim. The American Declaration of Independence states that “all men are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness.” This is a brief statement about human rights in contrast to civil rights. Human rights are those that individuals have by virtue of their existence as human beings. The right to life itself and the basic necessities of food and clothing may be considered fundamental human rights. Civil, or legal, rights are those granted by a government. The right to vote at age 18 is a civil right, not a human right. In the course of the 19th and 20th centuries there was a broadening of the concept of human rights to include many rights formerly regarded as civil.

Read the text below, translate it and learn the new words:

Text 1
Historical Background

The term human rights came into common use only after World War II. It was made current by the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights, published in 1948. As a term human rights replaced natural rights, a very old concept, and the related phrase rights of man, which did not necessarily include the rights of women. Most scholars trace the origin of the concept of natural rights to ancient Greek and Roman thought. In the literature and philosophy of both Greece and Rome there are abundant statements acknowledging laws of the gods and of nature, and such laws were understood to take precedence over laws made by the state. The human-rights concept, however, can actually be traced to an earlier period. The Hebrew Bible (called the Old Testament by Christians) relates the story of ancient Israel, and in it are abundant inferences about human rights. There is no well-developed statement on the issue, but there are significant scattered passages that give clear evidence of a point of view at least as advanced as Greek and Roman philosophy. The Ten Commandments, by the prohibition of murder and theft, give implicit recognition of the right to life and property. This recognition is considerably broadened by later elaboration of the laws and by the passionate discourses on justice by such prophets as Amos. If the concept of human rights is very old, the general recognition of their validity is not. Throughout most of history, governments failed to accept the notion that people have rights independent of the state. This is called statism, and it implies the supremacy of the state in all matters pertaining to the lives of subjects. Statism is still a potent concept in the 20th century. Germany under Adolf Hitler and the Soviet Union during the rule of Joseph Stalin are prime examples, and there are other equally valid instances that still exist. The modern development of the human-rights concept began during the late Middle Ages in the period called the Renaissance, when resistance to political and economic tyranny began to surface in Europe. It was during the 17th and 18th centuries, a period called the Enlightenment, that specific attention was drawn by scientific discoveries to the workings of natural law. This, in turn, seemed to imply the existence of natural rights with which the state should not
be allowed to interfere. By the time of the American and French revolutions, a complete turnaround had taken place in the relationship of governments to human rights. The point of view elaborated by the American Founding Fathers, as well as by the French revolutionaries, is that government's purpose is to protect and defend rights, not to dispense or exploit them. James Madison went so far as to assert that "as a man is said to have a right to his property, he may equally be said to have a property in his rights." And further, "Government is instituted to protect property of every sort." The Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen (France, 1789) states that, "Men are born and remain free and equal in rights," and "The aim of every political association is the preservation of the natural and inprescribable rights of man." Such advanced views of human rights were not without their critics. From the end of the 18th century through the third decade of the 20th, outspoken and influential theorists attacked the human-rights concept. Edmund Burke in England denounced what he called "the monstrous fiction" of human equality. Philosopher Jeremy Bentham stated that only imaginary rights can be derived from a law of nature. These thinkers were joined, in the course of 100 years, by Bentham's disciple John Stuart Mill, the French political theorist Joseph de Maistre, the German jurist Friedrich Karl von Savaigny, the Austrian philosopher Ludwig Wittgenstein, and others. By 1894 the British writer F.H. Bradley could exalt the concept of statism by saying: "The rights of the individual today are not worth consideration. . . . The welfare of the community is the end and is the ultimate standard." The critics, however, were going against the tide of history. In the United States and many parts of Europe, there was distinct progress in the development of human rights. These instances might not have been sufficient without the laboratory of human rights abuse that Nazi Germany provided for all the world to see. The appalling crimes against humanity, most evident in the extermination of millions of people in concentration camps, horrified the civilized world and helped bring human rights to their present level of acceptance. The general acceptance of human rights led to a widespread agreement on certain fundamental assumptions about them:

- If a right is affirmed as a human right rather than a civil right, it is understood to be universal, something that applies to all human beings everywhere.
- Rights are understood to represent individual and group demands for the sharing of political and economic power.
- It is agreed that human rights are not always absolute: they may be limited or restrained for the sake of the common good or to secure the rights of others.
- Human rights is not an umbrella term to cover all personal desires.
- The concept of rights often implies related obligations.

Thomas Jefferson noted that eternal vigilance is the price of liberty. Therefore, if individuals would maintain their freedom, their duty is to guard against political, religious, and social activities that may restrict their rights and the rights of others. Acceptance of fundamental assumptions has not lessened disagreement on which rights can be classified as human rights. Historically the debate has been carried on about three categories: individual, social, and collective. Individual rights refers to the basic rights to life and liberty mentioned in the Declaration of Independence. Social rights broadens this concept to include economic, social, and cultural rights. Collective, or solidarity, rights has come into prominence since the end of World War II, the collapse of old colonial empires, and the emergence of many new nation-states. These particular forms of rights are best described by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Individual rights. These rights were best described by the 17th- and 18th-century political theorists – such men as John Locke in England, Montesquieu in France, and Jefferson and others in the United States. They are the rights to life, liberty, privacy, the security of the individual, freedom of speech and press, freedom of worship, the right to own property, freedom from slavery, freedom from torture and unusual punishment, and similar rights as spelled out in the first ten amendments to the United States Constitution. Basic to individual rights is the concept of government as a shield against encroachment upon the person. Little is demanded from government but the right to be left alone. Government is not asked for anything except vigilance in safeguarding the rights of its citizens.
Social rights. This concept of rights grew out of the socialist and Communist criticisms of capitalism and its perceived economic injustices: low wages, long working hours, unsafe working conditions, and child labor, among others. Social rights make demands on government for such things as quality education, jobs, adequate medical care, social-insurance programs, housing, and other benefits. Basically they call for a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of the individual and the family.


Exercises:
1. Translate the words in bold.
2. Explain the underlined grammar phenomena.
3. Render the text.
4. Define the italicized notions.
5. How do you understand the fundamental assumptions, mentioned above?
6. Ask problem questions.

Text 2
The Soviet dissidents

With the death of dictator Joseph Stalin in 1953, challenges to the authority of the Communist party began to be heard in the Soviet Union. Groups of dissidents comprising students, intellectuals, and artists argued for freedom of speech and respect for human rights. Nikita Khrushchev, Stalin's successor, at first tolerated this openness, but dissidents were later ruthlessly persecuted by Soviet authorities. Many members of the intelligentsia were driven underground or forced to emigrate. The strength of dissident groups reached its pinnacle in the late 1960s and early 1970s. Self-published literature, called samizdat, promoted free speech and was secretly distributed among dissidents. Leonid Brezhnev, who replaced Khrushchev in 1964, cracked down on dissident activity, fearing that it would undermine the legitimacy of the Soviet system. Through contact with the West, dissidents transmitted information about human rights violations in the Soviet Union to the world, and many politically controversial works that were refused publication in the Soviet Union were published abroad. A leading figure among dissident writers was Alexander Solzhenitsyn, a former political prisoner. In 1962 he published his short novel ‘One Day in the Life of Ivan Denisovich’, which depicted the daily life of an inmate in one of Stalin's slave labor camps. Beginning in the late 1960s, Solzhenitsyn's work was banned in his homeland because of his criticism of government repression. The recipient of the 1970 Nobel prize for literature, Solzhenitsyn was expelled from the Soviet Union in 1974, soon after parts of his three-volume prison memoir ‘The Gulag Archipelago’ were published in Paris. The dissent that permeated post-Stalinist Russian literature was echoed by dissidents in other fields. Andrei Sakharov, a Soviet nuclear physicist who played a crucial role in the development of the Soviet Union's first hydrogen bomb, wrote an essay in 1968 that called for Soviet-American cooperation and an end to nuclear arms proliferation. In the 1970s he campaigned against human rights abuses in the Soviet Union. Soviet authorities sentenced Sakharov to internal exile in Gorky in 1980. Roy Medvedev, a historian, was expelled from the Communist party under Brezhnev in 1969 because of his criticism of Stalinism. During the Gorbachev era, political reform led to the release of many dissidents, and previously banned works found a new audience in the Soviet Union. Sakharov was released from exile in 1986, and Solzhenitsyn's Soviet citizenship was restored in 1990. Medvedev was readmitted to the Communist party in 1989.

Exercises:
1. Explain the underlined grammar phenomena.
2. Translate the words in bold.
3. Define the notions of individual and social rights, samizdat and slave labor camps
4. Do you agree with the statements in bold?
5. Give the summary of the text.
6. Ask problem questions to the students.

Read the text below, translate it and learn the new words:

Text 3
Women rights

Throughout most of history women generally **have had** fewer legal rights and career opportunities than men. **Wifedhood** and **motherhood** were regarded as women's most significant professions. In the 20th century, however, women in most nations won the right to vote and **increased** their educational and job **opportunities**. Perhaps most important, they fought for—and to a large degree **accomplished**—a **reevaluation** of traditional views of their role in society. Women were long considered naturally weaker than men, **squeamish**, and unable to perform work requiring muscular or intellectual development. In most **preindustrial societies**, for example, **domestic chores** were **relegated** to women, leaving “heavier” labor such as hunting and plowing to men. This ignored the fact that caring for children and doing such tasks as milking cows and washing clothes also required heavy, **sustained** labor. But physiological tests now suggest that women have a greater **tolerance for pain**, and statistics reveal that women live longer and **are more resistant to many diseases**.

**Maternity**, the natural biological role of women, **has traditionally been regarded** as their major social role as well. The resulting stereotype that “a woman's place is in the home” has largely determined the ways in which women have expressed themselves. Today, **contraception** and, in some areas, legalized **abortion** have given women greater control over the number of children they will bear. Although these developments **have freed** women for roles other than motherhood, the cultural pressure for women to become wives and mothers still **prevents** many talented women **from finishing college** or **pursuing careers**. Traditionally a middle-class girl in Western culture tended to learn from her mother's example that cooking, cleaning, and caring for children was the behavior expected of her when she grew up. Tests made in the 1960s showed that the **scholastic** achievement of girls was higher in the early grades than in high school. **The major reason given was that the girls' own expectations declined because neither their families nor their teachers expected them to prepare for a future other than that of marriage and motherhood.** This trend has been changing in recent decades. Formal education for girls historically has been secondary to that for boys. In colonial America girls learned to read and write at dame schools. They could **attend** the master's schools for boys when there was **room**, usually during the **summer** when most of the boys were working. By the end of the 19th century, however, the number of women students had increased greatly. Higher education particularly was broadened by the rise of women's colleges and the admission of women to regular colleges and universities. In 1870 an **estimated** one fifth of **resident** college and university students were women. By 1900 the proportion **had increased** to more than one third. Women **obtained** 19 percent of all undergraduate college degrees around the beginning of the 20th century. By 1984 the figure **had sharply increased** to 49 percent. Women also increased their numbers in graduate study. By the mid-1980s women were **earning** 49 percent of all master's degrees and about 33 percent of all doctoral degrees. In 1985 about 53 percent of all college students were women, more than one quarter of whom were above age 29.

**Gender Wage Gap.** Despite the Equal Pay Act of 1963, women in 1970 were paid about 45 percent less than men for the same jobs. But, since 1979, wages for female workers **had been steadily increasing**, and by 1993, the average pay of women was about 77 percent of the average pay of men in the workforce.
However, the gap between the respective wages of men and women widened by two percent during the four-year period from 1993 to 1997. Many economists saw the increase as a by-product of welfare reform that has pushed a large number of unskilled laborers into the workforce. Some economists argued that the increase in demand for jobs would drive wages among unskilled workers down by as much as 12 percent, and the wage decrease would be felt the hardest among women workers, who made up the majority of the unskilled working pool. Working women often faced discrimination on the mistaken belief that, because they were married or would most likely get married, they would not be permanent workers. But married women generally continued on their jobs for many years and were not a transient, temporary, or undependable work force. From 1960 to the early 1970s the influx of married women workers accounted for almost half of the increase in the total labor force, and working wives were staying on their jobs longer before starting families. The number of elderly working also increased markedly.


Exercises:
1. Translate the words in bold.
2. Explain the underlined grammar phenomena.
3. Render the text.
4. Define the notions: wifehood, motherhood, maternity, gender wage gap
5. Do you agree with the italicized statements?
6. Ask problem questions.

Read the text below, translate it and learn the new words:

Text 4
Minority groups

The terms minority and majority would seem to be mostly about numbers. A minority can be defined as less than half the population in a society. Therefore African Americans, American Indians, and Hispanic Americans can all be considered minorities in the United States. Realistically, however, minority cannot always be defined by numbers. Being in a minority often can have much more to do with one's standing in society. The black people of South Africa make up the overwhelming majority of the population. The most common conception of a minority is of a group of people who are distinct in ethnic background, religion, language, or nationality. Such minorities are often visible in contrast to the rest of society. Asian Americans, for example, are perceived as a distinct group in contrast to the mass of white Americans. In India the Sikhs are visible in relation to the Hindu majority by dress, general appearance, and religious practice. Every nation with a sizable population has minority groups within it. Whereas racial and ethnic characteristics most frequently serve to set minorities apart, there are other kinds of minorities as well, including religious, sexual, economic, and political. In Egypt the Coptic Christians are a minority. They are distinguished by their generally low economic and social status in an overwhelmingly Muslim nation. In many nations openly homosexual people are in the minority and are shunned. Throughout history all societies have had economic minorities. Political minorities are often called factions or interest groups. Any group that organizes to achieve political aims may be considered a minority. Sometimes a minority may gain control of a government and establish itself as the majority by subordinating the rest of society. This happened in 1917 in Russia. A faction of the Communist party, the Bolsheviks, seized control of the revolution and established the Soviet Union. In many countries such minorities seek only limited political and economic aims, not control of the government. To achieve their aims they vote for representation in government, and they form organizations to put pressure on elected officials.

Exercises:
1. Translate the words in bold.
2. Explain the underlined grammar phenomena.
3. Give the summary of the text.
4. What do you think about various types of minorities in our republic?
5. How should people treat national minorities? Sexual minorities?
6. What is your attitude to so called right defenders?

Listening:
1. Listen to the texts: “Iranian women rights”, “Youths Learn to Sow Seeds of Peace” and discuss them
2. See the films: “Becoming a US citizen”, A promise of freedom”

Writing:
Article.
Make a comparative analysis on one of the following topics:
- The Soviet dissidents – who are they?
- Women rights and feminism in Russian and American traditions.
- National minorities in our country and in the USA.
- Sex minorities in Russia and the USA. History and people’s attitude.
- Disabled people in Russia and in the USA.
Wright an article on the matter and send it to the magazine “A different View”
Try to discuss the problems of human rights, using the E-mail discussion list.

Current events.
Using informational internet sites find and render the information about current political events.

Vocabulary:
to endow, unalienable, to pursue, by virtue of, to regard, abundant, to relate, to infer with, scattered passages, evidence, prohibition, Ten Commandments, murder, theft, to give implicit recognition, to elaborate, passionate discourses, prophets, validity, to fail, to imply, the supremacy of, valid instances, the Renaissance, resistance to, to surface, the Enlightenment, to interfere with, turnaround, to dispense, to assert, to institute, outspoken, to denounce, to derive from, disciple, jurist, to exalt, abuse, appalling, extermination, concentration camps, to horrify, widespread fundamental assumptions, for the sake of, umbrella term, related obligations, eternal vigilance, to guard, to lessen, to come into prominence.
to spell out, amendments, to shield, encroachment, safeguarding, challenges, dissenters, comprising, to tolerate, dissidents, ruthlessly persecuted, to reached its pinnacle, self-published literature, to crack down, to transmit, controversial, political prisoner, to depict, inmate slave labor camps, to ban, recipient of the Nobel prize, to expel, memoir, to permeate, to echo, to play a crucial role, proliferation, to sentence, internal exile, to release.
to increase opportunities, to accomplish, squeamish, to relegate, domestic chores, sustained tolerance, resistant to, maternity, abortion, to prevent from, to pursue career, scholastic, to estimate, resident, to obtain, to earn, transient, influx, to account for, markedly, to shun, overwhelming.
SOURCES:

Textbooks:
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1. Victor Davis Hanson Why History has no End // City Journal, autumn 2003
2. Josef S. Nye, Jr. Understanding international politics, Harvard University, 1993

Periodicals:
1. The Boston Globe, editorial article, May 10, 2005
3. Materials of Foreign Policy Research Institute
4. National Geographic News February 26, 2004
5. BBC News education reporter, Edinburgh

Dictionaries and encyclopedias:
Internet- Resources:
1. www.un.org.cyberschoolbus
8. http://www.itu.int/qs/
29. http://www.bbc.co.uk/
31. http://www.sosig.ac.uk/politics/
Political aspects of cross-cultural communication and public speaking skills