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**ТЕМАТИЧЕСКИЙ
СБОРНИК ТЕКСТОВ
ДЛЯ ЧТЕНИЯ
(английский язык)**

Ульяновск 2006

ФЕДЕРАЛЬНОЕ АГЕНТСТВО ПО ОБРАЗОВАНИЮ
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**Тематический сборник текстов
для чтения
(английский язык)**

Учебно-методическое пособие

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Сборник построен как вспомогательное методическое обеспечение самостоятельной работы **студентов** по программе курса «Иностранный язык» (английский, начальный этап). В данном учебном издании представлена подборка текстов для чтения из различных источников, в том числе из **Internet-ресурсов**, согласно тематике рабочих программ по иностранным языкам. Работа подготовлена на цикле «Прикладная **лингвистика**».

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Введение

Данный сборник построен как вспомогательное методическое обеспечение самостоятельной работы студентов по **программе** курса «Иностранный язык» (Английский, начальный этап) для специальности «Теоретическая и прикладная лингвистика» Ульяновского государственного технического университета. Сборник также может быть полезным для студентов и других специальностей высших учебных заведений при изучении курса иностранного языка,

В данном учебном издании представлена подборка текстов для чтения из различных источников, в том числе из **Internet-ресурсов** (см. **библиографический список**), согласно тематике рабочих программ по иностранным языкам.

Пособие подходит как для внеаудиторных занятий, так и аудиторных, и имеет своей целью выработку у студентов навыков чтения и творческого анализа аутентичных текстов.

Спецификой данного сборника является также познавательный характер материала, так как многие тексты несут энциклопедические знания по тем или иным областям жизни **общества**, и будут интересны студентам. Кроме того, к сборнику прилагается расширенный электронный вариант текстов, которые можно просматривать на **компьютере**.

Наряду с типовыми рекомендуемыми нами заданиями и упражнениями при работе со сборником преподаватель также получает свободу в формировании собственных учебных заданий по изученным темам и текстам.

Методические рекомендации

Преподавателю:

При **отработке навыков чтения** основные задачи программы курса на начальном этапе - это умение понимать письменное сообщение, используя различные виды чтения в зависимости от конкретной коммуникативной задачи. Как правило это:

а) детальное понимание текста (как основного содержания, так и деталей текста) — изучающий вид чтения (скорость чтения не ниже 60-70 слов в **минуту**, полнота понимания — от 90%, объем текста — до 700 слов оригинального текста; объем незнакомой лексики в не ключевых позициях — до 10%);

б) нахождение в тексте ключевой информации для понимания основного содержания текста - ознакомительный вид чтения (скорость чтения 120 слов в минуту, полнота понимания — 40%, объем текста - до 2000 слов оригинального текста; объем незнакомой лексики **внеключевых** позициях — до 40%);

в) нахождение и понимание информации, ограниченной коммуникативным заданием, — просмотровый вид чтения (скорость чтения не ниже 140 слов в минуту, полнота понимания — до 20%, объем текста — до 1000 слов).

При этом студент должен получить лингвистическую информацию, касающуюся таких понятий как:

- Виды чтения **текста** (просмотровой, изучающий и др.)
- Организация текста в соответствии с коммуникативной целью высказывания. Структурная, смысловая и коммуникативная целостность текста.
- Референция имен (идентификация предметов, называемых в высказывании), категория предикативности (идентификация временной и модальной отнесенности высказывания к действительности), локально-временная отнесенность высказывания (обстоятельственные уточнители места и времени) как основные **актуализаторы** текста.
- **Текстообразующие** функции порядка слов, расположения предложений (как актуализаторы поступательного движения информативного содержания текста), союзов, союзных и соединительных слов (для установления логических связей высказывания).
- Композиционное оформление текста. Абзац как единица композиционной структуры текста. Пунктуация.

При работе со сборником в зависимости от контингента и уровня знаний обучающихся **преподаватель** вправе самостоятельно формировать упражнения и вопросы на понимание, проверяющие умение студента понять общее содержание,

детали и структуру текста. При этом можно использовать традиционные типы заданий, вырабатывающие навыки разных видов чтения.

Рекомендуемые типы заданий для студентов:

При внеаудиторной (самостоятельной) работе:

1. Прочитайте текст без обращения к словарю. Засеките время. Постарайтесь в одном высказывании сформулировать главную мысль текста, предложите новый заголовок.
2. Читайте абзац за абзацем. Выделяйте незнакомые **слова/словосочетания**.
3. Выпишите не менее 10 незнакомых слов. Догадитесь о значении выделенных незнакомых слов. Найдите неизвестные слова по словарю. Подберите не менее 3 основных значений для каждого слова.
4. Укажите какие из абзацев/предложений абзаца несут главную информацию, почему.
5. В указанных абзацах подчеркните ключевое слово (или предложение).
6. Выполните перевод указанных предложений на русский язык. Какие единицы не имели прямых эквивалентов по словарю.
7. Определите по формальным признакам, какими частями речи являются выделенные слова.
8. Составьте план текста для пересказа.
9. Выпишите все прилагательные/существительные в указанном абзаце. Подберите **синонимы/антонимы**.
10. Напишите сообщение/эссе (не более 100 слов) по теме текста.
11. Найдите дополнительную информацию по прочитанному вопросу.
12. Составьте 10 вопросов по тексту.
13. Составьте не менее 10 предложений с незнакомыми словами.
14. Выберите примеры, демонстрирующие те или иные грамматические явления изучаемые в разделе грамматики английского языка (время, типы причастий, модальности и др.)
15. Выделите средства связности в тексте.
16. Дайте несколько вариантов предложения.
17. Что вы хотели бы узнать по теме текста дополнительно.

При аудиторной работе:

1. Прочтите предложения. Выразите ту же мысль по-другому.
2. Соотнесите понятия, выражаемые данными словами, с темой текста.
3. Перечислите вопросы, освещаемые в тексте.

4. Дайте краткую аннотацию прочитанного.
5. Ответьте на вопросы преподавателя по тексту.
6. Прокомментируйте предложения, взятые из текста.
7. Перескажите текст группе/товарищу/преподавателю.
8. Выразите свое отношение к прочитанному.
9. Составьте ложные и истинные утверждения по тексту. Спросите товарища.
10. Какие аспекты вас заинтересовали, что нового вы узнали из текста, что еще хотели бы узнать.

Рекомендуемые формы промежуточного и итогового контроля:

Во время тестирования навыков чтения студент анализирует 1-3 текста (от 300 до 700 слов), к которым предлагаются вопросы на понимание, что проверяет умение студента понять общее содержание, детали и структуру текста, а также умение выделить конкретную **информацию**. Кроме того, при организации тестирования рекомендуется делать реферативный пересказ одного из текстов, и сообщать свое мнение по тому или иному проблемному вопросу, затрагиваемому в тексте.

ТОПИО 1. APPEARANCE, CLOTHES, FASHION

Text 1. Beauty

Beauty is the perception of the experience of pleasure, through the perception of balance and proportion of stimulus. It involves the cognition of a balanced form and structure that elicits.

Understanding the nature and meaning of beauty is one of the key themes in the philosophical discipline known as aesthetics.

The composer and critic Robert Schumann distinguished between two kinds of beauty, *natural* beauty and *poetic* beauty: the former being found in the contemplation of nature, the latter in man's conscious, creative intervention into nature. Schumann indicated that in music, or other art, both kinds of beauty appear, but the former is only sensual delight, while the latter begins where the former leaves off.

A common theory says that beauty is the appearance of things and people that are good. This has many supporting examples. Most people judge physically attractive human beings to be good, both physically and on deeper levels.

"Beauty as goodness" still has whole classes of significant counterexamples with no agreed solution. These include such things as a glacier, or a ruggedly dry desert mountain range. Many people find beauty in hostile places, but this seems bad, or at least unrelated to any sense of goodness. Another type of counterexample are comic or sarcastic works of art, which can be good, but are rarely beautiful.

It is well known that people's skills develop and change their sense of beauty. Carpenters may view an out-of-true building as ugly, and many master carpenters can see out-of-true angles as small as half a degree. Many musicians can likewise bear as dissonant a tone that's high or low by as little as two percent of the distance to the next note. Most people have similar aesthetics about the work or hobbies they've mastered.

Beauty and human appearance

Symmetry may be important because it is evidence that the person grew up in a healthy way, and without visible genetic defects. One traditional, subtle feature that is considered an indication of beautiful women in all cultures is a waist-to-hip ratio of about 70% (waist circumference is 70% of the hips circumference). The waist-to-hip ratio (WHR) theory was discovered by psychologist Dr. Devendra Singh of the University of

Texas at Austin. Physiologists have shown that this ratio accurately indicates most women's fertility. Traditionally, in premodern ages when food was more scarce, plump people were judged more attractive than thin ones.

Theories of beauty

The earliest theory of beauty can be found in the works of early Greek philosophers from the pre-Socratic period, like Pythagoras. The extant writings attributed to Pythagoras reveal that the Pythagorean school, if not Pythagoras himself, saw a strong connection between mathematics and beauty. In particular, they noted that objects proportioned according to the golden ratio seemed more attractive. Some modern research seems to confirm this, that people whose facial features are symmetric and proportioned according to the golden ratio are consistently ranked as more attractive than those whose faces are not.

Different cultures have deified beauty, typically in female forms. Here is a list of the goddesses of beauty in different mythologies.

- Aphrodite -Greek mythology
- Lakshmi -Hindu mythology
- Venus -Roman mythology

Even mathematical formulae can be considered beautiful. $e^{\pi} + 1 = 0$ is commonly considered one of the most beautiful theorems in mathematics.

Another connection between mathematics and beauty which played a prominent role in Pythagoras' philosophy was the way in which musical tones can be arranged in mathematical sequences, which repeat at regular intervals called octaves.

Beauty contests claim to be able to judge beauty. The *millihelen* is sometimes jokingly defined as the scientific unit of beauty. This derives from the legend of Helen of Troy as presented in Christopher Marlowe's *The Tragical History of Doctor Faustus*, in which her beauty was said to have launched a thousand ships. The *millihelen* is therefore the degree of beauty that can launch one ship.

Text 2. Body modification

Body modification (or body alteration) is the permanent or semi-permanent deliberate altering of the human body for non-medical reasons, such as spiritual or aesthetic. It can range from the socially acceptable decoration (e.g., pierced ears on women in many societies) to the rebellious (e.g., nostril piercings in punk subculture). Opponents of these practices call them *disfigurement* or *mutilation*.

Nearly every human society practices or has practiced some type of body modification in its broadest definition, from Maori tattoos to Victorian corsets to modern breast implants.

One controversial form of body modification is the attempt to resemble another race, such as Asians having their epicanthic folds modified to resemble Caucasian eyes or skin lightened with dyes, or African-Americans straightening their hair or getting a pose job.

"Disfigurement" and "mutilation" are terms used by opponents of body modification to describe certain types of modifications, especially non-consensual ones. Those terms are used fairly uncontroversially to describe the victims of torture, who have endured damage to ears, eyes, feet, genitalia, hands, noses, teeth, and/or tongues, including amputation, burning, flagellation, piercing, skinning, and wheeling.

Body art is body modification for artistic reasons.

Some futurists believe that eventually humans will pursue body modification for technological reasons, with permanently implanted devices to enhance mental and physical capabilities, thereby becoming cyborgs. For the substantial number of people with heart pacemakers and brain implants such as cochlear implants and electrical brain stimulators for Parkinson's disease, this is already a reality.

Some types of body modification

- body piercing
- tattooing
- branding and other scarification
- "Extreme" surgical body modification
- bodybuilding
- corsetry, Tightlacing
- foot binding and etc.

Text 3. Body piercing

Body piercing is a form of body modification. It involves piercing a part of the human body and subsequently inserting and keeping a foreign object in the opening until the wound heals. This forms a tunnel of skin around the foreign object, thus creating a suitable place for wearing different types of body piercing jewelry. The term "piercing" typically refers to this hole. One example of this process is the common ear piercing. This procedure is so simple and mainstream that some people do not even think of it as body piercing.

Body piercing has been common among most cultures throughout history other than some puritan eras. In many cultures, piercing is part of religious tradition, while in others, it is non-religious tradition. In more recent times, body piercing in industrialized cultures has emerged from the underground and become visible (though it was always present). It is performed for various reasons: aesthetics, sensations, self-image, or occasionally shock value.

Piercing the body carries with it a number of risks, most notably the risk of infection and the risk of delayed healing. The risk of infection varies; good sterile practice greatly reduces it, whereas the risk is considerable with "do-it-yourself" piercing. An infection can ONLY be treated with antibiotics from a doctor. An infection can generally be self-diagnosed as hot to the touch, very sore and tender, smells funny and excreting a brown/green pus. Infections are commonly confused with simple irritation to the piercing. All piercing sites should be kept clean until they are healed. Peroxide or bactine should never be used to clean any piercing. The piercing healing time (see below) varies depending on what sort of piercing has been performed.

The origins of piercing

Piercing has ancient origins. The oldest mummified body in the world discovered in an Austrian glacier was found to have an ear piercing 7–11 mm in diameter. Nose piercing is mentioned in the Bible. In Genesis 24:22 Abraham gave an earring to Rebekah, wife of his son Isaac. Nose piercing reached India in the 16th century and rapidly became accepted. Tongue piercing was popular with the elite of Aztec and Maya civilization; it was carried out as part of a blood ritual, not to insert jewelry. Ancient Mesoamericans did pierce ears, noses, and lower lips for jewelry, practices still popular amongst indigenous peoples in these regions. In *Dreamtime* by Nancy Peter Duerr, it is claimed that nipple piercing became popular in 14th century Europe. On many websites it is claimed that the Romans invented

nipple piercing and that soldiers attached their ^{capeз} to ^{те} piercings. There is ^{зоте} debate about this as it is much ^{тоге} plausible that ^{capeз} may have been hung from rings attached to their armor.

Piercing in industrialized civilizations

In the United States, ear piercing for females was long the only common piercing. Other body piercings were popularized by Jim Ward and his piercing shop, The Gauntlet, which opened in 1975 in Los Angeles. Since piercing has become more common and widespread, many new piercings have been developed that do not have a history or precedent.

Some regard *bodypiercing* as a kind of artistic expression, others as a form of sexual expression.

Text 4. Dandy

A **dandy** is a man who rejects bourgeois values, devotes particular attention to his physical appearance, refines his language, and cultivates his hobbies. A dandy emulates aristocratic values, often without being an aristocrat himself, thus such a dandy is a form of snob. The practice of **dandyism** was a counter-cultural habit that began in the revolutionary 1790s both in London and Paris.

The word *dandy* (of unknown origin) was a vogue word during the Napoleonic Wars. (It did make an early appearance in a Scottish border ballad about 1780, but probably not with its usual meaning.) The very model of the dandy in British society was George Bryan "Beau" Brummell (1778-1840), an associate of the Prince Regent: unpowdered, unperfumed, immaculately bathed and shaved, in a plain dark blue coat, perfectly brushed, of perfect fit, showing a lot of perfectly starched linens, perfectly freshly laundered, he was an early celebrity from the mid-1790s, famous chiefly for being a laconic wit and a clothes-horse. Brummell inherited a fortune of thirty thousand pounds, which he spent mostly on costume and high living, until he suffered the typical fate of the dandy, and fled from his creditors to France, and ultimately died in a lunatic asylum.

During his heyday, though, Brummell's *dicta* on fashion and etiquette reigned supreme. Brummell's habits of dress and fashion were widely imitated, especially in France where, in an unusual mixture, they became especially the rage in bohemian quarters. People of more notable accomplishments than Brummell adopted his pose as well; George Gordon Byron,

6т Вагон Вуог occasionally dressed the part of the top, and helped reintroduce the frilly, lace-cuffed and collared "poet shirt," and had his portrait painted in Albanian costume.

A great dandy in the 1840s was Alfred Guillaume Gabriel d'Orsay, the Count d'Orsay, who had been a friend of Вуог and moved in the highest London circles. The great dandy of literature is the Scarlet Pimpernel, a fiction of 1905 set during the French Revolution.

In France the practice was known by the English word, as *dandyisme*. The dandy was self-created. The poet Charles Baudelaire wrote that an aspiring dandy must have "no profession other than elegance. . . no other status but that of cultivating the idea of beauty in their own persons. . . . The dandy must aspire to be sublime without interruption; he must live and sleep before a mirror." Jules Amédée Barbey d'Aurevilly wrote an essay on *The Anatomy of Dandyism*, which was devoted in large measure to examining the career of Beau Brummell. By their elaborate care as to their costume, French bohemian dandies, like their less well dressed bohemian brethren, sought to convey their contempt for and superiority to bourgeois society by their dress and way of life. It is little wonder that the French dandies acquired a reputation for decadence. Their fancy-dress bohemianism became a major influence on the Symbolist movement in French literature during the latter part of the nineteenth century.

The dandy cultivated a skeptical reserve, to such extremes that the novelist George Meredith, no dandy himself, was of the opinion that "Cynicism is intellectual dandyism."

The female equivalents of dandies must be looked for in the *demi-monde*. An extravagant courtesan like Cora Pearl might be considered a female dandy.

The 1890s provided many suitably sheltered settings for dandyism: the poets Algernon Swinburne and Oscar Wilde, Walter Pater, the American artist James McNeill Whistler, Joris-Karl Huysmans, Max Beerbohm, Robert de Montesquieu, the dandy who inspired Marcel Proust's Baron de Charlus. In Italy Gabriele d'Annunzio and Carlo Bugatti exemplified the artistic bohemian dandyism at the turn of the 20th century. The 20th century had less patience with dandyism: the Prince of Wales, briefly Edward VIII was something of a dandy, and it did not help his public appeal.

Text 5. Dreadlocks

Dreadlocks are long thin mats of hair that has been allowed to grow out over time. Sometimes if normal hair is left for a long period of time, dreadlocks happen by themselves; sometimes people start them off artificially by dividing their hair up into sections, backcombing or plaiting the sections, and leaving them. After a while, tangles will start to form as the hair starts to bind to its new shape.

The term was first recorded in 1960, so called from the dread they presumably aroused in beholders, but, for Rastafarians, "**dread**" (1974) also has a sense of "fear of the Lord," expressed in part as alienation from contemporary society. However, the style is not new: ancient Celts sometimes sported dreadlocks, which they moulded with mud.

There are several methods for keeping dreadlocks neat. As they grow, little wisps of short hair will appear around them. If you leave them, eventually the dreadlocks will settle down and form their own natural way of sitting — Black people's hair usually does this, but Caucasians might like to wax their hair, sew the wispy bits in, or wrap thread or wool round their dreadlocks, sealing the short hair in. A crochet hook can be a very useful tool in the creation and tidying up of dreadlocks. Simply twist tufts of hair between your fingers then hook and pull them through the dreadlock. This technique can also be used at the ends of dreadlocks to make them more rounded.

As they grow they can be "ripped". Two (or more) dreadlocks fuse at the top as the hair grows and mats together. They need to be pulled apart (a painful experience) for the dreadlocks to continue growing separately (although this is down to the individual). Mud and certain chemicals are sometimes applied to shape the dreadlocks.

There are many reasons for wearing dreadlocks. For some it is a religious issue (such as the Rastafarians), for others a fashionable thing, for a few they just happen. They are considered a badge of an "alternative lifestyle" in Europe and America because they are often perceived as messy and **dirty**. The "**dreadlock**" sometimes referred to in certain areas as "locking", which basically means "not combing or allowing the hair to mat together", has become increasingly popular. Many African Americans are trading in chemical processes and other styles for this very low maintenance **hairstyle**.

Text 6. Fashion

A **fashion** consists of a current (constantly changing) trend, favoured for frivolous rather than practical, logical, or intellectual reasons.

Fashions are social psychology phenomena common to many fields of human activity and thinking.

Although that concept frequently applies to clothes and other aspects of appearance, it can apply also to:

- music, art, politics**philosophy**,
- and even to mathematics, the choice of programming**techniques**,
- and also economic trends, such as those studied in behavioral finance, and so on.

Fashion exists in the interstices of aesthetics with innovation, coupled with pleasing details and expense.

Fashion in clothes has allowed wearers to express emotion or solidarity with other people for millennia. Modern Westerners have a wide choice available in the selection of their clothes. What a person chooses to wear can reflect their personality or likes. When people who have cultural status start to wear new or different clothes a fashion trend may start; people who like or respect them may start to wear clothes of a similar style.

Fashions may vary significantly within a society according to age, social class, generation, occupation and geography as well as over time. If, for example, an older person dresses according to the fashion of young people, he or she may look ridiculous in the eyes of both young and older people. The term "fashion **victim**" refers to someone who slavishly follows the current fashions (implementations of fashion).

One can regard the system of sporting various fashions as a fashion language incorporating various fashion statements using a grammar of fashion.

Fashion, by definition, changes constantly. The change may proceed more rapidly than in most other fields of human activity (language, thought, etc). For some, modern fast-paced change in fashion embodies many of the negative aspects of capitalism: it results in waste and encourages people *qua* consumers to buy things unnecessarily. Others, especially young people, enjoy the diversity that changing fashion can apparently provide, seeing the constant change as a way to satisfy their desire to experience "new" and "interesting" things. Note

too though that fashion can change to enforce uniformity, as in the case where so-called Mao suits became the national uniform of Mainland China.

Materially affluent societies can offer a variety of different fashions, in clothes or accessories, to choose from. At the same time there remains an equal or larger range designated (at least currently) '**out of fashion**'. (These or similar fashions may cyclically come back '**into fashion**' in due course, and remain '**in fashion**' again for a while.)

Practically every aspect of appearance that can be changed has been changed at some time. In the past, new discoveries and lesser-known parts of the world could provide an impetus to change fashions based on the exotic: Europe in the eighteenth or nineteenth centuries, for example, might favour things Turkish at one time, things Chinese at another, and things Japanese at a third. The global village has reduced the options of exotic novelty in more recent **times**.

Fashion houses and their associated fashion designers, as well as high-status consumers (including celebrities), appear to have some role in determining the rates and directions of fashion change. Fashion can also suggest or signal status in a social group. Groups with high cultural status like to keep '**in fashion**' to display their position; people who do not keep '**in fashion**' within a so-called "style tribe" can risk shunning. Because keeping '**in fashion**' often requires considerable amounts of money, fashion can be used to show off wealth. Adherence to fashion trends can thus form an index of social affluence and an indicator of social mobility.

Fashion can help attract a partner. As well as showing certain features of a person's personality that appeal to prospective mates, keeping up with fashion can advertise a person's status to such candidates.

"Fashion sense" consists of the ability to tell what clothing **and/or** accessories look good and what doesn't. Since the entire notion of fashion depends on subjectivity, so does the question of who possesses "fashion **sense**". Some people style themselves as "fashion consultants" and charge clients to help the latter choose what to wear. Designers show the public what is new and in style by using people who do Fashion Modeling to display the clothing. Image consultants help people revamp or create fashion sense.

Text 7. Headgear

Headgear, headwear or headdress is the name given to any element of clothing which is worn on **one's** head. Common forms of headgear include **hats, caps, bonnets, hoods, headscarves and helmets**. Headgear can have great symbolic significance: in a monarchy, for example, royalty often have special crowns. Hair accessories and replacements, such as wigs, may also be included in the category of headgear.

Headgear can serve a variety of purposes:

- protection (against impact, cold, rain and other precipitation, heat, glare, sun burn, dust, infection, chemicals, noise, insects, etc)
- to keep hair contained or tidy
- decoration or fashion
- religious purposes
- modesty; social convention
- hiding baldness
- distinction; a badge of office

Types of headgear:

Hats

Hats often have a brim all the way around the rim, and may be either placed on the head, or secured with hat-pins (which are pushed through the hat and the hair). Depending on the type of hat, they may be worn only by men, women or by either sex.

Caps

Caps are generally soft, and often have no brim, or just a peak (like on a baseball cap). For many centuries women wore a variety of head-coverings which were called caps. In the 18th and 19th centuries for example a cap was a kind of head covering made of a flimsy fabric such as muslin; they were worn indoors or under bonnets by married women, or older unmarried women who were "on the shelf" (e.g. mob-cap).

Bonnets

Bonnets, as worn by women, were generally **brimless** hats worn outdoors which were secured by tying under the chin, and which covered no part of the forehead. Some styles of bonnets had a large peak which effectively prevented women from looking right or left without turning their heads. Bonnets worn by men and boys are generally distinguished

from hats by being soft and having no brim - this usage is now rare (they would normally be called caps today).

Helmets

Helmets are designed to protect the head, and sometimes the **neck**, from injury. They are usually rigid, and offer protection from blows. Helmets are commonly worn in battle, on construction sites and in many contact sports.

Turbans

Turbans are primarily worn for two reasons. Firstly due to religious or cultural beliefs and secondly for protection from the elements, especially sun. So you will for example **find** that the Sikhs are required to wear a turban as a religious necessity while Arabs in the Middle-East wear it for protection and cultural reasons.

Hoods

Hoods today are generally soft headcoverings which form part of a larger garment like an overcoat, shirt or cloak. Historically, hoods were either similar to modern hoods, often forming part of a cloak or cape, or a separate form of headgear. Soft hoods were worn by men under hats. **Women's** hoods varied from close-fitting, soft headgear to stiffened, structured hoods (e.g. gable hood) or very large coverings made of material over a frame which fashionable women wore over towering wigs or hairstyles to protect them from the elements (e.g. calash).

Masks

A mask is worn over part or **all** of the face, frequently to disguise the wearer, but sometimes to protect them. Masks are often worn as disguises at fancy dress parties, a masqued balls or at **Hallowe'en**, or they may be worn by criminals to prevent people recognising them as they commit a crime. Masks which physically protect the wearer vary from bars across the face in the case of ice hockey goalkeepers, to devices which purify or control the **wearer's** air supply, as in gas masks.

Wigs

Wigs are synthetic hair which may be worn to disguise baldness or as part of a costume. In most Commonwealth nations, special wigs are also worn by barristers, judges, and certain parliamentary officials as a symbol of the office.

Veils

Today a veil is normally a piece of fabric which covers all or part of the face. For centuries up until the Tudor period (1485), women wore veils which covered the hair, and **sometimes** the neck and chin, but not the face.

Protective hats

The most common use of a hat is as protection for the head and eyes. A baseball cap is used by sports players to keep the sun out of their eyes, and by some chefs to keep the hair out of their food. Traditionally, silk **chef's** hats are used for this purpose. A rain hat has a wide rim to keep the rain out of the wearer's face. Some traditional types of hat such as the Mexican sombrero also serve this purpose.

A "**chuche**" or "**tagelmoust**" turban, worn by men and women in **Saharan** Africa as protection against wind and sand.

There are also the full range of helmets. There are also hats that are worn for protection from the cold. These include many varieties of fur hats, and also the Canadian tuque.

Tin foil hats are worn by some to protect against mind control rays, although the existence of any such threat has yet to be substantiated.

Fashionable hats

Hats are also an article of fashion; the formal **man's** black silk top hat was formerly an indispensable portion of the suit, and **women's** hats have, over the years, attained a fantastic number of shapes ranging from immense confections to no more than a few bits of cloth and decorations piled on top of the head. Recently, the hat as an article of formal wear has fallen out of fashion, though some kinds of hats other than baseball caps may be included in young people's **subcultural** fashions.

Religious headgear

A number of hats are used for religious purposes. Observant Jewish men wear **yarmulkes**, small cloth skull-caps, because they believe the head should be covered in the presence of God. Some Jewish men wear yarmulkes at all times, others in the synagogue. Similar to the yarmulke is the zucchetto worn by Roman Catholic clergy. Other forms of apostolic head-gear include the **mitre**, **biretta**, **tasselled** cardinal's hat, and the papal tiara. A Jamaican Judge wearing a wig as a sign of his office Male Sikhs are required to wear turbans.

Text 7. Origins of Jeans

Jeans were invented in **Genoa**, Italy when that city was an independent Republic, and a naval power. The first jeans were made for the Genoese Navy because it required an all-purpose pant for its sailors that could be worn wet or dry, and whose legs could easily be **rolled-up** to wear swabbing the deck and for swimming. These jeans would be laundered by dragging them in large mesh nets behind the ship, and the sea water would bleach them white. The first denim came from (**french:de**) **Nomes**, France ... hence the name denim. The French word for these pants was very similar to their word for Genoa; this is where we get the term '**jeans**' today.

Jeans were developed in America in 1853, when Levi Strauss came to San Francisco to open a west coast branch of his brothers' New York dry goods business. One of Levi's customers was Jacob Davis, a tailor who frequently purchased bolts of cloth from the Levi Strauss & Co wholesale house. After one of **Jacob's costumers** kept purchasing cloth to reinforce torn pants, he had an idea to use copper rivets to reinforce the points of strain, such as on the pocket corners and at the base of the button fly. Jacobs did not have the required money to purchase a patent, so he wrote to Levi suggesting that they both go into business together. After Levi accepted Jacobs **offer**, on May 20, 1874, the two men received patent #139,121 from the United States Patent and Trademark Office, and the blue jean was born.

Jeans have been often compared to four-wheel drive vehicles and hiking boots, because they can go anywhere. Levis are known for their rugged construction, personal "shrink-to-fit", and versatility. Originally worn by miners, fanners, and cowboys, Levis are now worn **in** all walks of life.

Text 8. Moustache

A **moustache** (sometimes spelled **mustache** in the United States) is an outgrowth of hair above the upper **lip**. Most men with a normal or strong beard growth must tend it daily, by shaving the hair of the chin and cheeks, to prevent it from soon reverting to a full beard. This necessity has engendered the invention of quite a wide variety of accoutrements designed for the care of a gentleman's moustache. Included are: moustache wax, moustache nets (snoods), moustache brushes, moustache combs and moustache scissors.

Historically, moustaches have been worn by military men and the number of nations, regiments and ranks were equalled only by the number of styles and variations. Generally, the younger men and lower ranks wore the smaller and less elaborate moustaches. As a man advanced in **rank**, so did his moustache become thicker and bushier, until he ultimately was permitted to wear an ever fuller beard. For a glimpse into this colourful and noble past, refer to the works of famous military artists.

An English moustache was formerly used in melodramas, movies and comic books as a shorthand indication of villainy. Snidely Whiplash, for example, was characterized by his moustache, his cape, and his habit of kidnapping women and then tying them to train tracks, in order to foreclose on their mortgages.

Text 9. Swimsuit

A **swimsuit** (also *swimmers*), **bathing suit** (also *bathers*) or **swimming costume** (sometimes shortened to *cozzie*) is an item of clothing designed to be worn for swimming. Swimsuits are typically skin-tight clothing, and range from garments designed to preserve as much modesty as possible to garments designed to reveal as much of the body as possible without actual nudity. They are often lined with fabric that assures that they do not become transparent when wet.

Men's swimsuits tend to be shorts or briefs, or cut-off jeans.

Women's swimsuits are generally either one-piece swimsuits or bikinis. Also there is the **monokini**, in case the coverage of the breasts is neither required nor desired. However, special swimsuits for competitive swimming, designed to reduce skin drag, can resemble **unitards**.

For some kinds of swimming and diving, special bodysuits called diveskins are worn. They are made from **spandex** and provide little thermal protection but simply protect the skin from stings and abrasion.

Swimsuits are also worn for the purpose of body display in beauty pageants. The magazine Sports Illustrated has an annual "swimsuit issue" that features models and sports personalities in swimsuits.

Swimsuits are also worn on beaches and around swimming pools (even if no swimming is involved). Many authorities believe that children of both sexes should also wear T-shirts outdoors on sunny days to protect from sunburn. Swimming without a bathing suit is a form

of nudism; special beaches may be reserved for nude sunbathing and swimming (*nude beaches*). Swimming in the nude is also known by the slang term *skinny-dipping*.

Styles of swimsuit:

- 1) One-piece **swimsuits**: maillot, tank, pretzel **suit**, plunge front, **halter-neck**, **monokini**
- 2) Two-piece swimsuits: bikini, **tankini** (A tank top combined with a bikini bottom.)

In Classical antiquity swimming and bathing was most often done nude. In some settings coverings were used. Murals at Pompeii show women wearing two-piece suits covering the areas around their breasts and hips in a fashion remarkably similar to a bikini of 1960. After this, the notion of special water apparel seems to have been lost for centuries.

In the 18th century women wore "bathing gowns" in the water; these were long dresses of fabrics that would not become transparent when wet, with weights sewed into the hems so that they would not rise up in the water. The men's swim **suit**, a rather form fitting wool garment with long sleeves and legs, similar to **long** underwear, was developed and would change little for a **century**.

In the 19th century, the **woman's** two piece suit became **common**-- the two pieces being a gown from shoulder to knees plus a set of trousers with leggings going down to the ankles. In the Victorian era, popular beach resorts were commonly equipped with bathing machines, with the purpose of avoiding exposure of people in swimsuits (even though these were very modest by **today's** standards), especially to people of the opposite sex.

In 1907 the swimmer Annette **Kellerman** from Australia visited the United States as an "**underwater** ballerina", a version of synchronized swimming, involving diving into glass tanks. She was arrested for indecent exposure, as her swimsuit showed arms, legs and the neck. Kellerman changed the suit to have long arms and legs, and a collar, still keeping the close **fit** revealing the shapes underneath. She later starred in several movies, including one about her life.

After this, bathing wear began being less conservative, first uncovering the arms and then the legs up to mid-thigh. Collars receded from up around the neck down to about mid-way between the neck and nipples. The development of new fabrics allowed for new varieties of more comfortable and practical swim wear. On some beaches in the United States, men were prohibited from going topless as late as the 1930s.

Due to the figure-hugging nature of these garments, glamor photography of the 1940s and 1950s often featured people wearing swimsuits. This subset of glamour photography

eventually evolved into **swimsuit** photography with the help of Sports Illustrated and swimsuit photographers around the world.

The first bikinis were introduced just after World War II. Early examples were not very different from the women's two pieces common since the **1920s**, except that they had a gap below the breast line allowing for a section of bare midriff. They were named after Bikini Atoll, the site of nuclear weapons tests, for their supposed explosive effect on the viewer. Through the **1950s**, it was thought proper for the lower part of the bikini to come up high enough to cover the navel.

From the 1960s on the bikini shrank in all directions until it sometimes covered little more than the nipples and genitalia, although less revealing models giving more support to the breasts remained popular. At the same time, Fashion designer Rudi **Gernreich** introduced the monokini, a topless suit for women consisting of a modest bottom supported by two thin straps. Although not a commercial success, the suit opened eyes to new design possibilities.

In the 1980s the thong or "**tanga**" came out of Brazil, said to have been inspired by traditional garments of native tribes in the Amazon.

Text 10. Human skin color

Human skin color can range from almost black to pinkish white in different people. In general, people with ancestors from sunny regions have darker skin than people with ancestors from regions with less sunlight. (However, this is complicated by the fact that there are people whose ancestors come from both sunny and less-sunny regions; and these people may have skin colors across the spectrum.) On average, women have slightly lighter skin than men.

Skin color is determined by the amount and type of the pigment melanin in the skin. Melanin comes in two types: **phaeomelanin** (red to yellow) and **eumelanin** (dark brown to black). Both amount and type are determined by four to six genes which operate under incomplete dominance. One copy of each of those genes is inherited from the father and one from the mother. Each gene comes in several alleles, resulting in a great variety of different skin colors.

Dark skin protects against skin cancer, mutations in skin cells induced by ultraviolet light. Light-skinned persons have about a tenfold greater risk of dying from skin cancer

under **equal** sun conditions. Furthermore, dark skin prevents **UV-A** radiation from destroying the essential B vitamin folate. Folate is needed for the synthesis of DNA in dividing cells and too low levels of folate in pregnant women are associated with birth defects. The advantage of light skin is that it lets more sunlight through, which leads to increased production of vitamin **D₃**, necessary for calcium absorption and bone growth. The lighter skin of women results either from sexual preference or from the higher calcium needs of women during pregnancy and lactation (also possibly from both).

The evolution of the different skin colors is thought to have occurred as follows: the haired ancestor of humans, like modern great apes, had light skin under their hair. Once the hair was lost, they evolved dark skin, needed to prevent low folate levels since they lived in sun-rich Africa. When humans migrated to sun-poorer regions in the north, low vitamin **D₃** levels became a problem and light skin color evolved.

The color of human skin varies from dark dark chocolate to white white chocolate. In attempting to discover the mechanisms that have generated such a wide variation in human skin color, the researchers Nina Jablonski and George Chaplin (2000) discovered that there is a high correlation between the coloration of the human skin of indigenous peoples and the average annual ultraviolet (**UV**) radiation available for skin exposure where the indigenous peoples live. In considering the color of human skin in the long span of human evolution, Jablonski and Chaplin note that there is no empirical evidence to suggest that the human ancestors six million years ago had a skin color different from the skin color of today's **chimpanzees--namely** white under black hair. But as humans evolved to lose their body hair a parallel evolution permitted human populations to turn their base skin color dark or white over a period of less than a thousand years to adjust to the competing nature demands.

TOPIC 2. CHARACTER, PERSONALITY, PSYCHOLOGY

Text 1. Psychological views

Questions concerning the mystery of human emotion were the territory of a number of disciplines until the development of modern psychology. Over the last century, psychologically-based theories have provided influential, if incomplete explanations of how emotional experience is produced.

- The *James-Lange theory* proposes that conscious conclusions about what we are "feeling" form in reaction to physiological changes occurring in the body. This was proposed by William James and Carl Lange independently in the 1880s.
- The *Cannon-Bard Approach* proposes that the lower brain initially receives emotion-producing information and then relays it simultaneously to the higher cortex for interpretation and to the nervous system to trigger physiological responses.
- The *Schachter-Singer Approach* gives highest importance to the cognitive skills that create an interpretation of the situation and so provide a **framework** for the **individual's** behavioral response.
- The *Opponent-Process Approach* views emotions as sets of pairs, one positive and one negative. When an emotion-producing stimulus is present, one of the pair is suppressed so that the more situationally appropriate emotion is felt intensely.

The feeling component of emotion encompasses a vast spectrum of possible responses. Psychologists have attempted to offer general classifications of these responses, and as with the colour **spectrum**, systematically distinguishing between them largely depends on the level of precision desired. One of the most influential classification approaches is Robert **Plutchik's** eight primary emotions - anger, fear, sadness, disgust, surprise, curiosity, acceptance and joy. Plutchik argues for the primacy of these emotions by showing each to be the trigger of behaviour with high survival value (i.e. fear: fight or flight).

Principally involved in the physiological component of emotion are: the autonomic nervous system (**ANS**), the **limbic** system, and the **hypothalamus**. Fear, in particular learned fear, is thought to depend on the amygdala.

Text 2. Common views on emotions

Following are some propositions concerning the nature of emotions. Some of these assertions may be mutually contradictory. Nonetheless, they are an indicator of the wide range of beliefs on this subject:

- An emotion is a mental state or process. This process can be conscious or subconscious, but in any case it attempts to balance and integrate various and often conflicting, facts, experiences and concepts.
- It is a subjective, psychological experience, associated with a group of physiological reactions arising in response to some event. This experience is often held to be involuntary, although there appears to be no agreement on the extent to which one can learn to intentionally influence emotions.
- Emotional experiences consist of thoughts, feelings, affective responses (e.g., sadness, anger, joy, determination), physiological responses (changes in internal bodily functioning), cognitive responses (e.g., a conceptual representation of an event), and behavioural responses (an outward expression such as flight or resistance).

There is considerable debate as to whether emotions and emotional experiences are universal or culturally determined. One of the first modern attempts to classify emotions was Adam Smith's study, *The Theory of Moral Sentiments*. This book is based largely on data from Western Europe. Some anthropologists have explored the relationship between emotional disposition or expression and culture, most notably Ruth Benedict in her ethnological study, *Patterns of Culture*; Jean Briggs in her ethnography *Never in Anger*, Michelle Rosaldo in her ethnography *Knowledge and Passion*; Lila Abu-Lughod in her ethnography *Veiled Sentiments*; and Katherin Lutz in her ethnography *Unnatural Emotions*. Paul Ekman has found that some facial expressions of emotion appear to be culturally independent, as described in his book *Emotions Revealed*.

In his book *Descartes' Error*, the neurologist Antonio Damasio has developed a universal model for human emotions. Damasio defines "emotion" as: the combination of a *mental evaluative process*, simple or complex, with *dispositional responses to that process*, mostly *toward the body proper*, resulting in an emotional body state, but also *toward the brain itself* (neurotransmitter nuclei in the brain stem), resulting from additional mental changes. Damasio distinguishes emotions from feelings, which he takes to be a more inclusive category. Damasio also distinguishes between "primary emotions", which he

takes to be **innate**, and "secondary emotions," in which feelings allow people to form "*systematic connections between categories of objects and situations, on the one hand, and primary emotions, on the other*"

Daniel Goleman and other investigators have researched what is entailed in the abilities to manage **one's** own and other people's emotions.

Apart from the common western views as described above, also traditional systems such as Buddhist psychology survived for thousands of years with treasuries of experiential knowledge, but are often disregarded because of their subjective approach. However, exactly the aspect of introspection is extremely valuable for psychology - as long as we have no machines which can actually show us thoughts and thought processes, a certain level of subjectiveness is unavoidable.

Text 3. Destiny

Destiny concerns the fixed natural order of the universe. It is the invincible necessity to which even the gods must accede, as the Sibyl of Delphi confessed. Destiny is fate, personified in Greek culture by the three Moirae (called the **Parcae** by the Romans), with a Nordic counterpart in the three **Norns**. The "doom of the powers" in Norse mythology is **Ragnarok** the battle which even Odin must inevitably face, at the end of the world.

Destiny is the irresistible power or agency that is conceived of as determining the future, whether in general or of an **individual**. The remorseless goddess Nemesis for early Greeks like Homer personified the pitiless distribution of fortune, neither good nor bad, simply in due proportion to each according to his deserts. In the time of the Hellenistic monarchies, after the death of Alexander the Great, the image of Tyche, crowned with a mural crown of city walls, embodied the fortunes of a city, which struggled to keep afloat in the chaotic violence among the Successors, as **Alexander's** heirs were called.

On an individual or even a national level, destiny is a predetermined state or condition foreordained by the Divine or by human will (for **example**, in Manifest Destiny). Destiny is the human lot in life. It has taken the function of its Old English counterpart "doom", as in the Domesday Book that took a census of **England** for the Normans in 1086, "doom" having taken on foreboding ominous connotations of the universal cataclysm at the end of time.

Destiny is a source of irony in Greek tragedy, as it is in the Schiller play that Verdi transformed into *La Forza del Destino* ("The Force of Destiny") or Thornton **Wilder's** *The*

Bridge of San Luis Rey, or **MacBeth's** knowledge of his own destiny does not preclude a horrible fate. The common theme is: try as the protagonists might to change the patterns, they cannot escape a destiny if your fate has been sealed.

A sense of destiny in its oldest human sense is in the **soldier's** fatalistic image of the "bullet that has your name on it" or the moment when your number "comes up." The human sense that there must be a hidden purpose in the random lottery governs the selection of Theseus to be among the youths to be sacrificed to the Minotaur. Many Greek legends and tales teach the futility of trying to **outmaneuver** an inexorable fate that has been correctly predicted. Reading the inscrutable Will of Destiny is the job of the shaman, the prophet, the sibyl and the seer.

Text 4. Psychological views of happiness

Martin **Seligman** in his book *Authentic Happiness* gives the Positive Psychology definition of happiness as consisting of both positive emotions (like comfort) and positive activities (like absorption). He presents three categories of positive emotions:

- past: feelings of satisfaction, contentment, pride, and serenity.
- present (examples): enjoying the taste of food, glee at listening to music, absorption in reading.
- future: feelings of optimism, hope, ~~trust~~, faith, and confidence.

There are three categories of present positive emotions:

- bodily pleasures, e.g. enjoying the taste of food.
- higher pleasures, e.g. glee at listening to music.
- gratifications, e.g. absorption in reading.

The bodily and higher pleasures are "pleasures of the moment" and usually involve some external stimulus.

Gratifications involve full **engagement**, flow, elimination of self-consciousness, and blocking of felt emotions. But when a gratification comes to an end then positive emotions will be felt. Gratifications can be obtained or increased by developing signature strengths and virtues. Authenticity is the derivation of gratification and positive emotions from exercising signature strengths. The good life comes from using signature strengths to obtain abundant gratification in, for example, enjoying work and pursuing a meaningful life.

While a **person's** overall happiness is not directly measurable due to limitations in **neuroscience** technology, this does not mean it does not have a **real** physical component. We know that the **neurotransmitter** dopamine, operating along the **mesolimbic** pathway and upon the nucleus **accumbens**, is involved in causing a human or animal to experience happiness. If we were able to accurately measure the production of **dopamine** in various parts of a **person's** brain, we would likely be able to definitively determine how happy the person is. Happiness can be induced artificially with drugs, most directly with opiates such as Morphine and Heroin, which block dopamine inhibitors.

Nevertheless, the exact chemicals and processes which cause happiness do not define the concept of happiness, they simply describe its biological "**implementation**". We might guess that other implementations are possible, even if they have yet to be observed in nature.

It is **possible**, however, to describe what happiness is in biological terms. One such attempt is referred to as Darwinian happiness. Darwinian happiness is based on the fact that animals, due to their brains, are equipped with the propensity for both positive and negative feelings and sensations. By understanding the underlying evolutionary background for how these sensations arise, one may gain insight in how to ensure that the neurological processes that add to a positive mood will tend to dominate.

Text 5. Virtue

Virtue (Greek *αρετη*; Latin *virtus*) is the **habitual**, well-established, readiness or disposition of man's powers directing them to some goodness of act. (1) Virtue is moral excellence of a man or a woman. The word *αρετη* is derived from the Greek Arete (paideia) (*αρετη*). As applied to humans, a virtue is a good character trait. The Latin word *virtus* literally means "manliness," from *vir*, "man" in the masculine sense; and referred originally to masculine, warlike virtues such as courage. In one of the many ironies of etymology, in English the word *virtue* is often used to refer to a women's chastity.

In the Greek it is more properly called *ηθικη αρετη*. It is "habitual excellence". It is something practised at all times. The virtue of perseverance is needed for all and any virtue since it is a habit of character and must be used continuously in order for any person to maintain oneself in virtue.

The four virtues

The four classic Western "cardinal" virtues are:

- **prudence/wisdom**
- justice
- fortitude/courage
- temperance.

TOPIC 3. RELATIONSHIP, FRIENDSHIP, LOVE, MARRIAGE

Text 1. Love

Love has many meanings in English. It can mean an intense feeling of affection, an emotion or emotional state. In ordinary use, it usually refers to interpersonal love. Love is one of the most common themes in art. The majority of modern movies have a **love** story and most pop music is about love.

There are as many forms of love as there are lovers. However, all forms of love have some common factors and issues.

Interpersonal love

Interpersonal love is love between two human beings, and is deeper than merely liking someone a lot. Although feelings are usually reciprocal, there can also be unrequited love. Interpersonal love is usually found in a interpersonal relationship, such as between family **members**, friends, and couples. However, people often express love for other people outside of these relationships through charity and volunteering.

Some elements that are often present in interpersonal love:

- **Affection:** appreciation of other
- Attachment: satisfying basic emotional needs
- Reciprocation: if love is mutual
- Commitment: a desire to maintain love
- **Emotional** intimacy: sharing emotions and feelings
- Kinship: family bonds
- Passion: sexual desire
- Physical intimacy: sharing of personal space
- Self-interest: desiring rewards
- Service: desire to help

Impersonal love

A person can be said to love a country, principle, or goal if they value it greatly and are deeply committed to it. People can also '**love**' material objects, animals, or activities if they like them a great deal.

Religious love

Most religions use **love** to express the devotion the follower has to their deity who may be a living guru or religious teacher. This love can be expressed by putting the love of God above personal needs, prayer, service, good deeds, and personal sacrifice, all done **selflessly**.

Scientific models

Biological models of love tend to see it as a mammalian drive, just like hunger or thirst. Psychology sees love as more of a social and cultural phenomenon. There are probably elements of truth in both views • - certainly love is influenced by hormones and pheromones, and how people think and behave in love is influenced by their conceptions of love.

Attraction and Attachment

The conventional view in Biology is that there are two major drives in love — **sexual** attraction and attachment. Attachment between adults is presumed to work on the same principles that lead an infant to become attached to their mother.

Companionate vs. Passionate

The traditional psychological view sees love as being a combination of **companionate** love and passionate love. Passionate love is intense longing, and is often accompanied by physiological arousal (shortness of breath, rapid heart rate). Companionate love is affection and a feeling of intimacy not accompanied by physiological arousal.

Text 2. Love styles

Susan **Hendrick** and Clyde Hendrick developed a theory called Love styles. They identified six basic theories that people use in their interpersonal relationships:

- Eros — a passionate physical love based on physical appearance
- Ludus — love is played as a game; love is playful
- Storge — an affectionate love that slowly develops, based on similarity
- Pragma — pragmatic love
- Mania — highly emotional love; unstable; the stereotype of romantic love
- Agape — selfless altruistic love; spiritual

Furthermore, they found men tend to be more **ludic**, whereas women tend to be storgic and pragmatic. Relationships based on similar love styles were found to **last** longer.

Helen Fisher suggests three main phases of love: lust, attraction and attachment. Generally love will start off in the *lust* phase, strong in passion but weak in the other elements. The primary motivator at this stage is the basic sexual instinct. **Appearance**, smells and other similar factors play a decisive role in screening potential mates. However, as time passes, the other elements may grow and passion may shrink -- this depends upon the individual. So what starts as Infatuation or Empty love may well develop into one of the fuller types of love. At the *attraction* stage the person concentrates their affection on a single mate and fidelity becomes important.

Likewise when a person has known a loved one for a long time, they develop a deeper attachment to their **partner**. According to current scientific understanding of love, this transition from attraction to attachment phase usually happens in about 30 months. After that passion fades, changing love from Consummate to Companionate, or from Romantic love to Liking.

Greek distinguishes several different senses in which the word *love* is used. For example, ancient Greek has the words *philia*, *eros*, *agape*, and *storge*. *Agape*, for example, is love that God has for mankind (only God can express this kind of love); and *Eros* is passionate love, with sensual desire and longing.

Different **cultures** have deified love, typically in both male and female form. Here is a list of the gods and goddesses of love in different mythologies.

- Amor or Cupid — god of passionate love in Roman mythology
- Aphrodite — goddess of passionate love in Greek mythology
- Eros — god of passionate love in Greek mythology
- Freya — goddess in Norse mythology
- Venus — goddess of passionate love in Roman mythology

Text 3. Types of marriage

The type and functions of marriage vary from culture to culture. In the United States, Europe, and China in the early 21st century, legally sanctioned marriages are monogamous (although some pockets of society still sanction polygamy socially, if not legally) and divorce is relatively simple and socially sanctioned. In the West, the prevailing view toward

marriage today is that it is based on emotional attachment between the partners and entered into voluntarily.

In the Islamic world, marriage is sanctioned between a man and up to four women. In Imperial **China**, formal marriage was sanctioned only between a man and a woman, although a man could take several concubines and the children from the union were considered legitimate.

Most societies permit Polygyny, in which a man could have multiple wives; even in such societies however, most men have only one. In such societies, having multiple wives is generally considered a sign of wealth and power. The status of multiple wives has varied from one society to another. In Islamic societies, the different wives were considered equal while in Imperial China, one woman was considered the primary wife while the other women were considered concubines. Among the upper classes, the primary wife was an arranged marriage with an elaborate formal ceremony while the concubines were taken on later with minimal ceremony.

There are also many monogamous societies, where a marriage consists of only two people, a very few **polyandrous**, where a woman could have multiple husbands. Societies which permit group marriage are extremely rare, but have existed in Utopian societies such as the Oneida Community,

However, in 21st century Western cultures, while bigamy and sexual relations outside marriage is generally socially or legally frowned-upon, divorce and remarriage has been relatively easy to undertake. This has lead to a practice which some have called serial monogamy. In particular, some have argued that the pattern of the rich divorcing their first wives and then taking on a trophy wife is similar to patterns of polygamy in other societies.

Legally sanctioned marriages are generally conducted between heterosexual couples, although there are countries that recognize same-sex marriage, including The Netherlands, Belgium, **Canada**, and the American state of Massachusetts. Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Finland, Greenland, Iceland, Germany, France, and the American state of Vermont allow couples to enter legal partnerships, but these partnerships are not considered marriages even if they bestow many of the same legal benefits upon the couple.

Text 4. Common-law marriage

In many jurisdictions, **common-law marriage** is a legal provision whereby two people who are eligible to marry, but who do not obtain a legal marriage, are nevertheless considered married under certain conditions. Typically, they are deemed married after living together openly as a married couple under specified conditions for a specified period of time. In other jurisdictions, the couple are required to have actually stated their mutual intent to be presently married. Depending on the jurisdiction, a common-law marriage may provide special benefits, such as filiation and adoption, inheritance, and division of property. In some cases the law will impose detriments upon the couple, for instance see rights and responsibilities of marriages in the United States.

Australia

In Australia the term *de facto marriage* is used to refer to relationships between non-married men and women who are in effect living as husband and wife for a period of time. Many laws make provision for such relationships, such as social support laws.

Canada

Canadian federal law does not have "common law marriage", but various federal laws include "common law status," which automatically takes effect once two people (of any gender) have lived together in a romantic relationship for one full year. Partners may be eligible for various government benefits of married spouses based upon their relationship with the individual who is eligible for some type of family based benefit. As family law varies between provinces, there are differences between the provinces regarding the recognition of common law marriage.

In Ontario, a common law province, the Ontario Family Law Act specifically recognizes common law spouses in sec. 29 dealing with spousal support issues; the requirements are living together for three years or having a child in common and having "**cohabitated** in a relationship of some permanence." However, the part that deals with marital property excludes common law spouses as sec. 2 defines spouses as those who are married together or who entered into a void or voidable marriage in good faith. Thus common law partners do not always evenly divide property in a breakup, and the courts have to look to concepts such as the constructive or resulting trust to divide property in an equitable manner between partners. Another difference that distinguishes common law

spouses from married partners is that a common law partner can be compelled to testify against his or her partner in a court of law.

In 1999, after the court case *M. v. H.*, the Supreme Court of Canada decided that same-sex partners would also be included in common law relationships.

Quebec, which unlike the other provinces has a Civil Code, has never recognized common-law partnership as a kind of marriage. However, many laws in Quebec explicitly apply to common-law partners (called "*de facto unions*" or *unions de fait*) as they do to spouses. As in the other provinces, same-sex partners may become common-law spouses in Quebec.

A recent amendment to the Civil Code of Quebec recognizes a type of domestic partnership called civil union that is similar to common-law marriage and is likewise available to same-sex partners.

England and Wales

The term "common law **marriage**" is frequently used in England and Wales, however such a "marriage" is not recognised in law, and it does not confer any rights or obligations on the parties. See also English Law. Genuine (that is, legal) common-law marriage was abolished under the Marriage Act, 1753.

United States

Ten U.S. jurisdictions currently recognize common-law marriages. Where the doctrine is recognized, generally if a couple lives together and are reputedly married, a **rebuttable** presumption arises that they are husband and wife. This must be proven via a three prong test. The three prongs are as follows:

1. They must hold each other out to society as husband and wife This cannot be **inadvertant** or unintentional. This must be proved via name change, consistent public address as the spouse, tax records, etc.
2. In some states a degree must be signed for an informal marriage to exist. They must agree to be presently married. Agreement to be married in the future, i.e. engagement, is proof that you are not currently married. The agreement is known to the public.
3. They **cohabit** for a significant period of time. Usually three years at a minimum, this varies as a requirement due to various circumstances, death, etc.

If all three of the prongs are not met a marriage never existed.

Even in those jurisdictions where there is common-law marriage, there is no such thing as a common-law divorce. This means that once a couple is married, whether ceremonially through a wedding or informally through common law, a divorce can only be dissolved through a court order. However, in some jurisdictions there is a statute of limitations on certain types of lawsuits made regarding a common law marriage. Where applicable, after the two parties have separated and lived apart for this time period (possibly 1-2 years) a **rebuttable** presumption is created that the two never agreed to be, and therefore never were, married (for example Texas Family Code § 2.401).

Text 5. Julia Roberts

Julia Fiona Roberts (born on October 28, 1967 in **Smyrna**, Georgia, USA) is an Oscar-winning actress.

Roberts first caught the attention of moviegoers with her performance in the film *Mystic Pizza* in 1988. The following year she was featured in *Steel Magnolias* as a young bride battling diabetes, garnering her first Oscar nomination (as Best Supporting Actress) for her performance. She catapulted to worldwide fame co-starring with Richard Gere in the Cinderella-story *Pretty Woman* in 1990, which also earned her a second Oscar nod, this time as Best Actress. Her next box-office success was the thriller *Sleeping With the Enemy*, in which she portrayed a battered wife who escapes from her husband and starts a new life. She played **Tinkerbelle** in Steven Spielberg's *Hook* in 1991, which was followed by a two-year period in which she had no acting roles other than a cameo appearance in Robert Altman's *The Player* (1992). In early 1993, she was the subject of a *People* magazine cover story asking, "What Happened to Julia Roberts?"

Later that year, she co-starred with Denzel Washington in the successful *The Pelican Brief*, based on the John **Grisham** novel. For the next few years, she starred in a series of films that were critical and commercial failures, primarily because she was cast in roles that strayed too far from her persona. She broke her losing streak with the comedy *My Best Friend's Wedding* in (1997), and eventually earned a reputation as an actress who could guarantee a huge box office draw. She won critical acclaim and finally nabbed an Oscar for Best Actress for her portrayal of Erin Brockovich - a woman who had helped wage a successful lawsuit against energy giant Pacific Gas & Electric - in the 2001 movie of the same name.

Roberts' personal life has often been in the spotlight, a fact that served as the basis of her (1998) film *Notting Hill* - a romantic comedy about a famous actress falling for an "ordinary" guy played by Hugh Grant. Her character, actress Anna Scott, was said to be closely so modelled on" Roberts herself that when asked in one scene how much she was paid to appear in a movie, Scott replied "fifteen million dollars" . . . precisely the amount Roberts had received to appear in the movie.

Roberts was engaged to actor **Kiefer** Sutherland in 1991 but ended the relationship just days before the wedding. She later eloped with country and western singer **Lyle Lovett** shortly after meeting him; they divorced in 1995.

Roberts met her husband, cameraman Danny **Moder**, on the set of her movie *The Mexican* in 2000. The couple were married July 4, 2002 in Taos, New Mexico, and welcomed twins - Hazel Patricia and **Phinnaeus** Walter - to the family on November 28, 2004,

TOPIC 4. HOME COMFORTS, INTERIORS, LIFESTYLES

Text 1. Interior decoration

Interior decoration is the art of decorating a room so it looks good, is easy to use, and functions well with the existing architecture. The goal of interior decoration is to provide a certain "feel" for the room; it encompasses applying wallpaper, painting walls and other **surfaces**, choosing furniture and fittings, such as light fixtures, and providing other decorations for the area such as paintings and sculptures.

Interior decorating is done professionally by interior designers or interior decorators, and by some architects. It is considered a design field.

There is sometimes a distinction made between interior decorating and interior design. Interior decorating is generally focused more on finishes, such as wallpaper, paint, window coverings, and furnishings. Interior design tends to be more integrated with the architecture, and in addition to the above areas, might also be involved in cabinet making, room layout, window placement, appliance selection, tile and floor selection, and so on.

The role of the **interior decorator** evolved in the 18th century from the Parisian *marchand-mercier* and the upholster in London. In Paris, the guild system that had evolved since the late Middle Ages prohibited a **craftsman** from working with a material with which they had not undergone a formal apprenticeship. Only a *marchand-mercier* (a "merchant of goods") could fit Chinese porcelains with gilt-bronze handles and mounts, combine Japanese lacquer or Sevres porcelain plaques with marquetry and gilt-bronze mounts on furniture. An early *marchand-mercier* **Gersaint**, had his shop-sign painted by **Watteau**. The Rococo interior was taken out of the hands of the architect and the painter and put in charge of the *marchand-mercier*.

In London, a parallel is the rise of the "**upholster**," a member of the London **Upholsters' Company** who increased his design competence from providing upholstery and textiles and the fittings for funerals, to become responsible for the management of the entire interior. In the great London furniture-making partnerships, a cabinet-maker is usually paired with an upholster: **Vile and Cobb**, **Ince and Mayhew**, **Chippendale and Rannie** or **Haig**.

Palladian architects like William Kent or Matthew **Brettingham** might provide designs for walls that would be executed by joiners, **stuccoists**, painters and upholsters but often their designs were limited to mantelpieces and monumental side tables, which were

considered part of the immovable decor. The neoclassical architect Robert Adam was prepared to design every detail of his interiors if the client **wanted**, down to the doorknobs and fire-irons. Sir William Chambers designs for furnishings are often underestimated. James **Wyatt** 's designs for furniture were gathered into an album, perhaps in preparation for an engraved publication. The French *marchand-mercier* Dominique **Daguerre** moved to London in 1788 and was responsible for interiors for the Prince Regent and worked with the architect Henry Holland.

In the 1830s, interior decorators were responsible for the revival of interest in Gothic and Rococo styles in **England**. By the later 19th century, some firms set themselves apart as "art furnishers"

Modern interior decorators began with Lenygon and Morant in London, **Jeanselme** in Paris, and Ogden Codman in New York

Text 2. TV technology

There are many means of distributing television broadcasts, including both analogue and digital versions, **e.g.** satellite television, cable television and etc.

The earliest television sets were radios with the addition of a television device consisting of a neon tube with a mechanically spinning disk (the Nipkow disk, invented by Paul Gottlieb Nipkow) that produced a red postage-stamp **size** image . The first publicly broadcast electronic service was in Germany in March **1935**. Television usage skyrocketed after World War II with war-related technological advances and additional disposable income. (1930s TV receivers cost the equivalent of \$7000 today and had little available **programming**.). Color television became available in the U.S. on December 30 of 1953, backed by the CBS network. European color television was developed somewhat later and was hindered by a continuing division on technical standards. The first color broadcast in Europe was by BBC2 in the UK in the summer of 1967, using PAL. Germans did their first broadcast in September (PAL), while the French in October (SECAM).

Television in its original and still most popular form involves sending images and sound over radio waves in the **VHF** and **UHF** bands, which are received by a receiver (a television set). In this sense, it is an extension of radio. Broadcast television requires an antenna (aerial). This can be an external antenna mounted outside or smaller antennas mounted on or near the television.

Starting in the 1990s, modern television sets diverged into three different trends:

- standalone TV sets;
- integrated systems with DVD players **and/or** VHS VCR capabilities built into the TV set itself (mostly for small size TVs with up to 17" screen, the main idea is to have a complete portable system);
- component systems with separate big-screen video monitor, tuner, audio system which the owner connects the pieces together as a high-end home theater system. This approach appeals to **videophiles** who prefer components that can be upgraded separately.

There are many kinds of video monitors used in modern TV sets. The most common are direct view CRTs for up to 40 inch or 100 cm (in 4:3) and 46 inch or 115 cm (in 16:9) diagonally; most big screen TVs (up to over 100 inch (254 cm)) use projection technology. Three types of projection systems are used in projection TVs: CRT-based, LCD-based, and DLP(**reflective micromirror chip**)-based.

Modern advances have brought flat screens to TV that use active matrix LCD or plasma display technology (this last one more uncommon and more expensive). Flat panel plasma and LCD displays are as little as 4 inch or 10 cm thick and can be hung on a wall like a picture or put over a pedestal. They are multifunctional, because they are used like computer monitors too (VGA).

Text 3. Home cinema

Home cinema, also called **Home theater**, seeks to reproduce cinema quality video and audio in the home.

The video aspect usually involves a large-screen **and/or** high definition television or a projection system. Quality audio reproduction is usually achieved with a high fidelity surround sound system.

"Home cinema" has become something of a buzzword. Technically, a home cinema could be as basic as a simple arrangement of a Television, VCR, and a set of speakers. It is therefore difficult to specify exactly what distinguishes a "home cinema" from a "television and stereo".

However, "home cinema" implies a real "cinema experience" and therefore a higher quality set of components. A typical home theater would include the following:

1. A large, **prominent, display--generally** a big-screen television (see Liquid crystal display television) or possibly a projector, often HDTV capable.
2. One or more audio/video sources. High quality formats such as DVD or Laserdisc are preferred, though old home cinema setups use **VHS**.
3. An audio system that is capable of surround sound (at least 5.1). This usually consists of several speakers and a **subwoofer**. Sometimes a specialized decoder is used to allow the playback of newer surround-sound formats.
4. Comfortable seating and organization to improve the cinema feel. This might include several comfortable **recliners** and curtains or subdued room lighting to enhance the experience.

Some home cinema enthusiasts will go so far as to build a dedicated room in the home for the theater. Such a room is often decorated to resemble an actual cinema, with specialized furniture, movie posters, or a popcorn or snack machine. These more advanced installations often include sophisticated acoustic design elements, including "**room-in-a-room**" construction that isolates sound and provides the potential for a near ideal listening environment. These installations are often designated as "screening rooms" to differentiate from simpler installations.

These days it is possible to purchase "home theater in a box" kits from various **prominent** electronics companies. These kits include a set of speakers for surround **sound**, an amplifier/tuner for adjusting volume and selecting video sources, and sometimes a DVD player or VCR. Though these kits pale in comparison to a true custom built home cinema, these kits are attractively priced. One needs only to add a television and some movies in order to create a simple home theater.

Text 4. Vacuum cleaner

A **vacuum cleaner** is a device that uses an air pump to suck up dust and other small particles of **dirt**, usually from carpeted floors. Most homes with carpeted floors possess a domestic model for cleaning. The dirt is collected by a filtering system or a cyclone for later disposal.

The first hand-powered cleaner using vacuum principles may have been the "**Whirlwind**", invented in Chicago in 1865--**unfortunately**, its technical details seem to be

lost with time. Subsequent varieties persisted throughout the 19th century, in **all** manner of shapes and sizes.

The first electrically-powered cleaner was invented by two men at about the same time. The first was H. Cecil Booth, a British engineer. He noticed a device used in trains that blew dust off the chairs, and thought it would be much more useful to have one that sucked dust. He attempted to test the idea by sucking the dust out of a dinner chair with his mouth. He nearly **choked**, but realised the idea could work. He patented it in Britain, and created a large horse-drawn vacuum cleaner that would park outside a building to clean it. Booth never had great success with **it**, however. The other inventor, in the United States had much better luck. In 1906 James Murray **Spangler**, a janitor in Canton, Ohio, jury-rigged a vacuum cleaner out of a fan, a box, and a pillowcase. In addition to suction, **Spangler's** design incorporated a rotating brush to loosen debris. He patented it in 1908 and eventually sold the idea to his **cousin's** "Hoover Harness and Leather Goods Factory." In the USA, Hoover remains one of the leading manufacturers of household goods including **cleaners**, and Hoover became very wealthy from the invention.

In Britain, Hoover has become so associated with the manufacture of vacuum cleaners that in English, "Hoover" is virtually a synonym of vacuum cleaner, indeed many people will often refer to their "hoover" and "doing the hoovering" even if the machine has been made by another **manufacturer**.

For many years after their introduction, they remained an expensive luxury **item**, but after World War II, vacuum cleaners became ubiquitous amongst the rising middle classes of the United States and, gradually, the rest of the West.

In early 2000 several companies developed robotic vacuum cleaners. These machines move automatically in patterns across a floor, cleaning surface dust and debris into their dustbin. They are usually capable of navigating around furniture and finding their recharging station. Most robotic vacuum cleaners are designed for home use, although there are more capable models for operation in **offices**, hotels, hospitals, etc.

Text 5. DVD

DVD is an optical disc storage media format that is used for playback of movies with high video and sound quality and for storing data. DVDs are similar in appearance to compact discs.

During the early 1990s there were two high density optical storage standards in development; one was the Multimedia Compact Disc (MMCD), backed by Philips and Sony, and the other was the Super Disc (SD), supported by 8 major consumer electronics giants, including Toshiba and Time-Warner. IBM led an effort to unite the various companies behind a single standard, anticipating a repeat of the costly format war between **VHS** and **Betamax** in the 1980s. The result was the DVD format, announced in September of 1995. The official DVD specification was released in Version 1.0 in September, 1996. It is maintained by the DVD Forum, formerly the DVD Consortium, consisting of the ten founding companies and over 220 additional members. The first DVD players and discs were available in November of 1996 in Japan and in March of 1997 in the United States.

By the spring of 1999, the price of a DVD player had dropped below the \$300 mark. At that point Wal-Mart began to offer DVD players for sale in its stores. When Wal-Mart began selling DVD discs in stores DVDs only represented a small part of their video inventory, VHS tapes of movies made up the remainder. As of 2004, the situation is now reversed. Most retail stores mainly offer DVD discs for sale, and VHS copies of movies make up a minority of the sales.

In 2000, Sony released its PlayStation 2 console in Japan. In addition to playing video games developed for the system, it was also able to play DVD movies. In Japan, this proved to be a huge selling point due to the fact that the PS2 was much cheaper than many of the DVD players available there. As a result, many electronic stores that normally didn't carry video game consoles carried PS2s.

"**DVD**" was originally an acronym for "**digital video disc**"; some members of the DVD Forum believe that it should stand for "**digital versatile disc**", to indicate its potential for non-video applications. Toshiba, which maintains the official DVD Forum site, adheres to the interpretation of "**digital versatile disc**," The DVD Forum never reached a consensus on the matter, however, and so today the official name of the format is simply "DVD"; the letters do not "officially" stand for anything.

A DVD can contain:

- DVD-Video (containing movies (video and sound))
- DVD-Audio (containing high-definition sound)
- DVD-Data (containing data)

The disc medium can be:

- DVD-ROM (read only, manufactured by a press)
- DVD+R/RW (R=Recordable once, RW = Rewritable)
- DVD-R/RW (R=Recordable once, RW = Rewritable)
- DVD-RAM (random access rewritable)

TOPIC 5. HEALTH AND MEDICINE, ILLNESSE, TREATMENT

Text 1. Antibiotic

An **antibiotic** is a drug that kills or slows the growth of bacteria. Antibiotics are one class of "**antimicrobials**", a larger group which also includes anti-viral, anti-fungal, and anti-parasitic drugs. They are relatively harmless to the host, and therefore can be used to treat infection. The term originally described only those formulations derived from living organisms, but is now applied also to synthetic antimicrobials, such as the **sulfonamides**.

Unlike previous treatments for infections, which included poisons such as strychnine, antibiotics were labelled "magic bullets": drugs which targeted disease without harming the host. Antibiotics are not effective in viral, fungal and other **nonbacterial** infections, and individual antibiotics vary widely in their effectiveness on various types of bacteria. Some specific antibiotics target either gram-negative or gram-positive bacteria, and others are more **wide-spectrum** antibiotics. The effectiveness of individual antibiotics varies with the location of the infection and the ability of the antibiotic to reach this site. Oral antibiotics are the simplest approach when effective, with intravenous antibiotics reserved for more serious cases. Antibiotics may sometimes be administered topically, as with eyedrops or ointments.

Following earlier experiments that had demonstrated interesting anti-bacterial effects from various bacterial secretions, the German scientist E. de Freudenreich in 1888 isolated a bacterial secretion and noted its antibacterial properties. **Pyocyanase**, secreted by *Bacillus pyocyaneus*, retarded the growth of other bacteria in situ and was toxic to many disease-causing bacteria. Unfortunately, **pyocyanase's** own **toxicity** and unstable character prevented its use as an effective, safe antibiotic within the human body.

The first effective antibiotic discovered was penicillin. French physician Ernest **Duchesne** noted in his 1896 thesis that certain *Penicillium* molds killed bacteria. Duchesne died within a few years, and his research was forgotten for a generation, until an accident intervened. Alexander **Fleming** had been **culturing** bacteria on **agar** plates, one of which was ruined by an accidental fungal contamination. Rather than discarding the contaminated plate, Fleming noticed a clear zone surrounding the colony of mold. Having previously studied the ability of the enzyme **lysozyme** to kill bacteria, Fleming realized that the mold was secreting something that stopped bacterial growth. He knew that this substance might

have enormous utility to medicine. Although he was unable to purify the compound (the **beta-lactam** ring in the penicillin molecule was not stable under the purification methods he tried), he reported it in the scientific literature. Since the mold was of the genus *Penicillium*, he named this compound penicillin.

With the increased need for treating wound infections in World War II, resources were poured into investigating and purifying penicillin, and a team led by Howard Walter Florey succeeded in producing usable quantities of the purified active ingredient which were quickly tested on clinical cases. Physicians were exhilarated at the rapid and reliable cure of conditions which had, until then, been difficult to **treat**, terrible to endure, and frequently fatal. Observation of other species of mold and other organisms revealed a hitherto unknown level of chemical warfare being carried out against bacteria. New antibiotics were rapidly discovered and came into widespread **use**, and a new era of research into the possibility of similarly "**magic**" **chemotherapeutic** cures for other diseases eventually led to successes in the field of cancer chemotherapy.

The discovery of antibiotics, along with anesthesia and the adoption of hygienic practices by physicians (for example, washing hands and using sterilized instruments) revolutionized medicine. It has been said that this is the greatest advance in health since modern sanitation. People in developed countries now find it hard to imagine that a simple scratch once always carried the risk of infection and death.

Side effects

Side effects range from slight headache to a major allergic reaction. One of the more common side effects is **diarrhea**, which results from the antibiotic disrupting the balance of intestinal flora, the "good bacteria" that dwell inside the human digestive system. Other side effects can result from interaction between the antibiotic and other drugs, such as elevated risk of tendon damage from administration of a quinolone antibiotic with a systemic **corticosteroid**.

Antibiotic misuse

Common forms of antibiotic misuse include taking an inappropriate antibiotic, in particular the use of **antibacterials** for viral infections like the common cold, and failure to take the entire prescribed course of the antibiotic, usually because the patient feels better before the infecting organism is completely eradicated. In addition to treatment failure, these practices can result in antibiotic resistance.

In the United States, a vast quantity of antibiotics is routinely included as low doses in the diet of healthy farm **animals**, as this practice has been proved to make animals grow faster. Opponents of this practice, however, point out the likelihood that it also leads to antibiotic resistance, frequently in bacteria that are known to also infect humans, although there has been little or no evidence as yet of such transfer of antibiotic resistance actually occurring.

Antibiotic resistance

One side effect of misusing antibiotics is the development of *antibiotic resistance* by the infecting organisms, similar to the development of pesticide resistance in insects. Evolutionary theory of genetic selection requires that as close as possible to 100% of the infecting organisms be killed off to avoid selection of resistance; if a small subset of the population survives the treatment and is allowed to multiply, the average susceptibility of this new population to the compound will be much less than that of the original population, since they have descended from those few organisms which survived the original treatment. This survival often results from an inheritable resistance to the compound, which was infrequent in the original population but is now much more frequent in the descendants thus selected entirely from those originally infrequent resistant organisms.

Antibiotic resistance has become a serious problem in both the developed and underdeveloped nations. By 1984 half the people with active tuberculosis in the United States had a strain that resisted at least one antibiotic. In certain settings, such as hospitals and some child-care locations, the rate of antibiotic resistance is so high that the normal, low cost antibiotics are virtually useless for treatment of frequently seen infections. This leads to more frequent use of newer and more expensive compounds, which in turn leads inexorably to the rise of resistance to those drugs, and a never-ending **ever-spiraling** race to discover new and different antibiotics ensues, just to keep us from losing ground in the battle against infection. The problem of antibiotic resistance is worsened when antibiotics are used to treat disorders in which they have no efficacy, such as the common cold or other viral complaints, and when they are used widely as prophylaxis rather than treatment (as in, for example, animal feeds), because this exposes more bacteria to selection for **resistance**.

Text 2. Physical therapy

Physiotherapy (also known as **physical therapy**) is an health profession concerned with the assessment, diagnosis and treatment of disease and disability through physical means. It is based upon principles of medical science, and is generally held to be within the sphere of conventional (rather than alternative) medicine.

Physiotherapy is practiced by **physiotherapists** (also known as **physical therapists**, eg in the United States), though aspects may also be practiced under supervised delegation by physiotherapy assistants or other health professionals.

Scope of Practice

Physiotherapists' scope of practice varies considerably across the world, both in terms of the degree of professional autonomy enjoyed and the range of conditions managed.

Physiotherapists in some **juristifications**, such as the Australian states, enjoy **professional** autonomy, with the ability to act as primary care providers and to determine - and be responsible for - a **patient's** management plan. Conversely, physiotherapists in some other **juristictions** work upon referral from, and largely under the direction of, other professionals (typically medical **practioners**).

The major conditions managed by physiotherapists can be broadly grouped into three categories: **musculoskeletal**, **cardiopulmonary** and **neurological**. Many areas of physiotherapy, eg rehabilitation or paediatrics, cross all three areas. Depending on the local healthcare system, physiotherapists may be involved in all areas, or may only manage certain aspects (eg in some United States juristictions, respiratory therapists manage many aspects of cardiopulmonary therapy).

Depending on the structure of the local healthcare system, physiotherapists may function either privately (eg in a private clinic) or publicly (eg in a hospital or community setting). Furthermore, physiotherapists may work as generalists managing a wide range of conditions, or may specialise in certain fields. The process of determining career structure and specialisation varies geographically.

Assessment

A physiotherapist will initially conduct a subjective examination (interview) of a patient's medical history, and then go on to the objective assessment (physical examination). The subjective examination is guided by the presenting system and complaint, and the objective assessment is in turn guided by the history.

This **semistructured** process is used to rule out serious pathology (so called red flags), establish functional limitations, refine the diagnosis, guide therapy, and establish a baseline for monitoring progress. As such, the objective exam will then use certain quantifiable measurements to both guide diagnosis and for progress monitoring. These depend upon the system (and area) being managed, eg a **musculoskeletal** exam may involve, *inter alia*, assessment of joint range of motion, muscle power, motor control and posture, whilst a **cardiopulmonary** assessment may involve lung auscultation and exercise physiology testing.

Treatment

Guided by the assessment findings, the physiotherapist will then develop and facilitate a treatment plan. Aside from the various **physiotherapeutic techniques** involved in therapy, the treatment regimen may include prescribing and advice regarding assistive walking devices; should consider functional progress; and include ongoing review and refinement. Patient education is a key aspect of all treatment **plans**.

It is difficult to explore the many aspects of physiotherapeutic treatment options, especially considering their ongoing development in the face of an increasing research base. Nonetheless, some examples of treatment options are listed below,

Musculoskeletal physiotherapy

Various therapeutic physiotherapy modalities are available, including exercise prescription (strength, motor control, stretching and endurance), manual techniques, soft tissue massage, and various forms of so-called "**electrophysical** agents" (such as **cryotherapy**, heat therapy and electrotherapy).

Despite ongoing research giving a clearer picture regarding the use of various modalities in specific conditions, the benefits of electrotherapy are widely debated,

Neurological physiotherapy

Treatment in neurological conditions is typically based upon exercises to restore motor function through attempting to overcome motor deficits and improve motor patterns. To achieve this aim various theoretical frameworks have been promoted, each based upon inferences drawn from basic and clinical science research. Whilst some of these have remained static, others are designed to take into account new developments, perhaps the most notable example being the "movement science" framework. The various philosophies often generate considerable debate.

Text 3. Immediate care in case of myocardial infarction

As **myocardial** infarction is a common medical emergency, the signs are often part of first aid courses. General management in the acute setting is:

- calling for help as soon as possible
- giving aspirin (300-500mg), which inhibits formation of further blood clots
- being prepared to administer **cardiopulmonary** resuscitation (CPR) in case of arrhythmia or cardiac arrest

Since the publication of data that availability of automated external **defibrillators** (AEDs) in public places may significantly increase chances of survival, many of these have been installed in public buildings, public transport facilities and in non-ambulance emergency vehicles (e.g. police cars and fire engines). AEDs analyze the rhythm and determine whether the arrhythmia is amenable to **defibrillation** ("shockable").

Emergency services may recommend the patient to take **nitroglycerin** tablets or patches, in case these are available, particularly if they had prior heart attacks or angina.

In an ambulance, an intravenous line is established, and the patient is transported immediately if breathing and pulse are present. Oxygen first aid is provided and the patient is calmed. Close cardiac monitoring (with an electrocardiogram) is initiated if available.

If the patient has lost breathing or circulation advanced cardiac life support (including defibrillation) may be necessary and (at the paramedic level) injection of medications may be given per protocol. CPR is performed if there is no satisfactory cardiac output.

About 20% of patients die before they reach the hospital; the cause of death is often ventricular fibrillation.

Text 4. Traditional Chinese medicine

Traditional Chinese medicine (TCM) also known simply as **Chinese medicine** (Chinese: 中醫學 or 中藥學, zhōngyāo xuē) or **traditional Oriental medicine**, is the name commonly given to a range of traditional medical practices originating in China thousands of years ago. Primary medical theoretical foundation of TCM includes that of Five Elements and **Yin-yang**. Treatments are done with reference to this philosophical framework.

TCM is based on the philosophical concept that if balance is restored, the person heals. TCM seeks to balance yin and **yang**, Qi, Blood, Jing, Body fluids, the Five Elements, the

emotions, and the spirit (Shen). There are different schools of thought within TCM **theory**, including Five Element theory and **Zang** Fu theory. TCM has a unique model of the body which is different from the models in other traditions. TCM utilizes numerous techniques or healing modalities to achieve the desired balance of Yin and Yang as well as Qi, Blood, Jing (Body Fluids), and Shen (Mind/Spirit). These include, e.g. Acupuncture, Herbology, Nutrition or food therapy, Qigong exercises and Medical qigong, Acupressure, and various styles of massage.

In the West, TCM is often considered alternative medicine, while in both Mainland China and on Taiwan, TCM is widely considered to be an integral part of the health care system. (The term TCM is sometimes used specifically within the field of Chinese Medicine to refer to the standardized set of theories and practices introduced in the **mid-20th** century under the government of Mao, as distinguished from other theories and practices such as **Worsley's** Five Element Acupuncture or the **kyo/jitsu** theory of Shizuto **Masunaga's** Zen **shiatsu**. However we use the more general sense here.)

TCM developed as a form of **pre-modern** therapeutic intervention (also described as folk medicine) or traditional medicine, rooted in ancient religious belief systems. Chinese medical practitioners before the 19th century relied essentially on observation, trial and error. Like their counterparts in the West, they had a very different understanding of infection which predated the discovery of bacteria, viruses (germ theory of disease) or cellular structures and little knowledge of organic chemistry, relying mainly on a medical theory describing the nature of infections and remedies as **well** as tradition to guide their courses of treatment.

Unlike these other forms of traditional medicine which have largely become extinct, traditional Chinese medicine continues as a distinct branch of modern medical practice, and within China, it is an important part of the public health care system. There are thousands of years of empirical knowledge about TCM on its own terms, and in recent decades there has been an effort to place traditional Chinese medicine on a firmer Western scientific empirical and methodological basis as well as efforts to integrate Chinese and Western medical traditions.

That this effort has occurred is surprising to many for a number of reasons. In most of the world, indigenous medical practices have been supplanted by practices brought from the **West**, while in Chinese societies, this has not occurred and shows no sign of occurring.

Furthermore, many have found it peculiar that Chinese medicine remains a distinct branch of medicine separate from Western medicine, while the same has not happened with other intellectual fields. There is, for example, no longer a distinct branch of Chinese physics or Chinese biology.

In the West, TCM is usually regarded as a form of alternative medicine (CAM). TCM is used by some to treat the side **effects** of chemotherapy, treating the cravings and withdrawal symptoms of drug addicts and treating a variety of chronic conditions that conventional medicine is claimed to be sometimes ineffective in treating. TCM has also been used to treat antibiotic-resistant infections.

In **China**, practitioners of Chinese medicine tend to perform functions which in the West would be performed by allied health professionals such as nutritionists, pharmacists, nurses, chiropractors physical therapists and other rehabilitation specialists. Chinese medicine hospitals also perform some emergency medicine such as prevention and treatment of shock and seizure. The general distinction made by Chinese in China is that Western medicine involves cutting while Chinese medicine involves manipulation. Hence medical procedures such as bone setting or chiropractic spinal manipulation tends to be seen as Chinese, while surgery tends to be seen as Western.

Text 5.

Memory loss

Memory loss (**amnesia**) is unusual forgetfulness that can be caused by brain damage due to disease or injury, or it can be caused by severe emotional trauma. Alternative Names: Forgetfulness; Amnesia; Impaired memory; Loss of memory. The cause determines whether amnesia comes on slowly or suddenly, and whether it is temporary or permanent. Normal aging may result in trouble learning new material or requiring longer time to recall learned material. However, it does not lead to dramatic memory loss unless diseases are involved. Causes:

- Aging
- **Alzheimer's** disease
- **Neurodegenerative** illness
- Head trauma or injury
- Alcoholism

- Stroke or transient **ischemic** attack (TIA)
- Transient global amnesia
- Drugs such as barbiturates or benzodiazepines
- **Electroconvulsive** therapy (especially if prolonged)
- Temporal lobe brain surgery
- Brain infections
- Depression

Family support should be provided. Reality orientation is recommended -- supply familiar music, objects, or photos, to help the patient become oriented. Support for **relearning** may be required in some cases. Any medication schedules should be written down to avoid dependence on memory. Extended care facilities, such as nursing homes, should be considered for people whose basic needs cannot be met in any other way, or whose safety or nutrition is in jeopardy.

Call your health care provider if there is any unexplained memory loss. The doctor will perform a thorough examination and take a medical history. This may require asking questions of family members and friends.

Medical history questions documenting memory loss in detail may include the following questions:

- Can the person remember recent events (is there impaired short-term **memory**)?
- Can the person remember events from further in the past (is there impaired long-term **memory**)?
- Is there a loss of memory about events that occurred prior to a specific experience (**anterograde amnesia**)?
- Is there a loss of memory about events that occurred soon after a specific experience (retrograde **amnesia**)?
- Is there only a minimal loss of memory?
- Does the person make up stories to cover gaps in memory (**confabulation**)?
- Is the person suffering from low moods that impair concentration?
- Has the memory loss been getting worse over years? Has the memory loss been developing over weeks or months?

- Is the memory loss present all the time or are there distinct **episodes** of amnesia?
- If there are amnesia episodes, how long do they last?
- Has there been a head injury in the recent past?
- Has the person experienced an event that was emotionally traumatic?
- Has there been a surgery or procedure requiring a general anesthetic?
- Does the person use alcohol? How much?
- Does the person use **illegal/illicit** drugs? How much? What type?
- What other symptoms are present?
- Is the person confused or disoriented?
- Can they independently eat, dress, and perform similar self-care activities?

Physical examination may include a detailed neurological examination. **Recent**, intermediate, and long-term memory will be tested.

TOPIC 6. HEALTHY EATING, COOKING

Text 1* Organic food

Organic food has both a popular meaning, and in some countries, a legal definition. In everyday conversation, it usually refers to all "naturally produced" foods, or the product of organic farming. As a legal term, it means certified organic. The distinction is important, as the two definitions can represent quite different products.

Organic food, like food in general, can be grouped into two categories, *fresh* and *processed*, based on production methods, availability and consumer perception.

Fresh food is seasonal and highly perishable. Fresh produce — vegetables and fruits — is the most available type of organic food, and closely associated with organic farming. It is often purchased directly from the growers, at **farmers'** markets, from **on-farm stands**, through specialty food stores, and through community-supported agriculture (CSA) projects.

Unprocessed animal products — organic meat, eggs, dairy — are less common. Prices are significantly higher than for conventional food, and availability is lower. They are still premium priced items.

For fresh food, "organic" usually means:

- produced without synthetic chemicals (eg: fertilizers, pesticides, antibiotics, hormones)
- (free of genetically modified organisms)
- (often, but not necessarily) locally grown

Processed food accounts for most of the items in a supermarket. Little of it is organic, and organic prices are often high, however, organic processed products are now primarily purchased from supermarkets. The majority of processed organics comes from large food conglomerates, as producing and marketing products like frozen entrees and other convenience foods is beyond the scope of the original small organic producers.

For *processed* organic food, the general definition is:

- contains only (or at least a certain specified percentage of) organic ingredients
- contains no artificial food additives
- processed without artificial methods, materials and conditions (eg: no chemical ripening, no food irradiation)

Definitions of food vary. **Organics** can be difficult to explain by empirical measurement and reference to "scientific fact". For one, the majority of research of the last 50 years has been focussed solely on developing and supporting chemical agriculture. And, **organics** is an "if it ain't **broke**, don't fix it" proposition, concerned in large part with what NOT to do in agriculture, rather than in devising precise formulas to identify organics. When organic food is defined by rules that include "exceptions" and "approved inputs and **practices**" based on scientific arguments and regulatory power, the line between organic and conventional food can become blurry.

Early organic consumers, looking for essentially chemical-free fresh or minimally processed food, had to buy direct from growers: *Know your farmer, know your food* was a practical reality. Organic food at first comprised mainly fresh vegetables. Individual ideas of what exactly constituted "organic" could be developed and verified through talking to farmers and actually observing farm conditions and farming activities. Small farms can grow vegetables (and raise livestock) using organic farming practices, with or without certification, and this is more or less something a direct consumer can monitor.

As consumer demand for organic foods increases, high volume sales through mass outlets, typically supermarkets, is rapidly replacing the direct farmer connection. For supermarket consumers, food production is not easily observable. Product labelling, like "certified organic", is relied on. Government regulations and third-party inspectors are looked to for assurance.

With widespread distribution of organic food, the processed food category has also become **dominant**, confusing the issue further. Processed foods are more difficult to understand **non-technically**. Commercial preparation methods, food additives, packaging, and the like are outside the direct experience of most people (including organic farmers). Traditional and minimally processed products, like flour and rice; baked goods; and canned, frozen, and pickled fruits and vegetables, are easier for consumers to understand by comparison with home preparation methods, although home and mass-production techniques are quite different. For convenience foods, like frozen prepared dishes, cooked breakfast cereals, and margarine, ingredients and methods are quite a mystery. A "certified **organic**" label is usually the only way for consumers to trust that a processed product is "organic".

Text 2. Nutrition and health

In the 18th Century, many sailors on long journeys died from scurvy: indeed some battleships lost more men through illness than through enemy action. The cause of this was not understood, until it was discovered that adding fresh limes to the ship's supply of preserved food seemed to boost the sailor's resistance to the illness, and fewer died. The existence of parts of food essential for survival had been discovered. Other **so-called** vitamins were discovered through the effect of their absence on people's health, and increasingly the role of nutrition's contribution to health was seen as equally important as exercise, hygiene, environment, and psychological **wellbeing**.

The connection between nutrition and health has weakened however. Good health became the norm in the developed world through increased understanding of communicable diseases, micro-organisms and how to fight them with antibiotics, and other health developments. A hidden epidemic gradually emerged in the post World War 2 years, where non-communicable endemic illnesses began to flourish, such as heart disease, cancer, diabetes and obesity.

These illnesses are increasingly recognised now as being sometimes caused by lifestyle issues, including poor nutrition and low levels of exercise. Despite this knowledge, the peak of the epidemic is still with us, and obesity related diseases are prevalent in the developed world.

Many nutritionists ascribe this to excess of refined carbohydrates, decreasing levels of exercise, fewer vegetables and fruit and the wrong type of fats in our diet. Others feel that governments and the food industry has not yet recognised or acted upon this insight. Fast food restaurants are spreading around the world, and Westernisation has unfortunately brought the "diseases of **civilisation**" with it. A reaction to this has been the development of a slow food trend. This has now got its own University, at the University of Pollenzo in Piedmont Italy whose goal is to promote awareness of good food and health through nutrition.

Nutrition research has identified many components of good nutrition, so that in general a wide variety of unprocessed food is recommended as a natural preventive measure, to maintain good health rather than individual foods as remedies for perceived deficiencies.

Nutrition can affect health in many ways. Ill-health can be brought about by an imbalance of nutrients, producing either an excess or deficiency which in turn affects body

functioning in a cumulative manner. The body can be affected at the micro or macro levels by **nutrition**, for example cancer can arise through cell metabolism malfunction, and high energy levels can promote health through frequent activity.

Text 3. Lifestyle and nutritional needs

Adequate nutrition contributes to three outcomes which are necessary for the organism's normal functioning.

These are:

- Adequate energy levels
- Maintaining proper body structures and processes, e.g. muscle function, immune protection, bone density and strength
- Repair and development of all of the organism's systems.

In the case of humans, '**normal functioning**' is affected by a range of situations, which are often open to choice. A **weightlifter**, labourer, **Inuit** fisherman, Sumo wrestler, clerical worker, infant and bed-bound person will all have different definitions of '**normal functioning**', they all have **different** body shapes and sizes, and their nutritional needs will vary also.

Consequently, suitable nutrition varies according to each individual's situation, and to some extent on the choice of lifestyle. Athletes may need high levels of protein and energy to enable high performance and repair for the high stresses on their body. People working hard in a cold environment may need high fat levels in their diets, to help maintain normal body temperature. This beneficial high fat level may be very harmful for people in other situations, eg a sedentary worker in an air-conditioned office.

So the aim of good nutrition in terms of body maintenance, repair and functioning will be often relative to the choices and circumstances of the individual.

Thus although nutrition and food types vary widely according to lifestyles and situations, nevertheless within each different set of requirements the principles of good nutrition can still be applied.

Text 4. Food processing

Food can be made safer and more palatable through processing. Food processing therefore has a valuable role in contributing to good nutrition. However, some nutritionists advise caution.

Food processing is sometimes seen as adversely affecting people's health: polished rice was identified as a cause of **beri-beri** when people realized that removing the skin of the rice was a process which removed essential nutrients.

In the late 1800s in the United States, babies started developing scurvy; there was a veritable plague. It turned out that the vast majority of sufferers were being fed milk that had been heat treated (as suggested by Pasteur) to control bacterial disease. Pasteurization was effective against bacteria, but it destroyed the vitamin C, causing a nutritional disease.

Other examples of adverse effects of food processing, together with research findings and the need to be cautious in the light of our limited and incomplete knowledge, have called food processing into question.

Today's leading nutritionists advise against the processing of food where possible, since undiscovered but possibly essential nutrients may be thereby removed, or toxins may be added or produced through processing and high temperature cooking. Also processing can replace some of the **mechanical/biochemical** body processes which are essential for full digestion, and hence good nutrition.

Cornell nutritional biochemist T. Colin Campbell, Professor and director of the China project stated at a symposium on epidemiology:

"Analyses of data from the China studies ... is leading to policy recommendations." He mentioned three:

- "The greater the variety of plant-based foods in the diet, the greater the benefit. Variety insures broader coverage of known and unknown nutrient needs.
- Provided there is plant food variety, quality and quantity, **healthful** and nutritionally complete diet can be attained without animal-based food.
- The closer the food is to its native state - with minimal heating, salting and processing -- the greater will be the **benefit**."(Cornell Chronicle 28/6/01).

Text 5. Varieties of vegetarianism (terminology)

Different practices of vegetarianism include:

- *Strict* vegetarians avoid consuming all animal products (e.g., eggs, milk, cheese and honey). Today, strict vegetarians are commonly called vegans, though some reserve this term for those who additionally avoid usage of all kinds of animal products (e.g., leather and some cosmetics), not just food.

- *Ovo-lacto* vegetarians do not eat meat, but may consume animal products such as eggs and milk. Those who are ovo-lacto vegetarians for ethical reasons may additionally refuse to eat cheese made with animal-based enzymes (rennet), or eggs produced by factory farms. The term "**vegetarian**" is most commonly intended to mean "ovo-lacto vegetarian", particularly as "vegan" has gained acceptance as the term for stricter practice.

- *Lacto* vegetarians do not eat meat, but may consume milk and its derivatives, like cheese, butter or yogurt.

- Similarly *ovo-vegetarians* do not eat meat but may eat eggs.

- *Flexitarians* adhere to a diet that is mostly vegetarian; however, they occasionally consume meat.

- *Macrobiotics* involves a diet consisting mostly of whole grains and beans, and is usually spiritually-based like **Fructarianism**.

- *Raw Foodism* involves food, usually vegan, which is not heated above 116°F; it may be warmed slightly or raw, but never cooked. Raw Foodists argue that cooking destroys enzymes, and/or portions of each nutrient; this is true, but most raw foodists also acknowledge that for some foods, as cooking softens them, their nutrients become more bioavailable, which more than negates the destruction of some nutrients and enzymes. Some raw-foodists, called living-foodists, also 'activate' the enzymes, e.g. by soaking in water, a while before they plan to eat the food. Some spiritual raw-foodists are also **Fructarians** and some eat only organic foods.

Religious dietary restrictions come in many forms and are sometimes compatible with the secular terminology.

The following are not generally considered vegetarianism:

- **Fructarians**, more commonly called "**fruitarians**", eat only fruit, nuts, seeds and other plant matter that can be gathered without harming the plant. This typically arises out of a holistic philosophy. Thus a **fructarian** will eat beans, tomatoes, cucumbers, pumpkins and

the like, but will refuse to eat potatoes or spinach. Technically, fructarianism *is* a kind of vegetarianism, but its much stricter definition is very rarely seen as being the same thing as vegetarianism. It is also hotly disputed whether it is possible to avoid malnutrition with a fructarian diet. Fructarianism is much rarer than vegetarianism or **veganism**.

- Some people choose to avoid certain types of meat for many of the same reasons that others choose vegetarianism: health, ethical beliefs, etc. For example, some people will not eat "**red** meat" (mammal meat - beef, lamb, **pork**, etc.) while still consuming poultry and seafood. This is not traditional vegetarianism, but has recently been referred to in the media as semi-vegetarianism (or see **Pesco/Pollo** vegetarianism for other terms). Some non-vegetarians thus assume vegetarianism to be **pesco/pollo** vegetarianism.

- Others might regard the suffering of animals in factory farm conditions as their sole reason for avoiding meat or meat based foods. These people will eat meat, or meat products, from animals raised under more humane conditions or hunted in the wild. Some of these people would refer to themselves as vegetarians.

- **Freegans** subscribe to a purely environmental mentality: although meat is generally avoided, eating meat that has been discarded by others is acceptable. The environmental impact of this practice is seen as null or perhaps even beneficial (although discarded meat can be safely composted in some facilities). Freegans often prefer discarded food in any case, even if it is not meat. But producing meat is believed to have more environmental impact than other foods, so this is often the focus of freeganism.

- In current English, the term "vegetarian" is occasionally used for restricted diets that nevertheless include some types of meat. Usually these deviations from traditional usage are made casually, perhaps for lack of a better word. The resulting confusion of terms can create awkward situations for more strict vegetarians, however, as any traditional vegetarian who has been expected to eat a dish because it "only contains a little meat" (or "is just fish") can readily attest.

In 1847, attendees at the meeting of the first Vegetarian **Society** in **Ramsgate**, England, agreed that a "vegetarian" was a person who refuses to consume flesh of any kind. Prior to that time, vegetarians had often been called Pythagoreans, after the philosopher and his followers who also abstained from meat (and some types of beans).

TOPIC 7. LEISURE, SPORTS AND ENTERTAINMENT

Text 1. Ancient games

Throughout the history of mankind the urge to kick at stones and other objects must have inevitably led to many early activities involving kicking and running with a ball. Football-like games undoubtedly predate recorded history in all parts of the world and the earliest forms of football can only be guessed at.

Documented evidence of what is possibly the oldest organised activity resembling football can be found in a Chinese military manual written during the Han Dynasty in about 2nd century BC. It describes a practice known as "*tsu chu*" (蹴鞠 or 蹴鞠 Pinyin: cu4 ju2) which involved kicking a leather ball through a hole in a piece of silk cloth strung between two 30 foot poles. It was not a game as such but more of a spectacle for the amusement of the Emperor and it may have been performed as many as 3000 years ago.

Another ball-kicking game of Far Eastern origin that may have been influenced by *tsu chu* is "*kemari*" which known to have been played within the Japanese imperial court in Kyoto from about 600AD. In *kemari* several individuals stand in a circle and kick a ball to each other, trying not to let the ball drop to the ground (much like keepie uppie). The game survived through many years but appears to have died out sometime before the mid 19th century. In 1903 in a bid to restore ancient traditions the game was revived and it can now be seen played for the benefit of tourists at a number of festivals.

The Greeks and Romans are known to have played many ball games some of which involved the use of the feet. The Roman writer Cicero describes the case of a man who was killed whilst having a shave when a ball was kicked into a barbers shop. The Roman game of *Harpastu* is believed to have been adapted from a team game known as "ἐπισκυρος" (*episkyros*) or pheninda that is mentioned by Greek playwright, Antiphanes (388-311BC) and later referred to by Clement of Alexandria. The game appears to have vaguely resembled rugby.

There are a number of less well-documented references to prehistoric, ancient or traditional ball games, played by indigenous peoples all around the world. For example, William Strachey of the Jamestown settlement is the first to record a game played by the Native Americans called *Pahsaheman*, in 1610. In Victoria, Australia, Australian aborigines played a game called *Marn Grook*. An 1878 book by Robert Brough-Smyth, *The Aborigines*

of *Victoria*, quotes a man called Richard Thomas as saying, in about 1841, that he had witnessed Aborigines playing the game: "Mr Thomas describes how the foremost player will drop kick a ball made from the skin of a possum and how other players leap into the air in order to catch it." It is widely believed that **Marn** Grook had an influence on the development of Australian Rules Football (see below). In northern Canada and/or Alaska, the **Inuit** (Eskimos) played a game on ice called *Aqsaqtuk*. Each match began with two teams facing each other in parallel lines, before attempting to kick the ball through each other team's line and then at a **goal**.

These games and others may well stretch far back into antiquity and have influenced **football** over the centuries. However, the route towards the development of modern football games appears to lie in Western Europe and particularly England.

Text 2. Polo

Polo (also known as **Cho-gan**) is a team game played on a field with one goal for each team. Each team has four players. Polo features successive periods called "**chukkas**", and riders score by driving a ball into the opposing **team's** goal using a long-handled mallet. In this it is similar to many team sports such as football and field hockey. The main difference is that the players play on horseback.

Polo is arguably one of the most complex of games in the world. The precise origin of polo is obscure and undocumented and there is ample evidence of the game's regal place in the history of Asia. No one knows where or when stick first met ball after the horse was domesticated by the ancient Iranian (Aryan) tribes of Central Asia before their migration to Iranian plateau; but it seems likely that as the use of light cavalry spread throughout Iranian plateau, Asia Minor, China and the Indian sub-continent so did this rugged game on horse back. However, many scholars believe that polo originated among the Iranian tribes sometime before the reign of Darius the Great (521–485 BC) and his cavalry forged the Second Iranian Empire, the **Achaemenid** dynasty. Certainly it is Persian literature and **art**, which give us the richest accounts of polo in antiquity.

Ferdowsi, the most famous of Iranian poet-historian, gives a number of accounts of royal polo tournaments in his 9th century epic, **Shahnameh** (the Epic of Kings). Some believe that the Chinese (the Mongols) were the first to try their hands at the game, but in the earliest account, Ferdowsi romanticizes an international match between Turanian force

and the followers of Syavoush, a legendary Persian prince from the earliest centuries of the Empire. The poet is eloquent in his praise of **Siyavush's** skills on the polo field. Ferdowsi also tells of Emperor **Sapur-II** of **Sasanian** dynasty of the 4th Century AD, who learn to play polo when he was only seven years old.

Polo has become popular among other nations such as Chinese, as was the royal pastime for many centuries. Chinese most probably having learned the game from the Iranians nobilities who seek refuge in Chinese courts after the invasion of Iranian Empire by the Arabs, or possibly by same Indian tribes who were taught by the Iranians. The polo stick appears on Chinese royal coats of arms and the game was part of the court life in the golden age of Chinese classical culture under Ming-Hung, the Radiant Emperor, who as an enthusiastic patron of equestrian activities.

For more than 20 centuries polo remained a favourite of the rulers of Asia, who played the game or were its patrons. Their Queens played, as did the nobility and the mounted warriors.

Polo for non-Iranians was the nearest equivalent to a national sport in those times, from Japan to **Egypt**, from India to Byzantium. As the great Eastern Empires collapsed, however, so disappeared the glittering court life of which polo has been so important a part, and the game itself was preserved only in remote villages

Polo came to the west via **Manipur**, a North Eastern state in India. The Guinness Book of Records in its 1991 edition (page 288) traces the origins of the game to Manipur c. 3100 B.C. where it was known as Sagol **Kangjei**. According to historical accounts, one British government official stationed in Manipur (then a princely state) during the late 19th century, wrote an account of the sport and its popularity spread.

As further proof, it is recorded during the House of Lords debate on Jubraj **Tikendrajit's** trial on 22nd June 1891, the Marquis of **Ripon** said about Manipur "it is a small State (Manipur), probably until these events took place very little known to your Lordships, unless, **indeed**, some of you may have heard of it as the birth place of the Game of Polo,"

The 10th Hussars at **Aldershot**, Hants, introduced the game to England from India in 1869. The **game's** governing body is the **Hurlingham** Polo Association, which drew up the first set of rules in 1874, many of which are still in existence.

The sport became popular amongst European nobility but during the early part of 20th century, under the leadership of Harry Payne Whitney, polo changed to become a **high-**

speed sport in the United States, differing from the game in England where it involved short passes to move the **ball** toward the opposition's goal. Whitney and his teammates used the fast **break**, sending long passes **downfield** to riders who had broken away from the pack at a **full** gallop.

In modern day times the sport of polo is now being played on the professional level in the United States. The United States **Women's** Polo Federation "**USWPF**" was founded in 2000 at the turn of the century by society horsewoman Kimberly **Carr-Cavallo** to establish, organize, coordinate and promote sport of professional **women's** polo. The sixteen (16) team polo league is the first ever in U.S. or international polo history to play at the major league level in the professional sports market.

Some other facts about the game:

- The oldest royal polo square is the 16th century **Maidan-Shah** in Isfahan, Iran.
- The oldest Polo Club in the world still in existence is the Calcutta Polo Club (**1862**).
- The 10th Hussars at Aldershot, Hants, introduced the game to England from India in **1869**.

Text 3. Bodybuilding

Bodybuilding is the sport of developing muscle fibers through the combination of weight training, increased caloric intake, and rest. Professional bodybuilders display their physiques to a panel of judges, who assign points.

Although initially a male-only pursuit, in the 1980s women started to compete in separate competitions, but as of 2004, women's bodybuilding has greatly waned in popularity.

The sport is not to be confused with strongman competition, or **powerlifting**, where emphasis is on actual physical strength or with Olympic **weightlifting** where emphasis is equally split between strength and technique. Although superficially similar to the casual observer, the fields entail a different regimen of training, diet and basic motivation.

Rather than focusing on the maximum strength development, bodybuilders aspire to the development and maintenance of an aesthetically pleasant (by bodybuilding standards) and balanced physique. In bodybuilding, size and shape are far more important than how much one can lift.

In order to achieve muscle growth (hypertrophy), bodybuilders focus in three main lines of action:

- Resistance weight training
- Good nutrition incorporating extra protein and supplements where necessary
- High quality rest to facilitate growth

Text 4. Gambling

Because of the generally negative religious view as well as various perceived social costs, gambling is subject to some form of censure on most legal jurisdictions. In particular, in many cases, wagers are not recognised in law as contracts and any consequent losses are *debts of honour*, **unenforcable** by legal process. Thus the enforcement of large gambling debts is often taken over by organized crime, using violent methods. Because contracts of insurance have many features in common with wagers, legislation generally makes a distinction, typically that any agreement in which either one of the parties has an interest in the outcome bet upon, beyond the specific financial terms, is a contract of insurance. Thus a bet on whether one's house will burn down is a contract of insurance as there is an independent interest in the security of **one's** home.

Furthermore, gambling is either banned or heavily controlled (*licensed*) in many jurisdictions. Such regulation generally leads to gambling tourism and illegal gambling. The latter is often controlled through organized crime. Such involvement frequently brings the activity under even more severe moral censure and leads to calls for greater regulation. Conversely, the close involvement in governments (through regulation and gambling taxation) has led to a close connection between many governments and gambling organisations, where legal gambling provides much government revenue.

One of the most widespread forms of gambling is betting on horse races; and betting on team sports is an important service industry in many countries. In Canada and the United States sports betting is usually illegal (Nevada offers full sports betting and the Canadian provinces offer Sport Select, which is government-run sports parlay betting). However, millions engage in it despite its illegality.

Text 5. Slot machine

A **slot machine** is a certain type of gambling machine. The slot machine was invented in 1895 by Charles Fey of San Francisco, California. The first machine, known as *Liberty Bell*, had pictures of diamonds, hearts, spades, and cracked Liberty Bells on three mechanical reels. *Liberty Bell* was a huge success and spawned a thriving **mechanical** gaming device industry. Another early machine gave out winning in the form of fruit flavoured chewing gums with pictures of the flavours as symbols on the reels. The popular cherry and melon symbols derive from this machine. The "BAR" symbol now common in slot machines was derived from an early logo of the Bell-Fruit Gum Company. In 1964, Bally developed the first fully electromechanical slot machine called *Money Honey*.

A person playing a slot machine purchases the right to play by inserting coins, cash, a debit card, or in newer machines, a bar-coded paper ticket (known as "ticket **in/ticket** out" machines), into a designated slot on the machine. The machine is then activated by means of a lever or button, or on newer machines, by pressing a touchscreen on its face. The game itself may or may not involve skill on the player's part -- or it may create the illusion of involving skill without actually being anything else than a game of chance.

The object of the game is to win money from the machine. The game usually involves matching symbols, either on mechanical reels which spin and stop to reveal one or several symbols, or on a video screen. The symbols are usually brightly colored and easily recognizable, such as images of fruits, and simple shapes such as bells, diamonds, or hearts.

Most games have a variety of winning combinations of symbols, often posted on the face of the machine. If a player matches a combination according to the rules of the game, the slot machine pays the player cash or some other sort of value, such as extra games.

There are many different kinds of gambling slot machines in places such as Las Vegas. Some of the most popular are the video poker machines, in which players hope to obtain a set of symbols corresponding to a winning poker hand. There are standard **5-card** draw machines, all the way up to **100-play** machines, where you can play 100 hands at a time.

Becoming more popular now are the 9 line slots. Usually these are themed slots (*Addams Family*, *I Dream of Jeannie*, etc.) with a bonus round. Most accept variable amounts of credit to play with 1 to 5 credits per line being typical. The higher the amount bet, the higher the payout.

Of course, there are the standard 3 - 5 reel slot machines, of various types. These are the typical "one-armed bandits".

Larger casinos offer slot machines with denominations from \$.01 (penny slots) all the way up to \$100.00 a pull.

It is a common belief that the odds on a machine have something to do with the number of each kind of symbol on each reel, but this is not the case. Modern slot machines are **computerized**, so that the odds are whatever they are programmed to be. For instance, if the jackpot combination is "7-7-7", slot machine owners can fool/tease people by making "7-7-(non-7)" come up frequently. Even if the machine uses real wheels, the symbols shown by the wheels are chosen by computer. Slot machines are typically programmed to pay out around 82-94% of the money that goes into them as winnings. This can often be changed by the owner with the aid of DIP switches on the motherboard. The winning patterns on slot machines, the amounts they pay, and the frequency at which they appear are carefully selected to yield a certain percentage of the cost of play to the "house" (the operator of the slot machine), while returning the rest to the player during play. Often machines are linked together in a way that allows a group of machines to offer a particularly large prize, or "jackpot".

In the United States, the public and private availability of slot machines is highly regulated by state governments.

Text 6. Blackjack

Blackjack, also known as **vingt-et-un, or twenty-one**, is one of the most popular casino card games in the world. Much of its popularity is due to the mix of chance with elements of skill and decision making, and the publicity that surrounds the practice of card counting, in which players can turn the odds of the game in their favor by making betting and strategy decisions based on the cards that have been dealt. Officially, casinos strongly frown upon card counting. However, because card counting is a difficult skill to master and few players are successful at it, unofficially casinos are happy to have the public believe that there is one casino game in which money can be earned over a long period of time. (Players lose money while they are learning the technique and in the event that they eventually become good enough to consistently beat the house, they will inevitably be banned.)

Rules

In blackjack, the players bet against the house dealer rather than against each other. The goal of each player is to have a higher point total than the dealer without going over 21. The values of the cards in each hand are added with 2 through 10 having face value, Ace having value 1 or 11 (**player's** choice), and King, Jack, and Queen cards having the value 10. If the player's and the **dealer's** hands have the same point value, this is known as a "push", and neither player wins the hand.

After initial bets are placed, the dealer deals the cards (either from one or two hand-held decks of cards, or more commonly from a shoe containing four or more decks): two cards to each player, including **himself**. One of the dealer's two cards is visible, the other hidden (the hidden card is known as the "hole **card**"; in European **blackjack**, the hole card is not actually dealt until the players all play their hands). The cards of the players are dealt either face up or face down, depending on local casino practice; face up is the most common. At this point, if any player has a "natural" 21 (an Ace with any **10-count card**), often called a "Blackjack", he is immediately paid 3:2 (most of the time: see Basic Strategy below) for his bet, unless the dealer also has a natural, which is a push. If the dealer has a natural, all players without a natural lose immediately; they do not get a chance to further improve their hands.

If the dealer does not have a natural, then one by one the dealer gives each player the option of asking for more cards (called "taking a hit") or staying with his current total (called "standing" or "holding"). The player may continue to ask for more cards, one by one, until he has either gone over 21 ("a bust"), or he is satisfied with the cards that he has (a total of 21 always stands). In addition, depending on what cards the player holds, and depending on the rules in effect at the table, the player may have the option of performing certain special plays (described below). If the player busts (takes a hit that put him over 21), he immediately loses the bet. After **all** the players have finished making their decisions, the dealer then reveals the hidden "hole" card and may or may not draw additional cards. The decision of whether to draw more cards is not up to the dealer; it depends only on the point total that the dealer holds. If the dealer has fewer than 17, he draws another card, and continues to draw more cards until reaching a value equal to or greater than 17. If the dealer busts, then all remaining players win. Bets are normally paid out at the odds of 1:1. Casino rules vary on whether the dealer takes a hit when holding a "soft" 17 (that is, a hand such as an Ace with a six, which can be counted as either 7 or 17). In Atlantic City, all dealers will stand on a soft 17. In other areas, this is up to the individual casino.

TOPIC 8. THE ARTS, MUSIC, THEATRE, CINEMA

Text 1. Hollywood and the motion picture industry

In the early 1900s, motion picture production companies from New York and New Jersey started moving to sunny California because of the good weather and longer days. Although electric lights existed at that time, none were powerful enough to adequately expose **film**; the best source of illumination for movie production was natural sunlight. Besides the moderate, dry climate, they were also drawn to the state because of its open spaces and wide variety of natural scenery.

Another reason was the distance of Southern California from New Jersey, which made it more difficult for Thomas Edison to enforce his motion picture patents. At the time, Edison owned almost **all** the patents relevant to motion picture production and, in the **East**, movie producers acting independently of Edison's Motion Picture Patents Company were often sued or enjoined by Edison and his agents. Thus, movie makers working on the West Coast could work independent of **Edison's** control. If he sent agents to **California**, word would usually reach Los Angeles before the agents did and the movie makers could escape to nearby Mexico.

The first movie studio in the Hollywood area, Nestor Studios, was founded in 1911 by **Al Christie** for David **Horsley** in an old building on the southeast corner of Sunset Boulevard and Gower Street. In the same year, another fifteen Independents settled in Hollywood. Creators of dreams began arriving by the thousands; cameras cranked away, capturing images of custard pies, bathing beauties, comedy and tragedy, villains **leering**, heroines with long curls and heroes to save the day; and they built a new world to replace the lemon groves.

Thus, the fame of Hollywood came from its identity with the movies and movie stars; and the word "**Hollywood**," a word **that**, when spoken in any country on Earth, evokes worlds, even galaxies of memories, came to be colloquially used to refer to the motion picture industry.

In 1913, Cecil B. DeMille, in association with Jesse Lasky, leased a barn with studio facilities on the southeast corner of **Selma** and Vine Streets from the Burns and Revier Studio and Laboratory, which had been established there. DeMille then began production of

The Squaw Man (1914). It became known as the **Lasky-DeMille** Barn and is currently the location of the Hollywood Heritage Museum.

The Charlie Chaplin Studios, on the northeast corner of La Brea and De Longpre Avenues just south of Sunset Boulevard, was built in 1917. It has had many owners after 1953, including **Kling** Studios, who produced the Superman TV series with George Reeves; Red Skelton, who used the sound stages for his CBS TV variety show; and CBS, who filmed the TV series Perry Mason with Raymond Burr there. It has also been owned by Herb **Alpert's** A&M Records and Tijuana Brass Enterprises. It is currently The Jim Henson Company, home of the **Muppets**.

The famous Hollywood sign originally read "Hollywoodland." It was erected in 1923 to advertise a new housing development in the hills above Hollywood. For several years the sign was left to deteriorate. In 1949, the Hollywood Chamber of Commerce stepped in and offered to remove the last four letters and repair the rest.

The sign, located at the top of Mount **Lee**, is now a registered trademark and cannot be used without the permission of the Hollywood Chamber of Commerce, which also manages the venerable Walk of Fame.

The first Academy Awards presentation ceremony took place on May 16, 1929 during a banquet held in the Blossom Room of the Hollywood Roosevelt Hotel on Hollywood Boulevard. Tickets were USD \$10.00 and there were 250 people in attendance.

Hollywood and the movie industry of the 1930s are described in P. G. **Wodehouse's** novel *Laughing Gas* (1936) and in Budd **Schulberg's** *What Makes Sammy Run?* (1941), and is parodied in Terry **Pratchett's** novel *Moving Pictures* (1990), which is a **takeoff of *Singin' In The Rain***.

From about 1930, five major "Hollywood" movie studios from all over the Los Angeles **area**, Paramount, **RKO**, 20th Century Fox, **Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer** and Warner **Bros.**, owned large, grand theaters throughout the country for the exhibition of their movies. The period between the years 1927 (the effective end of the silent era) to 1948 is considered the age of the "Hollywood studio system", or, in a more common term, the *Golden Age of Hollywood*. In a landmark 1948 court **decision**, the Supreme Court ruled that movie studios could not own theaters and play only the movies of their studio and movie stars, thus an era of Hollywood history had unofficially ended. By the mid-1950s, when television proved a profitable enterprise that was here to stay, movie studios started also being used for the production of programming in that medium, which is still the norm today.

Text 2. Stanislavski System

The Stanislavski System is an approach to acting developed by **Konstantin Stanislavski**, a Russian actor, director, and theatre administrator. The System is the result of **Stanislavski's** many years of efforts to determine how a human being can control, in performance, the most intangible and uncontrollable aspects of human behavior: things such as emotions, and artistic inspiration.

The System arose as a result of the questions a young Stanislavski had regarding great actors whom he admired in his youth -- actors like the tragedian **Tommaso Salvini** — and how these actors seemed to operate on different rules than everyone else, and yet like everyone else, they were susceptible on some nights to flashes of inspiration, of completely '**being a role**', while on other nights their performances were good or merely accurate.

In essence, the goal that remained throughout the life of Stanislavski was to formulate some codified, systematic approach that might impart to a given actor some grip on his '**instrument**', that is, himself, beyond immediate physical control.

Konstantin Stanislavski had a dictum at some point, which he probably believed throughout most of his life, that one should always approach a role as directly as possible and see if it lives. If the actor and role connect, and the role comes to life, then what is the point of applying a technique, a system? Forget it, and enjoy, he assured his actors, but remember: such a thing may only happen once or twice in your life, or never. The rest is -- technique. The rest is dependent upon your way of **working**.

It must surely depend on the individual actor and whether or not an approach '**works**' for him, as actors are fond of saying. And indeed it is a very practical thought, coming from Stanislavski, a man who in the end, was always brilliantly practical.

Stanislavski and his System are frequently misunderstood. For instance, often the System is confused with the Method. The latter is an outgrowth of the American (much of it in New York) theatre scene in the 1930s and 40s, when actors and directors such as Elia Kazan, Robert Lewis, Lee **Strasberg**, etc, first in the Group Theatre and later in the Actors Studio, came across **Stanislavski's** thought through such intermediaries as Stella **Adler** and Richard **Boleslavski**. Stanislavski's emphasis on life within moments, on psychological realism, on emotional authenticity, seemed to attract the actors and thinkers working in these cutting-edge institutions. While much work was done with the works of playwrights

like Clifford Odets, Arthur Miller and Tennessee Williams, the Method ended up being applied to older works like those of Shakespeare. Indeed it is an instructive contention whether or not this is an appropriate idea, namely that of a Method approach to pre-**Modernist** plays. For while the System and Method share the same love of **psychology**, in reality they are very different, as different as the temperaments of Stanislavski and **Strasberg**

The System is, through a sort of **shorthand**, often confused with the Method because of its close ties to New York, and again because of figures like Adler, who visited Stanislavski himself. But the System is frequently also confused with itself. For while it may seem that Stanislavski had, throughout his life, one, focused, project, this is emphatically not the case.

There is a story that an actress who had once been in a play directed by Stanislavski came to him years later and informed him that she had taken very copious notes of him and his technical approach during rehearsal, and she would like to note what to do with these notes. He replied, '**Burn** them all.'

The anecdote, whether or not true, is instructive of Stanislavski and his approach. The Stanislavski of later life is not the same one as the Stanislavski whom Stella Adler first met. At times, **Stanislavski's** methodological rigor bordered on opacity: see, for instance, the chart of the '**Stanislavski System**' included as a fold-out in editions of Robert Wilson's book *Method or Madness*, a series of lectures. The chart, made by Adler, is very complicated, listing by various numbers all aspects of performance and of the actor that he thought were pertinent at the time. His dedication to completeness and accuracy often contended with his goal of making a workable system that actors might actually use.

See also his description of the correct way of walking on stage, in his own book translated into English as *Building a Character*. His interest in analyzing as far as possible the qualities of a given phenomenon were meant to give an awareness to the actor of the complexities of human behaviour, and how easily falsehoods -- aspects of behaviour that an audience can detect even without being aware -- are assumed by an untrained or inexperienced actor in performance. All things, all actions that a person must do, like walk, talk, and even sit on stage, must be broken down and **re-learned**, Stanislavski insisted at one point. Such rigors of re-learning were probably a constant throughout his life. Stanislavski, a man of institution, namely his own Moscow Art Theatre and its associated studios, was a great believer in formal (and rigorous) training for the actor.

Mike Nichols once remarked in a workshop that all he wanted to do when he rehearsed a scene was to figure out, with the **actors**, what to do in a scene so that the scene seemed very simple -- in spite of the myriad psychological complexities that were evident. In essence, said this director, he wanted the actors to think '**All** I have to do is -- **this**.' A deceptively simple statement, as a simple action is deceptively simple but it can stay in one's memory for a lifetime.

Text 3. Graffiti

The term **graffiti** is the plural of *graffito* although the singular form is less commonly used. Both words have been borrowed from the Italian language, and along with the English word "graphic", are in turn derived from the Greek *γραφειν* (*graphein*), meaning *to write*. In its modern day use, refers to deliberate human markings on property. Graffiti can take the form of art, drawings, or words, and is often illegal, especially when done without the property owner's consent.

Graffiti originally was the term used for inscriptions, figure drawings, etc., found on the walls of ancient **sepulchers** or ruins, as in the Catacombs, or at Pompeii. But it has evolved to include any decorations inscribed on any surface that are considered to be vandalism or pictures or writing placed on surfaces, usually outside walls and sidewalks, without the permission of the owner. Thus, inscriptions made by the authors of a monument are not considered graffiti.

The (believed to be) first example of "modern" graffiti is found in the ancient Greek city of Ephesus in modern day Turkey and appears to be an advertisement for prostitution, according to the tour guides of the city. It is found near the long mosaic and stone walk way. It consists of a handprint, a vaguely heart-like shape, a footprint and a number. It is believed that this indicates how many steps one would have to take to **find** a lover with the handprint indicating payment.

The Romans carved graffiti into both their own walls and monuments and there are also, for instance, Egyptian ones. The graffiti carved on the walls of Pompeii were preserved by the eruption of Vesuvius and offer us a direct insight into street life: everyday Latin, insults, magic, love declarations, political consigns. One example has even been found that stated "Cave **Canem**", which translates as "Beware of Dog".

Vulgar Latin, as in this political graffiti at Pompeii, was the language of the ordinary people of the Roman Empire, distinct from the Classical Latin of literature.

On the other hand, Viking graffiti can be found in Rome, and Varangians carved their runes in Hagia Sophia. Many times in history graffiti were used as form of fight with opponents. The Irish had their own inscriptive language called Ogham.

Frescos and murals are art forms that involve leaving images and writing on wall surfaces. Like the prehistoric cave wall paintings, they are not **graffiti**, as they are created with the explicit permission (and usually support) of the owner of the walls.

Starting with the large-scale urbanization of many areas in the 20th century, urban gangs would mark walls and other pieces of public property with the name of their gang (a "tag") in order to mark the **gang's** territory.

Near the end of the twentieth century, the practice of tagging became increasingly non-gang related and began to be practiced for its own sake. Graffiti artists would sign their "**tags**" for the sake of doing so and sometimes to increase their reputation and prestige as a "writer" or a **graffiti** artist.

Tags, like **screennames**, are sometimes chosen to reflect some qualities of the writer. Some tags also contain subtle and often cryptic messages. The year in which the piece was created, and in some cases the writer's initials or other letters, are sometimes incorporated into the tag. In some cases, tags or graffiti are dedicated or created in memory of a deceased friend.

In some cases, graffiti (especially those done in memory of a deceased person) found on storefront gates have been so elaborate that shopkeepers have been hesitant to clean them off. In the Bronx after the death of rapper Big Pun, several murals dedicated to his life appeared virtually overnight, the same occurred after the deaths of The Notorious **B.I.G.** and Tupac Shakur. Other highly elaborate works covering otherwise unadorned fences or walls may likewise be so elaborate that property owners or the government may choose to keep them rather than cleaning them off.

In the 20th century, especially during World War II, 'Kilroy was **here**' became a famous graffito, along with *Mr. Chad*, a face with only the eyes and a nose hanging over the wall, saying "What No [scarce **commodity**]...?" during the time of rationing. Twentieth century warfare saw the advent of many new aviation technologies, closely followed by the advent of airplane graffiti, including the nose art made famous during World War II.

Some graffiti may be local or regional in nature, such as wall tagging in Southern California by gangs such as the Bloods and the Crips. The name *Cool "Disco" Dan* (including the quotation marks) tends to be commonly seen in the **Washington**, DC area. Another famous graffiti in the DC Metro area was found on the outer loop of the **beltway** on a railroad bridge near the Mormon temple as seen here. Its simple scrawl "Surrender Dorothy" summoned visions of the Emerald City of Oz and has remained on the bridge for nearly 30 years off and on. Arriving sometime in late 1973 pressure from the Temple has had it removed, only to reappear. This "**giraffiti**" was so well known among the mormon community that it was often mentioned by name in their newsletters as an example of being misunderstood.

Ever since The Beatles recorded there in the 1960s, the wall in front of Abbey Road Studios, London has been a favorite spot for Beatles-related graffiti, left in various languages by visitors from all over the world. The studio makes no **attempt** to stop this graffiti, and has the wall repainted regularly to provide a fresh surface for inscriptions.

Theories and use of graffiti by avant-garde artists has a history dating at least to the Scandinavian Institute of Comparative Vandalism in 1961.

This construction scaffolding has been "tagged".

Some of those who practice graffiti art are keen to distance themselves from gang graffiti. There are differences in both form and intent. The purpose of graffiti art is self-expression and creativity, and may involve highly stylized **letter** forms drawn with markers, or cryptic and colorful spray paint murals on walls, buildings, and even freight trains. Graffiti artists strive to improve their art, which is constantly changing and progressing. The purpose of gang graffiti, on the other hand, is to mark territorial boundaries, and is therefore limited to a gang's neighborhood; it does not presuppose artistic intent.

Text 4. Musical theater

Musical theater (or theatre) is a form of theater combining music, songs, dance, and spoken dialogue. It is closely related to **opera**, frequently being distinguished by the use of popular music of various forms (and thus usually different instrumentation), the use of unaccompanied dialogue (though some musicals are entirely accompanied, such as *Les Misérables*, and some operas have spoken dialogue, such as *Carmen*), and the avoidance of many operatic conventions.

The musical components of a musical are generally referred to as the score, with sung lines considered the lyrics and the spoken lines the book, or occasionally the libretto (a term also frequently applied to text of an opera).

Many familiar musical theater works have been the basis for successful musical films, or were adapted for television presentations. While some popular television programs have set one single episode in the style of a musical as a play on their usual format (examples include episodes of *Ally McBeal*, *Buffy the Vampire Slayer's* episode *Once More with Feeling*, or *Oz's Variety*), the television series *Cop Rock*, which extensively used the musical format, was not a success.

While musical theater works are performed around the world, they are perhaps most frequently produced on Broadway in New York and **London's** West End.

Musical theater is a specialized art form which requires many specialists and places many demands on the form a show must take.

Broadway musicals today are typically backed by a number of producers; in the past musicals were usually controlled by a sole producer but with costs ballooning to more than \$10 million for many new Broadway musicals, several individuals or corporations will contribute money to a project.

There are usually several authors of a musical, as mentioned above. Very few musicals are written entirely by one person. Sometimes, though, a composer will also serve as lyricist or a lyricist will also serve as librettist. There may also be multiple composers, lyricists, or librettists. Authors are often the people who first come up with the idea for a musical and then seek out funding. Sometimes authors may have to spend years trying to get their work produced; they may try to have workshop productions or readings so that they can revise their work to be the best possible show and increase the interest of potential producers. Either before or after a work has producers, a number of changes will usually be made to various parts of the show.

After the authors have gotten producers for their musical, the producer will typically hire a director; the director, producers, and authors will then hire the rest of the creative team, a group consisting of choreographer, music director/conductor, set designer, lighting designer, costume designer, and sound designer.

Once most of the staff have been assembled, the show will typically hold auditions for actors. In some cases a show may start with a few stars planned for certain roles. However,

rules between the group of producers and the actors' union, Actors' Equity Association, require that there be open calls for every show. The producers must also hire crew members and orchestra members for the show.

Once the cast has been assembled rehearsals **start**, and in many cases a show will open on an out-of-town **tryout**. This gives producers and writers a chance to get the show in front of an audience and make changes, while keeping it away from the prying eyes of the New York **press**. In recent **years**, however, it has become more common for a show to forego the out-of-town tryout and replace it with a month or more of previews in New York. If the show does open **out-of-town**, there will typically be a period of time, sometimes only a few months or as much as a year, before the show goes to New York (if a show does poorly in its tryout plans for a Broadway run may be scrapped). If a show goes to Broadway, it will play previews for about a month. During previews the press is not allowed to review the show; they must wait until the official opening night. In some cases previews may have discounted ticket prices. During previews, the final changes are made to the show.

When a show opens, reviews by the critics will be very important. If a show gets great reviews it will likely become popular; however, a show that receives negative reviews will be hurt. When a show gets bad reviews, producers will have to work to minimize the damage. They will have to advertise very heavily and hope that the general public will see the show, like it, and tell the people they know to go see it. Good word of mouth can overcome mixed or negative reviews.

A successful show can run for years, sometimes more than a decade. The longest running show in Broadway history is **Cats**, which ran for almost 18 years, totalling 7,485 performances. A successful show will also spawn national tours and productions in **London's** West End, Toronto, or other cities around the world (also, a successful West End show often moves to Broadway).

An unsuccessful show may close **withing** weeks or months of opening. Producers may lose millions of dollars on a flop.

A musical is a difficult art form to work with. A musical is almost always a maximum of two and a half hours; it will usually be split into two acts and will have twenty to thirty songs of varying length interspersed with book scenes (some musicals, however, are "**sung-through**" and do not have any spoken dialogue, only singing). A musical's moments of greatest dramatic intensity are usually performed in song; a song must be crafted to suit the

character (or characters) and the situation in the play. A show usually opens with a song that sets the tone of the musical, introduces some or all of the major characters, and shows the setting of the play. Within the compressed nature of the musical, the writers must develop the characters and the plot. Music provides an excellent way to express emotion, but since, on average, fewer words are sung in a five-minute song than are spoken in a five-minute block of dialogue, there is less time to develop drama than in a straight play of equivalent length when a **musical** has an hour and a half or more of music in it.

Text 5. Birth of a counterculture

As part of the societal ferment in North America and Europe, rock changed and diversified in a number of subtle and not-so-subtle ways.

As early as the mid-1960s, the image of rock and roll became less like previous musical forms. The Rolling Stones are credited with being the first band to dispense with band uniforms; band members simply wore whatever clothes they wished, and these clothes were often outlandish or controversial. Hair styles also became longer and less tamed. As trivial as these changes may sound today, this break from tradition was shocking to audiences used to clean-cut musical groups in matching suits.

But in 1967, one album forever changed the course of rock and roll. The **Beatles'** groundbreaking album, *Sgt. Pepper's Lonely Hearts Club **Band***, was unlike any album or song that had come before, with a sound unlike anything The Beatles (or any other band or solo artist) had performed. After the climactic final chord of *A Day In The Life*, it was clear that rock and roll was about to move in different directions, such as the following:

The music took on a greater social awareness; it was not just about dancing and smooching anymore, but took on themes of social justice. The counterculture that was emerging (partly as a reaction to the Vietnam War) adopted rock and roll as its defining feature, and the music began to be heavily influenced by the various drugs that the youth culture was experimenting with. In America, psychedelic rock influenced and was influenced by the drug scene and the larger psychedelic lifestyle. It featured long, often improvised jams and wild **electronic** sounds. **Jimi Hendrix**, Jefferson Airplane, Iron Butterfly, and the Grateful Dead were leading practitioners of psychedelia. A more esoteric form of British psychedelia and the Canterbury Sound is exemplified by the Soft Machine, who accompanied Hendrix on his first U.S. tour. Pink Floyd found their roots in British

psychedelia, moving on to becoming more of a progressive rock, and arena rock band later in their careers.

The culmination of rock and roll as a socially-unifying force was seen in the rock festivals of the late '60s, the most famous of which was Woodstock which began as a three-day arts and music festival and turned into a "happening", as hundreds of thousands of youthful fans converged on the site.

The music itself broadened past the guitar-bass-drum format; while some bands had used saxophones and keyboards before, now acts like The Beach Boys and The Beatles (and others following their lead) experimented with new instruments including wind sections, string sections, and full orchestration. Many bands moved well beyond three-minute tunes into new and diverse forms; increasingly sophisticated chord structures, previously limited to jazz and orchestrated pop music, were heard.

Dabbling heavily in classical, jazz, electronic, and experimental music resulted in what would be called **progressive rock** (or, in its German wing, krautrock). Progressive rock could be lush and beautiful or atonal and dissonant, highly complex or **minimalistic**, sometimes all within the same song. At times it was hardly recognizable as rock at all. Some notable practitioners include King Crimson, Genesis, Gentle Giant, The Nice, Yes, Gong, **Magma**, Can, and Faust.

A second wave of British bands and artists gained great popularity during this period; these bands typically were more directly steeped in American blues music than their more pop-oriented predecessors but their performances took a highly amplified, often spectacular form. These were the bands that were led by the guitar; Cream and Led Zeppelin were early examples of this blues-rock form and were followed by heavier rock bands including Black Sabbath and Deep Purple. This style of rock would come to be known as **heavy metal** music.

Text 6. Impressionist Techniques

The Impressionist approach to painting is usually identified with a strong concern for light in its changing qualities, often with an emphasis on the effects of a particular passage of time.

In addition to wanting to control the content of paintings, the Academy of Fine Arts also wanted a say in the techniques used by artists. They wanted mostly somber,

conservative colors. They wanted highly **refined** images that could be carefully examined up close for their faithfulness to "reality," and they encouraged artists to eliminate all traces of their brush strokes from view. Thus, the painting itself was isolated from the artist's personality, emotions, and working techniques. The Academy thought it crude for the **artist's** identity to creep into the work. Art at that time was considered to be a conservative enterprise whose innovations should always fall within the **Academy's** carefully defined borders.

The Impressionists changed all that:

- They painted with short, thick strokes of paint in a sketchy way that allowed them to capture and emphasize the essence of their subject rather than in details.
- They used colors with as little mixing on the pallet as possible, believing that it was better to allow the eye to mix the colors as it viewed them upon the canvas. This provided a much more vibrant experience for the viewer.
- They stopped tinting their colors (mixing in black) in order to obtain darker pigments, but instead, if mixing was absolutely necessary, they obtained darker colors by mixing complementary colors. (Black could still be used, but only as a color in its own right.)
- They left their brush strokes on the canvas to be visible to all, adding a new dimension of familiarity with the artist's personality for the viewer to enjoy. They discovered or emphasized new aspects of the play of natural light, including an acute awareness of how colors reflect from object to object within the painting.
- In outdoor paintings, they boldly painted shadows as being filled with the blue of the sky as it was reflected onto surfaces, thus giving a new sense of freshness and openness that had never been captured in painting before. (It was the blue shadow areas on snow which tipped them off to this phenomenon.)
- They painted wet paint into the wet paint already on the canvas instead of waiting for successive applications to dry. This produced softer edges and more exciting intermingling of color.
- They avoided the use of thin paints to create glazes which earlier artists would build up carefully to produce their effect. Instead, the Impressionists put the paint down thickly and did not rely upon layering.

- They painted what and how they wanted to paint, without concern for rules or traditions.

Many of these innovations had been tried from time to time by earlier artists, but this was the first time that they all came together. Earlier examples can be found in the works of **Frans** Hals, Peter Paul **Rubens**, John Constable, Theodore Rousseau, Gustave **Courbet**, **Camille** Corot, Eugene Boudin, and **Eugene** Delacroix.

Some of the Impressionists took advantage of advances in the packaging of paint which allowed them to work more spontaneously both outdoors and in. Previously, painters had to grind and mix dry pigment powders with linseed oil to make their paint, but by the **1870s premixed** paints were being sold in metal tubes resembling the modern toothpaste tube.

TOPIC 9. TRAVELLING, MEANS, DESTINATIONS

Text 1. Tourism

Tourism can be defined as the act of travel for the purpose of **recreation**, and the provision of services for this act. A **tourist** is someone who travels at least fifty miles from home, as defined by the World Tourism Organization (a United Nations body).

A more comprehensive definition would be that tourism is a service industry, comprising a number of tangible and intangible components. The tangible elements include transportation systems - air, rail, road, water and **now**, space; hospitality services - accommodation, foods and beverages, tours, souvenirs; and related services such as banking, insurance and safety & security. The intangible elements include: rest and relaxation, culture, escape, adventure, new and different experiences.

Many sovereignties, along with their respective countries and states, depend heavily upon travel expenditures by foreigners as a source of taxation and income for the enterprises that sell (export) services to these travellers. Consequently the development of tourism is often a strategy employed either by a Non-governmental organization (NGO) or a governmental agency to promote a particular region for the purpose of increasing commerce through exporting goods and services to non-locals.

Sometimes *Tourism* and *Travel* are used **interchangably**. In this context travel has a similar definition to tourism, but implies a more purposeful journey.

The term *tourism* is sometimes used pejoratively, implying a shallow interest in the societies and natural wonders that the tourist visits.

"Travel", as an economic activity, occurs when the essential parameters come together to make it happen. In this case there are three such parameters:

1. Disposable income, i.e. money to spend on non-essentials
2. Time in which to do so.
3. Infrastructure in the form of accommodation facilities and means of transport.

Individually, sufficient health is also a condition, and of course the inclination to travel. Furthermore, in some countries there are legal restrictions on travelling, especially abroad. Communist states restrict foreign travel only to "trustworthy" citizens. The United States prohibits its citizens from traveling to some countries, for example, Cuba.

Wealthy people have always travelled to distant parts of the world to see great buildings or other works of art; to learn new languages; or to taste new cuisine. As long ago as the time of the Roman Republic places such as **Baiae** were popular coastal resorts for the rich.

The terms *tourist* and *tourism* were first used as official terms in 1937 by the League of Nations. Tourism was defined as people travelling abroad for periods of over 24 h.

The word *tour* gained acceptance in the 18th century, when the Grand Tour of Europe became part of the upbringing of the educated and wealthy British nobleman or cultured gentleman. Grand tours were taken in particular by young people to "complete" their education. They travelled all over Europe, but notably to places of cultural and aesthetic interest, such as Rome, Tuscany and the Alps.

The British aristocracy were particularly keen on the Grand Tour, using the occasion to gather art treasures from Europe to add to their collections. The volume of art treasures being moved to Britain in this way was unequalled anywhere else in Europe, and explains the richness of many private and public collections in Britain today. Yet tourism in those days, aimed essentially at the very top of the social ladder and at the well educated, was fundamentally a cultural activity. These first tourists, though undertaking their Grand Tour, were more travellers than tourists.

Most major British artists of the eighteenth century did the "Grand Tour", as did their great European contemporaries such as Claude **Lorrain**. Classical architecture, literature and art have always drawn visitors to Rome, Naples, Florence,

The Romantic movement (inspired throughout Europe by the English poets William Blake and Lord Byron, among others), extended this to *Gothic* countryside, the Alps, fast flowing **rivers**, mountain **gorges**, etc.

Text 2. Health tourism & leisure travel

It was not until the 19th century that cultural tourism developed into leisure and health tourism. Some English travellers, after visiting the warm lands of the South of Europe, decided to stay there either for the cold season or for the rest of their lives. Others began to visit places with health-giving mineral waters, in order to relieve a whole variety of diseases from gout to liver disorders and bronchitis.

Leisure Travel was a British invention due to sociological factors. Britain was the first European country to industrialize, and the industrial society was the first society to offer time for leisure to a growing number of people. Not initially the working masses, but the owners of the machinery of production, the economic oligarchy, the factory owners, the traders, the new middle class.

The British origin of this new industry is reflected in many place names. At Nice, one of the first and most well established holiday resorts on the French **Riviera**, the long esplanade along the sea front is known to this day as the *Promenade des **Anglais***; and in many other historic resorts in continental Europe, old well-established palace hotels have names like the *Hotel **Bristol***, *Hotel **Carlton*** or *Hotel **Majestic*** - reflecting the dominance of English customers to whom these resorts catered in the early years.

Winter tourism

Even winter sports were largely invented by the British leisured classes initially at the Swiss village of **Zermatt (Valais)** and St Moritz in 1864.

Until the first tourists appeared, the Swiss thought of the long snowy winter as being a time when the best thing to do was to stay indoors and make cuckoo clocks or other small mechanical items.

The first packaged winter sports holidays (vacations) followed in 1903, to Adelboden, also in Switzerland.

Organized sport was well established in Britain before it reached other countries. The vocabulary of sport bears witness to this: rugby, football, and boxing all originated in Britain, and even Tennis, originally a French sport, was formalized and codified by the British, who hosted the first national championship in the nineteenth century, at Wimbledon. Winter sports were a natural answer for a leisured class looking for amusement during the coldest season.

Mass travel

Mass travel did not really begin to develop until two things occurred.

- a) improvements in communications allowed the transport of large numbers of people in a short space of time to places of leisure interest, and
- b) greater numbers of people began to enjoy the benefits of leisure time. A major development was the invention of the railways, which brought many of **Britain's** seaside towns within easy distance of **Britain's** urban centres.

The father of modern mass tourism was Thomas Cook **who**, on 5 July 1841, organized the first package tour in history, by chartering a train to take a group of temperance campaigners from Leicester to a rally in **Loughborough**, some twenty miles away. Cook immediately saw the potential for business development in the sector, and became the world's first tour operator.

He was soon followed by others, with the result that the tourist industry developed rapidly in early Victorian Britain. Initially it was supported by the growing middle **classes**, who had time off from their work, and who could afford the luxury of travel and possibly even staying for periods of time in boarding houses.

However, the Bank Holiday Act 1871 introduced a statutory right for workers to take holidays, even if they were not paid at the time. (As an aside, in the UK there is still no obligation to pay staff who do not work on public holidays.)

The combination of short holiday periods, travel facilities and distances meant that the first holiday resorts to develop in Britain were towns on the seaside, situated as close as possible to the growing industrial conurbations.

For those in the industrial north, there were Blackpool in Lancashire, and Scarborough in Yorkshire. For those in the Midlands, there were **Weston-super-Mare** in Somerset and Skegness in Lincolnshire, for those in London there were **Southend-on-Sea**, Broadstairs, Brighton, Eastbourne, and a whole collection of other places.

In travelling to the coast, the population was following in the steps of Royalty. King George III is widely acknowledged as popularising the seaside holiday, due to his regular visits to Weymouth when in poor health.

For a century, domestic tourism was the norm, with foreign travel being reserved, as before, for the rich or the culturally curious. A minority of resorts, such as Bath, **Harrogate** and Matlock, emerged inland. After World War II holiday villages such as Butlins and Pontins emerged, but their popularity waned with the rise of package tours and the increasing comforts to which visitors became accustomed at home. Towards the end of the 20th century the market was revived by the upmarket inland resorts of Dutch company Centre Pares.

Other phenomena that helped develop the travel industry were paid holidays:

- 1.5 million manual workers in Britain had paid holidays by 1925
- 11 million by 1939 (30% of the population in families with paid holidays)

Special forms of tourism

For the past few decades other forms of tourism have been becoming more popular, particularly:

- *Adventure tourism*: Tourism involving travel in rugged regions, or adventurous sports such as mountaineering and tramping.
- *Agritourism*: Farm based tourism, helping to support the local agricultural economy.
- *Ecotourism*: Sustainable tourism which has minimal impact on the environment, such as safaris (Kenya) and Rainforests (Belize), or national parks.
- *Cultural tourism*: Usually urban tourism, visiting historical or interesting cities, such as London, Paris, Prague, Rome, Cairo, Beijing, Kyoto, etc.
- *Heritage tourism*: Visiting historical or industrial sites, such as old canals, railways, battlegrounds, etc.
- *Health tourism*: Usually to escape from cities or relieve stress, perhaps for some fun in the sun', etc. Often to "health spas".
- *Sport tourism*: Particularly skiing.
- *Sex tourism*: mostly men from First World countries visiting Third World countries for purpose of engaging in sexual acts, usually with inexpensive local prostitutes. This form of tourism is often cited the principal way that paedophiles can hire child prostitutes.
- *Perpetual tourism*: Wealthy individuals always on holiday, some of them, for tax purposes, to avoid being resident in any country.
- *Drug tourism* (for use in that country, or, legally often extremely risky, for taking home)
- *Gambling tourism*, e.g. to Atlantic City, Las Vegas, Macau or Monte Carlo for the purpose of visiting the casinos there.
- *Disaster tourism*: travelling to a disaster scene not primarily for helping, but because one finds it interesting to see. It can be a problem if it hinders rescue, relief and repair work.
- *Medical tourism*, e.g.: for what is illegal in one's own country, e.g. abortion.
- *Armchair tourism* and *virtual tourism*: not travelling physically, but exploring the world through internet, books, TV, etc.
- *Space tourism*
- *Regional tourism* Tourism bundle of few country in the region, using one of the country as the transit point. The country of transit point is usually a country with good

transport **infrastructure**. e.g. Singapore is the base for tourism for South East Asia due to its strategic location and good transport infrastructure.

The World Tourism Organization forecasts that international tourism will continue growing at the average annual rate of 4 percent (<http://www.world-tourism.org>). By 2020 Europe will remain the most popular destination, but its share will drop from 60 percent in 1995 to 46 percent. Long-haul will grow slightly faster than **intraregional** travel and by 2020 its share will increase from 18 percent in 1995 to 24 percent.

Text 3. Train

In rail transport, a **train** consists of several connected rail vehicles that are capable of being moved together along a guideway to transport freight or passengers from one place to another along a planned route. The guideway usually consists of conventional rail, but may be monorail or maglev. Propulsion for the train may come from a variety of sources, but often from a locomotive or self-propelled multiple unit.

There are various **types of train** designed for particular purposes, see rail transport operations.

A train can consist of a combination of a locomotive and attached railroad cars, or a self-propelled multiple unit (or occasionally a single powered coach, called a **railcar**). Trains can also be hauled by horses, pulled by a cable, or run downhill by gravity.

Special kinds of trains running on corresponding special '**railways**' are atmospheric railways, monorails, high-speed railways, maglev, rubber-tired underground, funicular and cog railways.

A passenger train may consist of one or several locomotives, and one or more coaches. Alternatively, a train may consist entirely of passenger carrying coaches, some or all of which are powered as a "multiple **unit**".

Freight trains comprise wagons or trucks rather than carriages, though some parcel and mail trains (especially Travelling Post **Offices**) are outwardly more like passenger trains.

A train hauled by two locomotives is said to be "double headed".

Trains can also be mixed, hauling both passengers and freight, see e.g. Transportation in Mauritania. Such mixed trains have become rare in many countries.

Special trains are also used for track maintenance.

A single uncoupled rail vehicle is not technically a train, but is usually referred to as such for signalling reasons.

The first trains were rope-hauled or pulled by horses, but from the early 19th century, almost all were powered by steam engines. From the 1920s onwards they began to be replaced by diesel (and some petrol) and electric-hauled **trains**. Most countries had replaced steam trains for day-to-day use, by the 1970s. A few countries, most **notably** the **People's** Republic of China where coal is in cheap and plentiful supply, still use steam trains, but this is being gradually phased out. Historical steam trains still run in many other countries, for the leisure and enthusiast market.

Modern locomotives and powered coaches may have a diesel engine **and/or** electric motors. On the most common form of diesel train, the diesel engine drives a generator which provides power for electric motors which turn the wheels (**diesel-electric**), or in some cases the power from the diesel engine is transferred to the wheels by hydraulic means (**diesel-hydraulic**). Mechanical transmission, like that in an automobile, is used on a few trains, and shunting engines (switchers). However diesel powered trains are expensive to run. Where a railway line has sufficient traffic to justify the expense, it may be electrified, to allow the running of electric powered trains, which are cheap to run, and have higher performance than diesel trains.

For straight electric trains the power to run the electric motors is generated at a power station and supplied to the train by some form of distribution system. There are two common means of doing this, current may be supplied to the train by overhead wires, or by a third rail system. Funiculars do not have an engine within the vehicle, but are pulled on a cable by a motor in the station.

Passenger trains have passenger cars. Passenger trains travel between stations; the distance between stations may vary from under 1 km to much more.

Long-distance trains, sometimes crossing several countries, may have a dining or restaurant car; they may also have sleeping cars, but not in the case of high-speed rail, these arrive at their destination before the night falls and are in competition with airplanes in speed. Very long distance trains such as those on the Trans-Siberian railway are usually not high-speed.

Very fast trains sometimes tilt.

For trains connecting cities, we can distinguish inter-city trains, which do not halt at small stations, and trains that serve all stations, usually known as local trains or "stoppers" (and sometimes an intermediate kind, see also limited-stop).

Interior of a passenger car in a long-distance train in Finland

For shorter distances many cities have networks of commuter trains, serving the city and its suburbs. Some carriages may be laid out to have more standing room than seats, or to facilitate the carrying of prams, cycles or wheelchairs. Some countries have some double-decked passenger trains for use in conurbations. Double deck high speed and sleeper trains are becoming more common in Europe.

Passenger trains usually have emergency brake handles (or a "communication cord") that the public can operate. Abuse is punished by a **fine**.

Large cities often have a metro system, also called underground, subway or tube. The trains are electrically powered, usually by third **rail**, and their railroads are separate from other **traffic**, without level crossings. Usually they run in tunnels in the center and sometimes on elevated structures in the outer parts of the city. They can accelerate and decelerate faster than heavier, long-distance trains.

A light one- or two-car rail vehicle running through the streets is not called a train but a tram or streetcar, but the distinction is not strict.

The term light rail is sometimes used for a modern tram, but it may also mean an intermediate form between a tram and a train, similar to metro except that it may have level crossings. These are often protected with crossing gates. They may also be called a trolley,

Maglev trains and monorails represent minor technologies in the train field.

The term **rapid transit** is used for public transport such as commuter trains, metro and light-rail.

Freight Trains: Much of the **world's** freight is transported by train. In the USA the rail system is used mostly for transporting freight.

Under the right circumstances, transporting freight by train is highly economic, and also more energy efficient than transporting freight by road.

Rail freight is most economic, when freight is being carried in bulk and over long distances. But is less suited to short distances and small loads.

The main disadvantage of rail freight is its lack of **flexibility**, for this reason, rail has lost much of the freight business to road competition. Many governments are now trying to

encourage more freight onto trains, because of the environmental benefits that it would bring.

There are many different **types of freight train**, which are used to carry many different kinds of **freight**, with many different types of wagon. One of the most common types on modern railways are container trains, whereby the containers can be lifted on and off the train by cranes and loaded off or onto trucks or ships.

This type of freight train has largely superseded the traditional "box wagon" type of freight train, whereby the cargo had to be loaded or unloaded manually.

In some countries "piggy back" trains are used whereby trucks can drive straight onto the train and drive off again when the end destination is reached. A system like this is used on the Channel Tunnel between England and France. There are also some "inter-modal" vehicles, which have two sets of wheels, for use in a train, or as the trailer of a road vehicle.

There are also many other types of wagon, such as "low loader" wagons for transporting road vehicles. There are refrigerator wagons for transporting food. There are simple types of open-topped wagons for transporting minerals and bulk material such as coal and tankers for **transporting** liquids and gases.

Freight trains are sometimes illegally boarded by passengers who do not wish to or have the means to travel by ordinary means. This is referred to as "**Hopping**" and is considered by some communities to be a viable form of transport. Most hoppers sneak into train yards and stow away in boxcars. More bold hoppers will catch a train "on the fly", that is, as it is moving, leading to occasional fatalities, some of which go unrecorded.

Text 4. Aircraft

An **aircraft** is any machine capable of atmospheric flight.

Aircraft fall into two broad categories:

1) Heavier than air

Heavier than air **aerodynes**, including autogyros, helicopters and variants, and conventional **fixed-wing aircraft: aeroplanes** in Commonwealth English, *airplanes* in North American English.

Fixed-wing aircraft generally use an internal-combustion engine in the form of a piston engine with a **propellor** or a jet engine, sometimes with a **propellor**, to provide thrust that moves the craft forward through the air. The movement of air over the airfoil produces

lift that causes the aircraft to fly. Exceptions are gliders which have no engines and gain their thrust, **initially**, from winches or tugs and then from gravity and thermal currents. That is, in order to maintain their forward speed they must descend in relation to the air (but not necessarily in relation to the ground). Helicopters and autogyros use a spinning rotor (a *rotary wing*) to provide both lift and thrust. The abbreviation VTOL is applied to aircraft other than helicopters that can take off or land vertically. Similarly, STOL stands for Short Take Off and Landing.

2) Lighter than air

Lighter than air **aerostats**: balloons and airships. Aerostats float in air in the same way that a ship floats in water, by displacing the air around the craft with a lighter gas (helium or hydrogen), or hot air. The distinction between a balloon and an airship is that an airship has some means of controlling forward motion and steering, while balloons simply drift with the wind.

There are several ways to classify aircraft, e.g. by design, propulsion and usage. Three major uses for aircraft may be seen: recreational, military, and commercial.

Text 5. Motel

The word **motel** originates from the Motel Inn of San Luis Obispo, first built in 1925 by Arthur **Heinman**. Entering dictionaries after World War II, the motel (**aka** the motor hotel) referred initially to a single building of connected rooms whose doors face a parking lot **and/or** common area, and their creation was the outcome of the creation of the United States highway system which predated the Interstate highway system and allowed easy cross-country travel.

Unlike their predecessors, auto camps and tourist courts, motels quickly adopted a homogenized appearance. Typically one would find an 'I' or 'L' or 'U' shaped structure that included rooms, an attached **manager's** office, and perhaps a small diner. Even so, postwar motels often featured eye-catching neon signs which employed pop culture themes that ranged from Western imagery of cowboys and **indians** to contemporary images of spaceships and atomic symbols.

The modern motel began in the 1920s as mom-and-pop motor courts on the outskirts of a town. They attracted the first road warriors as they crossed the U. S. in their new automobiles. They usually had a grouping of small cabins and their anonymity made them

ideal **trysting** places (or the "hot trade" in industry lingo). Even the famous outlaws Bonnie and Clyde were frequent guests, using motels as hideouts. The **motels'** potential for breeding lust and larceny alarmed then FBI chief J. Edgar Hoover, who attacked motels and auto camps in an article he penned called "Camps of Crime", which ran in the February 1940 issue of American Magazine.

Motels differed from hotels in their emphasis on largely anonymous interactions between owners and occupants, their location along highways (as opposed to urban cores), and their orientation to the outside (in contrast to hotels whose doors typically face a hallway).

With the 1950s introduction of **Kemmons Wilson's** Holiday Inn, the 'mom and pop' motels of that era went into decline. Eventually, the emergence of the interstate highway system, along with other factors, led to a blurring of the motel and the hotel. Today, family owned motels with as few as five rooms may still be found along older highways, but their lifespans appear to be short. The quality and standards of every independent motel differ so it is always wise to cruise around for good motel before settling in a room.

In seedy areas, motels also tend to be located near strip clubs, for the purpose of engaging in sexual activity. Motels are often places of prostitution and drug crime. Motels are also often inhabited by down-and-out and low-income people as well.

The largest and the more well-known budget motel chain is Motel 6. It has numerous locations throughout the United States and southern Ontario, Canada.

Text 6. Seven ways to buy your train ticket in Germany

There are seven ways for you to book your ticket. No matter which one you choose - either through the internet, phone or at the counter with personal advice - we have listed all options for you.

Internet ticket sales

Internet booking is the easiest and most convenient way to obtain your ticket. After having registered to our website you can book your tickets online and directly print them on your printer at home.

Fahrkartenshop (at present only available in German)

It offers you all tariffs, which are not bound to a specific relation and are usually valid within a certain region for a certain time. For example State Tickets enable you to use

regional trains in a particular German state - e.g. with Saxony Ticket (Sachsen-Ticket) you can use any **local** train (the red trains) in Saxony during one day. Also available is the Euro Domino Railway Pass Germany that enables you to use any train within Germany for e.g. **five** days. Tickets you purchase will be sent to you by mail within 3 working days (within Germany) or within 8 working days for destinations outside Germany.

Ticket vending machines

There are about 3,000 touch-screen ticket vending machines at almost **all** stations in Germany. They **offer** tickets and seat reservations by means of self service. By using the express booking function you can obtain your ticket quickly, only a few minutes prior to departure. This service is offered in 5 languages apart from English. You can select your trains in more detail by choosing to display the connections sorted by departure or arrival time, number of interchanges, timely length of the journey or price.

Counter

Service staff at the ticket counters at train stations sell train tickets and give you personal advice. You can purchase national and international tickets, receive timetable information and make seat reservations. Of course, ticket counters will also advise on special offers and answer your questions on traveling.

Travel agency

Authorized German Rail travel agencies sell tickets and offer advice. They have information on the latest specials and offer services to make your rail travel as comfortable and convenient as possible.

Call Centre

You may also book your ticket and make seat reservations via a Call Centre. The ticket will be sent to you by mail or you may be picked up at any of the ticket vending machines with touch screen at the stations. Timetable information is also available.

Train

You may purchase your tickets on board of the train. Train attendants sell tickets for a small extra charge. You may pay cash or by credit card. On trains it is not necessary to stamp your ticket before you get on board. Your ticket will be checked at least once per journey. You will have to show your ticket again, if staff changes or when you change trains. Please show your **BahnCard** on inspection, too. The attendant will then stamp the ticket. The train attendant checks the code printed in order to confirm that the ticket is valid.

TOPIC 10. WEATHER AND CLIMATE

Text 1. Climate change

The term **climate change** is used to refer to changes in the **Earth's** climate. In the most general sense, it can be taken to mean changes over all timescales and in all of the components of climate, including precipitation and clouds as well as temperature. Climate changes can be caused both by natural forces and by human activities.

However in recent usage, especially in the context of environmental policy, it refers more specifically to changes being studied in the present, including an average rise in surface temperature, or global warming. International efforts to study and address climate change are coordinated through the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. Note, however, that the **UNFCCC** defines "climate change" as anthropogenic and uses "**climate** variation" to mean what is used by most other sources to be "climate change". Sometimes the term "anthropogenic climate change" is used to indicate the presumption of human influence.

For information on climate measurements over various periods, and the data sources available, see historical temperature record. For attribution of climate change over the past century, see attribution of recent climate change. For global warming episodes in the geological record, see **Permian-Triassic** extinction event and Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum.

Climate changes due to *internal factors* and *external factors*. Internal factors are those due to interactions within the earth's climate system. External factors, called climate forcings, are divided into natural factors, such as variations in solar radiation, and anthropogenic factors (those attributed to human activities).

There is general agreement among scientists (as revealed by the scientific literature) that:

- The 100 kyr ice age cycles are controlled by orbital forcing - variations in the seasonal and geographical distribution of insolation; and in the total insolation.
- The rapid temperature changes seen in ice cores during the last glacial were probably caused by events associated with the **Laurentide** ice sheet and thus count as "internal variability".
- The Little Ice Age was probably caused by solar variation or volcanic activity.

- It is known that the weather is a chaotic non-linear dynamical system. It is not clear that the climate (the average of weather) is such a system. Restricting ourselves to the last 400 kyr, the ice core record shows that the largest swings in climate are periodic, with the same periodicity as various orbital variations. These are thus non-chaotic. However, there are large short-term changes which do seem to be best explained as chaotic. Those variations do not seem to occur in the current climate state. Thus, it is possible that the climate system varies between chaotic and non-chaotic, depending on the state of the external forcing.

It is clear that natural external factors have caused significant climate changes in the past, and it is probable that internal factors have too.

Anthropogenic factors are acts by humans (*Homo sapiens*) that change the environment and influence the climate. The major factor is CO_2 emission from fossil fuel combustion. Other factors include forest alterations, and agricultural or other changes that affect the Earth's albedo, the carbon cycle, or methane production.

The main natural external factor is the variability in the amount, and geographic and temporal distribution of, solar radiation that reaches Earth. The solar radiation can change on short (yearly to century) timescales because of solar cycles and on century to millennial timescales because of cyclic changes in Earth's orbit. On much longer (hundreds of millions of years) timescales, the Sun is getting hotter.

The 100,000 year ice age cycles are due to natural causes. Within the last 1000 years, there are two extensive periods where temperatures were relatively warmer (the Medieval Warm Period) or cooler (the Little Ice Age). Since anthropogenic forcing is believed to have been small then, it is assumed that these changes were due to natural factors. The Little Ice Age is usually attributed to the reduction of solar activity or increase in volcanoes; the causes of the MWP are even less clear.

A few scientists have claimed that the observed warming since 1860 is a natural climate recovery from the Little Ice Age.

The influence of external factors can be compared using the concept of radiative forcing. A positive radiative forcing warms the planet, and negative radiative forcing cools the planet.

Text 2. Synoptic winds

Synoptic winds are winds associated with large-scale events such as warm and cold fronts, and are part of what makes up everyday weather. These include the **geostrophic** wind, the gradient wind, and the **cyclostrophic** wind.

As a result of the **Coriolis** force, winds always flow clockwise around a high pressure area and counterclockwise around a low pressure area (the reverse in the southern hemisphere). At the same time, winds always flow from areas of high pressure to areas of low pressure. These two forces are opposite but not equal, and the path that results when the two forces cancel each other out runs parallel to the isobars. Wind following this path is known as geostrophic wind. It is rare, however, to find things quite so tidy. Winds are said to be truly geostrophic only when other forces (e.g. friction) acting on the air are negligible, a situation which is often a good approximation to the large-scale flow away from the tropics.

In nature, isobars are almost always curved. The result is that a wind moving parallel to the isobars encounters a third force, the centripetal force. This is the force which tends to keep a body in motion moving in the same direction. The effect of this force, though not a force in itself, is called the centrifugal force, and acts to counteract the Coriolis force (coincidentally also the effect of a force rather than a force in itself) and decrease the wind speed. This much more common situation results in what is known as a **gradient wind**.

In certain circumstances, the Coriolis force acting on moving air may be almost or entirely overwhelmed by the centripetal force. Such a wind is said to be **cyclostrophic**, and is characterized by rapid rotation over a relatively small area. Hurricanes, tornadoes, and typhoons are examples of this type of wind.

Special winds are winds which blow under only certain circumstances. These may result from differential heating, from barriers to airflow, or from gravitational effects.

Differential heating is the motive force behind **land breezes** and **sea breezes** (or, in the case of larger bodies, lake breezes), also known as on- or off-shore winds. Water is a rapid absorber/radiator of heat, whereas land not only absorbs heat more slowly but releases it over a greater period of time. The result is that, in locations where sea and land meet, heat absorbed over the day will be released more quickly by the water. Air contacting water cools. Over the land, heat is still being released into the air, which rises. This convective motion draws the cool sea air in to replace the rising air, resulting in a sea breeze. During

the day, the roles are reversed. The land, cooled from a night of radiation, continues to soak up heat long after the heat capacity of the water has been reached. Warm air over the water rises, pulling cool air from inland to replace it. And so it goes.

Mountain breezes and **valley breezes** are due to a combination of differential heating and geometry. When the sun rises, it is the tops of the mountain peaks which receive first light, and as the day progresses, the mountain slopes take on a greater heat load than the valleys. This results in a temperature inequity between the two, and as warm air rises off the slopes, cool air moves up out of the valleys to replace it. This upslope wind is called a *valley breeze*. The opposite effect takes place in the afternoon, as the valley radiates heat. The peaks, long since cooled, transport air into the valley in a process that is partly gravitational and partly convective and is called a *mountain breeze*.

Mountain breezes are one example of what is known more generally as a Katabatic wind. These are winds driven by cold air flowing down a slope, and occur on the largest scale in Greenland and Antarctica. Most often, this term refers to winds which form when air which has cooled over a high, cold plateau is set in motion and descends under the influence of gravity. Winds of this type are common in regions of Mongolia and in glaciated locations.

Because *katabatic* refers specifically to the vertical motion of the wind, this group also includes winds which form on the lee side of mountains, and heat as a consequence of compression. Such winds may undergo a temperature increase of 20°C or more, and many of the world's "named" winds (see list below) belong to this group. Among the most well-known of these winds are the chinook of Western Canada and the American Northwest, the Swiss foehn, **California's** infamous Santa Ana wind, and the Spanish mistral.

The opposite of a katabatic wind is an **anabatic wind**, or an upward-moving wind. The above-described *valley breeze* is an anabatic wind.

A widely-used term, though one not formally recognised by meteorologists, is *orographic wind*. This refers to air which undergoes **orographic** lifting. Most often, this is in the context of winds such as the chinook or the foehn, which undergo lifting by mountain ranges before descending and warming on the lee side.

Text 3. Lightning facts

A bolt of lightning can reach temperatures approaching 28,000 kelvin (or about 50,000 degrees Fahrenheit) in a split second. This is many times hotter than the surface of the **sun**. The heat of lightning which strikes loose soil or sandy regions of the ground may fuse the soil or sand into channels called fulgurites. These are sometimes found under the sandy surfaces of beaches and golf courses, or in desert regions. **Fulgarites** are evidence that lightning spreads out into branching channels when it strikes the ground.

Trees are frequent conductors of lighting to the ground. Since sap is a poor **conductor**, its electrical resistance causes it to be heated explosively into steam, which blows off the bark outside the **lightning's** path. In following seasons trees overgrow the damaged area and may cover it completely, leaving only a vertical scar. If the damage is severe, the tree may not be able to recover, and decay sets in, eventually killing the tree. It is commonly thought that a tree standing alone is more frequently struck, though in some forest areas, lightning scars can be seen on almost every tree.

Nearly 2000 persons per year in the world are injured by lightning strikes, and between 1/4th and 1/3rd of those struck die. Lightning injuries result from three factors: electrical damage, intense heat, and the mechanical energy which these generate. While sudden death is common due to the huge voltage of a lightning strike, survivors often fare better than victims of other electrical injuries which result in a more prolonged application of lesser voltage.

People may be hit in several different ways. In a *direct hit* the electrical charge strikes the victim first. **Paradoxically**, if the **victim's** skin resistance is high enough, much of the current will *flash* around the skin or clothing to the ground, resulting in a surprisingly benign outcome. *Splash* hits occur when lightning effectively bounces off a nearby object and strikes the victim en route to ground. *Ground* stikes, in which the bolt lands near the victim and is conducted through the victim via his grounded feet or other body part, can cause great damage.

The most critical injuries are to the circulatory system, the lungs, and the central nervous system. Many victims suffer immediate cardiac arrest and will not survive without prompt emergency care, which, it is worth noting, is safe to administer, due to the fact that the victim will not retain any electrical charge after the lightning has struck. (Of course, the helper could be struck by a separate bolt of lightning in the vicinity.) Others incur

myocardial infarction and various cardiac arrhythmias, either of which can be rapidly fatal as well. The intense heat generated by a lightning strike can cause lung damage, and the chest can be damaged by the mechanical force of rapidly expanding heated air. Either the electrical or the mechanical force can result in loss of **consciousness**, which is very common immediately after a strike. Amnesia and confusion of varying duration often result as well. A complete physical examination by paramedics or physicians may reveal ruptured eardrums, and ocular cataracts may develop, sometimes more than a year after an otherwise uneventful recovery.

Lightning is responsible for approximately 100 deaths a year in the United States alone. Lightning ranks second only to floods for storm related casualties in the U.S. every year. Many of these deaths could be prevented if basic precautions were taken when thunderstorms are expected in an area. Listening to a radio to keep up to date on storms in the area is the first step in lightning safety.

One way to prepare is to install a *lightning conductor* (or, lightning rod) for preventing lightning damage to a building. A lightning conductor is a metal spike that is connected to earth by a low-resistance path. Should lightning strike a building, the current will travel through the conductor rather than through the fabric of the building, causing less damage.

Electrical equipment can be protected from lightning by a *lightning arrester*, a device that contains one or more gas-filled spark gaps between the equipment's cables and earth. Should lightning strike one of the cables, the high voltage will cause the gas in the spark gap to break down and become a conductor, providing a path for the lightning to reach the ground without passing through the equipment.

No place is 100% safe in a thunderstorm, but some are more safe than others. Larger, better constructed structures are better than smaller or more open structures. Fully enclosed metal vehicles with the windows rolled up are good shelters, providing that no contact is made with any exposed metal inside or outside the vehicle.

When outside, avoid the following:

- High places and open fields
- isolated trees
- unprotected gazebos
- rain or picnic shelters
- baseball dugouts

- communications towers
- flagpoles
- light poles
- bleachers (stadium seating) (metal or wood)
- metal fences
- open top vehicles such as convertibles, tractors (contrary to myth, rubber tires are not protective)
- golf carts
- water (ocean, lakes, swimming pools, rivers, etc.).
- metal-shafted or conductive umbrellas, golf clubs, baseball bats, shovels, or fishing rods.

If you find yourself trapped in an open area during a storm, position yourself close to the ground by squatting with your feet close together and on the balls of your feet. Crouch in a ditch if possible. Avoid proximity to other people (minimum 5 meters or 15 feet). Since lightning spreads when it hits the ground, you want to minimize as much contact area between you and the ground. Remember, humans are good conductors of electricity, and lightning tends to strike the highest thing in an area, because electricity will always take the path of least resistance.

Lone tall trees are particularly dangerous; cattle often seek shelter under trees during a thunderstorm and are frequently killed by strikes.

When inside avoid the following:

- Use of the telephone (cellular and cordless telephone use is safe)
- taking a shower or bath
- washing your hands
- doing dishes

(basically anything to do with water)

- any contact with conductive surfaces with exposure to the outside such as metal door or window frames, electrical wiring, telephone wiring, cable TV wiring, plumbing, etc.
- using electrical appliances that plug into the wall.

Text 4. Thunderstorm

A **thunderstorm** is a form of severe weather **characterized** by the presence of lightning and its attendant thunder. It is often accompanied by copious rainfall, **or**, on occasion, **snowfall**.

Thunderstorms form when significant condensation, resulting in the production of a wide range of water droplets and ice crystals, occurs in an atmosphere that is unstable and supports deep, rapid upward motion. This often occurs in the presence of three conditions: sufficient moisture accumulated in the lower atmosphere, reflected by high dewpoint temperatures; a significant fall in air temperature with increasing height, known as a steep lapse rate; and a force such as mechanical convergence along a cold front that will focus the lift.

Thunderstorms have had a lasting and powerful influence on mankind. Romans thought them to be battles waged by Jupiter, who hurled lightning bolts forged by Vulcan. Thunderstorms were associated with the **Thunderbird**, held by Native Americans to be a servant of the Great Spirit. In more contemporary times, thunderstorms now have taken on the role of a curiosity. Every spring, storm chasers head to the Great Plains to explore the visual and scientific aspects of storms and tornadoes.

A given cell of a thunderstorm goes through three stages: the *cumulus stage*, the *mature stage*, and the *dissipation stage*. This **life** cycle was identified in 1949 as the result of the U.S. Weather **Bureau's** landmark *Thunderstorm Project*.

In the *cumulus stage* of a thunderstorm cell, masses of moisture are pushed upwards; the moisture rapidly cools into liquid drops of **water vapor**, which appears as *cumulus* clouds. Not only are the masses of water vapor warmer than the surrounding air, but water vapor is less dense than dry air, and for both of these reasons the warm humid air will tend to rise in an *updraft* due to the process of convection. This creates a low-pressure zone beneath the forming thunderstorm. In a typical thunderstorm, some 5×10^8 kg of water vapor are **lifted** and the amount of energy released when this condenses is about equal to the energy used by a city (US-2002) of 100,000 over a month.

In the *mature stage*, the accumulated water vapor has become large, with the top layer often spreading out into an *anvil* formation. The resulting cloud is called *cumulonimbus*. The water vapor will coalesce into heavy droplets and ice particles, which will fall onto the area below as rain. If temperatures in the upper atmosphere are cold enough, some of these

droplets may actually form into masses of ice and fall as hail. While **updrafts** are still present, the falling rain creates *downdrafts* as well. The presence of both updrafts and **downdrafts** during this stage can cause considerable internal turbulence in the storm system, which sometimes manifests as strong winds, severe lightning, and even tornadoes.

Finally, in the *dissipation stage*, updraft conditions no longer exist, and the storm is **characterized** largely by weak downdrafts. Because most of the moisture has precipitated out as rain or ice (*precipitation*) there is no longer sufficient moisture in the lower air to sustain the cycle.

Thunderstorms are often **classified** into a spectrum based on their cell structure: single cells, **multicellular** storms, and supercells. The type of storm depends on the instability and relative wind conditions at different layers of the atmosphere (*shear*).

The *single-cell* (unicell) thunderstorm is the singular three-stage situation as described above, usually lasting about 30 minutes from the start of significant precipitation. A severe unicell storm is often referred to as a *pulse thunderstorm*. The life cycle of the storm usually takes place within a one-hour span.

In a *multicell* thunderstorm, several thunderstorm cells merge into a larger system. The cloud becomes divided into updraft and downdraft regions separated by a *gust front*. The gust front may extend for several miles ahead of the storm, bringing with it increases in wind speed and atmospheric pressure, decreases in temperature, and shifts in wind direction. The storm itself will have different portions sequentially going through the various thunderstorm stages. In many cases the immature cells develop along a line known as a *flanking line*, resulting in what is known as a line multicell.

The supercell is the most dangerous type of thunderstorm, as it typically contains violent gusts of wind, large hail, and damaging tornadoes. It is caused by strong instability or strong helicity in the flow feeding the storm. The supercell possesses a **mesocyclone**, the results of which are strong vertical shear, **differences** in wind speed at different layers and separate updraft and downdraft regions, with the effect being that the storm will both last longer and continue to grow larger and more dangerous.

In a thunderstorm, the **Earth's** Coriolis effect can twist the huge vertical motions of air and moisture into horizontal rotation - a vortex - which can result in tornadoes in larger thunderstorms.

Geographic features (such as mountain ranges) or linear boundaries (such as warm or cold fronts) may create *lines* of thunderstorms which move across the landscape. A special case of this is the *squall line*, which usually occurs in the warm sector of a cyclone. The squall line is propelled by its own **outflow**, which reinforces continuous development of **updrafts** along the leading edge.

Multicell or squall line systems may form a meteorologically-important feature known as *mesoscale convective system* (MCS) stretching for hundreds of miles. They are large enough to have a pronounced effect on the upper-level and surface weather pattern, and may influence forecasts over half of a continent. MCS systems are common in the Midwest region of the United States during the summer months and produce much of the **region's** important agricultural rainfall.

Text 5. Wind

Wind, in the most general sense, is the movement of air. It occurs at all scales, from local breezes generated by heating of land surfaces and lasting tens of minutes to global winds resulting from solar heating of the Earth, lasting eons. The two major influences on the atmospheric circulation are the differential heating between the equator and the poles, and the rotation of the planet (**Coriolis** effect). Because of differential heating and the fact that warm air rises and cool air falls, there arise circulations that (on a non-rotating planet) would lead to an equator-to-pole flow in the upper atmosphere and an pole-to-equator flow at lower levels. Because of the **Earth's** rotation, this simple situation is vastly modified in the real atmosphere. In almost all circumstances the horizontal component of the wind is much larger than the vertical - the exception being violent convection.

Given a difference in barometric pressure between two air masses, a wind will arise between the two which tends to flow from the area of high pressure to the area of low pressure until the two air masses are at the same pressure, although this will be strongly modified by the Coriolis effect.

While all winds are the movement of air more or less parallel to the Earth's surface, they come in a variety of forms. There are global winds, such as the wind belts which exist between the atmospheric circulation cells. There are upper-level winds, such as the jet streams. There are synoptic winds that result from pressure differences in surface **airmasses** at the middle latitudes, and there are winds that come about as a consequence of geographic

features such as oceans, lakes, mountains, and deserts. Mesoscale winds are those which act on a local scale, such as gust fronts. At the smallest scale are the winds which blow on a scale of only tens to hundreds of metres and are essentially **unpredictable**, such as dust devils and microbursts. Finally, there are special-case winds that come about as a consequence of local geography.

Wind can also shape **landforms**, via a variety of eolian processes.

Global winds are winds which come about as a consequence of global circulation patterns. These include the Trade Winds, the Westerlies, the Polar Easterlies, and the jet streams.

The *Trade Winds* are the most familiar consistent and reliable winds on the planet, exceeded in constancy only by the katabatic winds of the major ice sheets of Antarctica and Greenland. It was these winds that early mariners relied upon to propel their ships from Europe to North and South America. Their name derives from the Old English '**trade**', meaning "path" or "**track**," and thus the phrase "the wind blows trade," that is to say, on track.

The Trades form under the Hadley circulation cell, and are part of the return flow for this cell. The Hadley carries air aloft at the equator and transports it poleward north and south. At about 30°N/S latitude, the air cools and descends. It then begins its journey back to the equator, but with a noticeably westward shift as a result of the action of the **Coriolis** force.

Along the east coast of North **America**, friction twists the flow of the Trades even further clockwise. The result is that the Trades feed into the Westerlies, and thus provide a continuous zone of wind for ships travelling between Europe and the Americas.

The *Westerlies*, which can be found at the mid-latitudes beneath the **Ferrel** circulation cell, likewise arise from the tendency of winds to move in a curved path on a rotating planet. Together with the airflow in the Ferrel cell, poleward at ground level and tending to equatorial aloft (though not clearly defined, particularly in the winter), this predisposes the formation of eddy currents which maintain a **more-or-less** continuous flow of westerly air. The upper-level polar jet stream assists by providing a path of least resistance under which low pressure areas may travel.

The *Polar Easterlies* result from the outflow of the Polar high, a permanent body of descending cold air which makes up the poleward end of the Polar circulation cell. These

winds, though persistent, are not deep. However, they are cool and strong, and can combine with warm, moist Gulf Stream air transported northward by weather systems to produce violent thunderstorms and tornadoes as far as 60°N on the North American continent.

The *jet streams* are rapidly moving upper-level currents. Travelling generally eastward in the **tropopause**, the polar jets reside at the juncture of the **Ferrel** cell and the Polar cell and mark the location of the polar cold front. During winter, a second jet stream forms at about the 30th parallel, at the interface of the Hadley and Ferrel cells, as a result of the contrast in temperature between tropical air and continental polar air.

The jet streams are not continuous, and fade in and out along their paths as they speed up and slow down. Though they move generally eastward, they may range significantly north and south. The polar jet stream also marks the presence of Rossby waves, long-scale (4000 - 6000 km in wavelength) harmonic waves which perpetuate around the globe.

TOPIC 11. HOLIDAYS, CELEBRATIONS, CUSTOMS, TRADITIONS

Text 1. Christmas

An enormous number of customs, with either secular, religious, or national **aspects**, surround Christmas, and vary from country to country. Most of the familiar traditional practices and symbols of Christmas, such as the Christmas tree, the Christmas ham, the Yule Log, holly, mistletoe, and the giving of presents, were adapted or appropriated by Christian missionaries from the earlier **Asatru** pagan midwinter holiday of Yule. This celebration of the winter solstice was widespread and popular in northern Europe **long** before the arrival of Christianity, and the word for Christmas in the Scandinavian languages is still today the pagan *jul* (=yule). The Christmas tree per se is believed to have first been used in Germany.

Rather than attempting to suppress such popular pagan feast days, Pope Gregory I allowed Christian missionaries to give them a Christian **reinterpretation**, while permitting most of the associated customs to continue with little or no **modification**.⁷ The give and take between religious and governmental authorities and **celebrators** of Christmas continued through the years. Places where conservative Christian theocracies flourished, as in **Cromwellian** England and in the early New England colonies, were among those where celebrations were **suppressed**.³ After the Russian Revolution, Christmas celebrations were banned in the Soviet Union for the next seventy five years. A few present day Christian churches, notably the Jehovah's Witnesses, some Puritan groups, and some ultra-conservative fundamentalist denominations, still view Christmas as a pagan holiday not sanctioned by the Bible, and do not celebrate it.

Since the customs of Christmas celebration largely evolved in Northern Europe, many are associated with the Northern Hemisphere winter, whose motifs are prominent in Christmas decorations **and** in the Santa Claus myth.

Gift-giving is a near-universal part of Christmas celebrations. The concept of a mythical figure who brings gifts to children derives from Saint **Nicholas**, a good hearted bishop of 4th century Asia Minor. The Dutch modeled a gift-giving Saint Nicholas around his feast day of December 6. In North America, English colonists adopted aspects of this celebration into their Christmas **holiday**, and Sinterklaas became Santa Claus, or *Saint Nick*. In the Anglo-American tradition, this jovial fellow arrives on Christmas Eve on a sleigh.

pulled by reindeer, climbs down the chimney, leaves gifts for the children, and eats the food they leave for him. He spends the rest of the year making toys and keeping lists on the behavior of the children.

The French equivalent of Santa, **Père** Noel, evolved along similar lines, his red and white clothing inspired by the Coca-Cola commercial drawings of Santa which spread worldwide in the 1930s. In some cultures Santa **Claus** is accompanied by Knecht Ruprecht, or *Black Peter*. In some versions, elves in a toy workshop make the holiday toys, and in some he is married to Mrs. Claus. Many shopping malls in North America and the United Kingdom have a holiday **mall** Santa Claus whom children can visit to ask for presents.

In many countries, children leave empty containers for Santa to fill with small gifts such as toys, candy, or fruit. In the United States, children hang a Christmas stocking by the fireplace on Christmas Eve, because Santa is said to come down the chimney the night before Christmas to fill them. In other countries, children place their empty shoes out for Santa to fill on the night before Christmas, or for Saint Nicholas on December 5. Gift giving is not restricted to these special **gift-bringers**, as family members and friends also bestow gifts on each other.

In many countries, Saint Nicholas Day (December 6) remains the principal day for gift giving. In much of Germany, children put shoes out on window sills on the night of December 5, and find them filled with candy and small gifts the next morning. In such places, including the Netherlands, Christmas day remains more a religious holiday. In Spain, and in countries with similar **traditions**, gifts are brought by the Magi, fortune tellers and priests of a pagan religion, at Epiphany on 6 January.

One of the many customs of gift timing is suggested by the song *Twelve Days of Christmas*, celebrating an old British tradition of gifts each day from Christmas to Epiphany. In most of the world, Christmas gifts are given at night on Christmas Eve (24 December) or in the morning on Christmas Day. Until the recent past, gifts were given in the UK to non-family members on Boxing Day, 26 December.

Christmas cards are extremely popular in the United States and Europe, in part as a way to maintain relationships with distant relatives and friends, and with business acquaintances. Many families enclose an annual family photograph with the card, **and/or** a family newsletter which summarizes the adventures and accomplishments of family members during the preceding year.

Decorating a Christmas tree with Christmas lights and Christmas ornaments, and the decoration of the interior of the home with garlands and evergreen foliage, particularly holly and mistletoe, are common traditions. In North and South America and to a lesser extent Europe, it is traditional to decorate the outside of houses with lights, and sometimes with illuminated sleighs, snowmen, and other Christmas figures.

The traditional Christmas flower is the **poinsettia**. Other popular holiday plants are holly, red **amaryllis** and Christmas cactus.

Municipalities often sponsor decorations as well, hanging Christmas banners from street lights or placing Christmas trees in the town square. In the United States, decorations once commonly included religious themes. This practice has led to much adjudication, as opponents insist that it amounts to the government endorsing one particular religious faith.

In many countries, businesses, schools, and communities have Christmas parties and dances. These often take place during the several weeks before Christmas Day. Some groups put on Christmas pageants, which may or may not include a retelling of the story of the birth of Christ. Such enactments are especially common in Latin America. Groups also may go out *carolling*, visiting neighborhood homes to sing Christmas songs. Others are reminded by the holiday of **man's** fellowship with man, and do extra volunteer work, or hold **fundraising** drives for charities.

On Christmas Day or on Christmas Eve, a special meal of Christmas dishes is usually served, for which there are traditional menus in each country. In some regions, particularly in Eastern Europe, these family feasts are preceded by a period of fasting. Candy and treats are also part of the Christmas celebration in many countries.

Text 2. Regional customs and celebrations

Northern Europe

In Germany and the Netherlands, celebration of Saint Nicholas Day on December 6th resembles the Christmas of the English-speaking world. The Dutch *Sinterklaasavond* (St. Nicholas evening) is more important than Christmas, although in recent years, some Dutch have started to celebrate Christmas Eve with Santa as well.

Sinterklaas, based on the real Saint Nicholas and from whom the English and American Santa evolved, brings presents on the evening of December 5 to every child who has been good. He wears a red bishop's dress with a red mitre, rides a white horse over the

rooftops, and is assisted by many mischievous helpers called '**zwarte Pieten**' (black Peters). In some parts of Germany, Austria, and Switzerland, this frightening Knecht Ruprecht also appears, to the chagrin of many children.

In Germany, Christmas traditions vary by region. Following Saint Nicholas Day, which is mostly for children, the actual Christmas gift-giving usually takes place on the night of Christmas eve, with gifts put under the Christmas tree after a simple meal. The culinary feast typically takes place at lunch on Dec. 25, and usually involves poultry (typically roast goose). The gifts may be brought by the *Weihnachtsmann*, who resembles St. Nicholas, or by the *Christkind*, a sprite-like child who may or may not represent the baby Jesus. Commercially, the **Striezelmarkt** is arguably a worldwide Christmas gift production center, boasting the specialties of the Dresden region, from ceramics and prints to various delicacies which are shipped worldwide.

In Sweden, businesses traditionally invite their employees to a Christmas **smurgesbordlunch** (the **julbord** or **jullunch**) in the weeks before Christmas. In recognition of the threat of holiday food **poisoning**, Swedish newspapers traditionally run seasonal laboratory tests of restaurant **jullunches**, warning of the danger of cold meats and mayonnaise left out at room temperature. Christmas is as everywhere a holiday of food, with the central Christmas feast focused on baked ham, but there are wide regional variations as to what day it is best served. The most entrenched and nationally unifying Swedish Christmas custom is perhaps that of watching a Disney special at 3 PM on Christmas Eve.

The Norwegian Christmas celebration begins with feasting on Dec. 24, followed by a visit by "**Julenissen**", who brings gifts to children who have behaved. After a quiet Dec. 25, another large celebration follows on Boxing Day, when children may go door to door to receive treats and money from neighbors. **Joulupukki** (or *Christmas Goat*) is the Finnish Santa Claus. He travels with a sleigh and reindeer to deliver gifts to good children.

Eastern Europe and Russia

In Eastern Europe, Slavic countries have the tradition of Ded Moroz ("Grandfather Frost.") According to legend, he travels in a magical *troika*, a decorated sleigh drawn by three horses, and delivers gifts to children. He is thought to descend more from Santa Claus than from Saint Nicholas.

Christmas celebration in Russia has been revived since 1992, after decades of suppression by the communist government. It is centered around the Christmas Eve "Holy Supper", which consists of twelve servings, one to honor each of Jesus' apostles. The Russian traditions were largely kept alive by shifting some of them, including the visit by gift-giving "Grandfather Frost" and his "Snowmaiden", to New Year's Day. Many current Russian Christmas customs, including their Christmas tree, or "yolka", were brought by Peter the Great, after his western travels in the late 18th century.

In Poland, Christmas Eve is a day first of fasting, then of feasting. The feast begins with the appearance of the first star, and is followed by the exchange of gifts. The following day is often spent visiting friends.

United Kingdom

Christmas crackers form an integral part of Christmas celebrations, and the Christmas pantomime is popular with young families. The festival of Nine Lessons and Carols at Cambridge is a popular religious programme. Every year since 1947 the city of Oslo has presented the people of Britain with the gift of a spruce tree as a token of appreciation for British support of Norway during the Second World War. The tree stands in Trafalgar Square and is the most famous Christmas tree in Britain.

North America

In the United States and Canada, the Santa Claus traditions are essentially the same, except in Quebec, where the French offshoot of Santa Claus, Pere Noel, may appear. The Christmas tree and skating rink at Rockefeller Center in New York City, and the White House Christmas decorations are important parts of the national Christmas celebration in the U.S. Also, NORAD "tracks" Santa Claus' global transit each year, to wide attention by the mass media.

The focus of secular Christmas in Mexico is the *posada*. Over a nine day period, groups of townspeople go from door to door, in a fashion reminiscent of visitors to the baby Jesus, and are periodically called inside homes to participate in the breaking of a gift-filled *picata*.

South America

Religious themes predominate in Christmas celebrations in heavily-Catholic South America. The secular customs and gift-giving in these countries are an admixture of

traditions handed down from European and Native American forebears, plus the increasing influence of American culture.

Gift giving traditions include "El Nico Jesus" (Baby Jesus) who brings gifts to children in Colombia, Chile's "Viejo Pasquero" (Old Man Christmas), and Brazil's "Papai Noel", the latter two resembling Santa Claus in many ways. South American "Santas" dress more lightly in keeping with the warmer Christmas there, and have adopted a number of means, from ladders to trampolines, to enter homes at night. Gift giving in Argentina occurs on January 6, their "Three Kings Day", when children leave shoes under their beds to be filled with snacks or small gifts by the Magi, who stop off on their way to Bethlehem.

Nativity scenes are a strong feature of South American **Christmas**, both in homes and in public places. In regions with large numbers of Native American descendants, such as Peru, the figures are often hand-carved in a centuries-old style. As in Mexico, village processions acting out the events surrounding the birth of Christ are also common. Family Christmas meals are very important, and their contents are as varied as the number of countries on the continent. Christmas lights are a near-universal holiday feature, and with the summery weather, fireworks displays are also found, especially over the cities of Brazil.

Asia

In China, December 25 is the date of the signing of the Constitution of the Republic of China in 1947. The official holiday on that date is largely treated as if it were Christmas. Japan has largely adopted the western Santa Claus for its secular Christmas celebration, but their New Year's Day is the more important holiday. In India, most educational institutions have a Christmas vacation, beginning shortly before Christmas and ending a few days after New Year's Day. Christmas is also known as *bada din* (the big day) in Hindi, and revolves there around Santa Claus and shopping.

The Philippines has earned the distinction of celebrating the world's longest Christmas season. Traditionally, Christmas Day in the Philippines is ushered in by the nine-day dawn masses that start on Dec. 16. Known as the Misas de Aguinaldo (Gift Masses) in the traditional Spanish, these masses are more popularly known in Filipino as the Simbang Gabi. Christmas Eve on Dec. 24 is the much-anticipated "**noche buena**" — the traditional Christmas feast after the midnight mass. Family members dine together on traditional noche buena fare, which includes the queso de bola ("ball of cheese", usually **edam**) and **hamon** (Christmas ham).

Japanese New Year

In ancient times, the Japanese New Year (正月 *shōgatsu*) followed the same lunisolar calendar as Chinese or Korean New Year (at the beginning of spring). Today, January 1st is fixed as New Year's Day for Japan. It is one of the most important festivals of the whole year. New Year's Day is a traditional festival which has been celebrated for centuries and has its own unique customs.

Text 3. New Year

The New Year is an event that happens when a culture celebrates the end of one year and the beginning of the next. Cultures that measure yearly calendars all have New Year celebrations.

The most common modern celebrations are:

- January 1: Western cultures that start a year with January.

In the United States, cultural images include an old Father Time with a sash proclaiming the Old Year leaving as an infant with a sash proclaiming the New Year enters.

In New York City, the world famous 1,070-pound, 6-foot-diameter Waterford crystal ball located high above Times Square is lowered starting at 11:59 PM and reaches the bottom of its tower at the stroke of midnight on January 1. It is sometimes referred to as "the big apple" like the city itself; the custom derives from the time signal that used to be given at noon in harbors.

In Pasadena, California, the Tournament of Roses is held on New Year's Day with nearly a million revelers viewing the parade from the streets, with millions more around the world watching on television, followed by the Rose Bowl.

In Scotland, there are many special customs associated with the New Year. For more information, see the entry on *Hogmanay*, the **Scots'** name for the New Year celebration.

In The Netherlands and some other European countries, the New Year is greeted with massive private fireworks. The custom may have been imported by Chinese immigrants in the early 20th century. However, fireworks have long been part of the European celebration of major events, so this may not be so. This day is also the occasion to make bonfires of discarded Christmas trees in some countries.

- Rosh Hashanah (Hebrew for 'head of the year') is a celebration that occurs 163 days following Pesach (Passover). In the Gregorian calendar at present, Rosh Hashanah cannot

occur before September 5, when it occurred in 1899 and will occur again in 2013. After the year 2089, the differences between the Hebrew Calendar and the Gregorian Calendar will force Rosh Hashanah to be not earlier than September 6. Rosh Hashanah cannot occur later than October 5, when it occurred in 1967 and will again occur in 2043.

- The Chinese New Year is generally celebrated with fire-crackers, and in some places with a parade. It falls at a new moon during the (Chinese) winter, i.e. the end of January or beginning of February.
- The Telugu New Year generally falls in the months of March or April. The people of Andhra Pradesh, India celebrate the advent of Lunar year this day.
- The Thai New Year is celebrated from April 3 to April 5 by throwing water.
- The Vietnamese New Year is the Tết Nguyen Dan. It is celebrated on the same day as Chinese New Year.

Text 4. Ancient Origins of Halloween

Halloween's origins date back to the ancient Celtic festival of Samhain (pronounced "sow-in"). The Celts, who lived 2,000 years ago in the area that is now Ireland, the United Kingdom, and northern France, celebrated their new year on November 1. This day marked the end of summer and the harvest and the beginning of the dark, cold winter, a time of year that was often associated with human death. Celts believed that on the night before the new year, the boundary between the worlds of the living and the dead became blurred. On the night of October 31, they celebrated Samhain, when it was believed that the ghosts of the dead returned to earth. In addition to causing trouble and damaging crops, Celts thought that the presence of the otherworldly spirits made it easier for the Druids, or Celtic priests, to make predictions about the future. For a people entirely dependent on the volatile natural world, these prophecies were an important source of comfort and direction during the long, dark winter.

To commemorate the event, Druids built huge sacred bonfires, where the people gathered to burn crops and animals as sacrifices to the Celtic deities.

During the celebration, the Celts wore costumes, typically consisting of animal heads and skins, and attempted to tell each other's fortunes. When the celebration was over, they re-lit their hearth fires, which they had extinguished earlier that evening, from the sacred bonfire to help protect them during the coming winter. By A.D. 43, Romans had conquered

the majority of Celtic territory. In the course of the four hundred years that they ruled the Celtic lands, two festivals of Roman origin were combined with the traditional Celtic celebration of **Samhain**.

The first was **Feralia**, a day in late October when the Romans traditionally commemorated the passing of the dead. The second was a day to honor Pomona, the Roman goddess of fruit and trees. The symbol of Pomona is the apple and the incorporation of this celebration into Samhain probably explains the tradition of "bobbing" for apples that is practiced today on Halloween,

By the 800s, the influence of Christianity had spread into Celtic lands. In the seventh century, Pope Boniface IV designated November 1 All **Saints'** Day, a time to honor saints and martyrs. It is widely believed today that the pope was attempting to replace the Celtic festival of the dead with a related, but church-sanctioned holiday. The celebration was also called All-hallows or **All-hallowmas** (from Middle English **Alholowmesse** meaning All **Saints'** Day) and the night before it, the night of Samhain, began to be called All-hallows Eve and, eventually, Halloween. Even later, in A.D. 1000, the church would make November 2 All **Souls'** Day, a day to honor the dead. It was celebrated similarly to Samhain, with big bonfires, parades, and dressing up in costumes as saints, angels, and devils. Together, the three celebrations, the eve of All Saints', All **Saints'**, and All Souls', were called Hallowmas.

Text 5.

Recipe: Holiday Turkey

The Stuffing:

2 (6-ounce) packages stuffing mix, any style, 1 cup finely chopped onion, 1 cup finely chopped celery, 1/2 cup chopped nuts (optional), 1/2 cup chopped dried fruits (dates, raisins, apricots, etc.), 1 cup melted butter, 1 to 1 1/2 cups chicken broth, fruit juice or water

The Turkey:

1 (14-pound) turkey, 1 tablespoon Kosher or coarse salt, 1 teaspoon freshly ground pepper to taste, 1/2 teaspoon garlic powder, 1 large-sized oven roasting bag (for turkeys), 1 tablespoon all-purpose flour, 2 stalks celery, washed, bottoms trimmed, 1 medium onion (peeled and halved), 2 carrots, pared and cut in half lengthwise, 1/2 cup butter, melted

The Gravy (recipe follows)

1. To prepare stuffing, combine the stuffing mix with the onion, celery, nuts and fruits. Add the melted butter and toss to coat. Gradually stir in the chicken broth, blending lightly. The texture of the stuffing may be varied by using more liquid for moister stuffing, and less liquid for drier. Be careful not to add too much liquid or it will become heavy and soggy.
2. Preheat oven to **350°F (175°C)**. (Or, if not using an oven bag, 325°F - 160°C.)
3. To prepare turkey, remove the drumsticks from their plastic holder (if it came with one), reserving it to be used later. Remove giblets and neck from cavity of the turkey and discard or use as you wish, (See notes.) Rinse the turkey thoroughly inside and out, making sure to remove any feathers and quill tips left in the skin. Thoroughly pat dry, inside and out.
4. Combine the salt, pepper and garlic powder in a cup or small bowl and sprinkle the the turkey inside and out,
5. Spoon about 6 to 7 cups prepared stuffing into the bird, being careful not to pack it in too tightly. The stuffing expands while it cooks, and will need room to do so. (Place any remaining stuffing in a greased 1 1/2-quart baking dish; cover and refrigerate.) Skewer openings; tie drumsticks together with kitchen string or **unwaxed** floss (or place the drumsticks back into the plastic holder).
6. Place 1 tablespoon of flour into the oven bag and shake to thoroughly coat the inside of bag with flour. Allow excess flour to remain in bag. Place the bag into a large roasting pan. (If you use a disposable aluminum pan, be sure to use a large baking sheet for additional support.) Place the prepared vegetables in the bag to form a bed for the turkey to be placed on.
7. Place the stuffed turkey into the prepared roasting bag on top of the bed of vegetables. It will probably help to have an extra pair of hands **here...call** for assistance! Drizzle the melted butter over the top of the turkey, distributing evenly. Seal the oven bag with the specially provided bag-tie. Carefully make several slits in the *top* of the bag to vent and allow hot air to escape. Insert a meat thermometer (some birds come with a pop-up device that is not always accurate) through the bag into the meatiest part of the thigh area,

being careful not to allow the thermometer to touch bone. (You may get a false reading if you do.)

8. Roast turkey until meat thermometer reads 180°F (80°C), about 2 1/2 to 3 hours for a 12 to 14-pound turkey. Reduce the cooking time by a 1/2 hour if the turkey is not stuffed. No basting is required using the roasting bag. (Bake reserved stuffing, covered, for 30 minutes; uncover and bake 10 minutes more.)

9. When done, remove turkey from oven. With assistance, carefully drain the juices into a very large measuring device or bowl. (If you like, you may puree the bed of cooked vegetables and add to the gravy for additional **flavor**, or use as you prefer.) Prepare the gravy while the turkey is allowed to stand for at least 15 minutes before carving. Spoon the stuffing into a serving bowl and keep warm.

The Gravy:

1. Measure the reserved juices and add enough chicken broth to to make an even amount of liquid. For each cup of liquid, you will need 1 tablespoon of butter and 1 1/2 tablespoons of flour for medium-thick gravy (see note). For example, if you have 6 cups of broth, you will need 6 tablespoons butter and 9 tablespoons (1/2 cup plus 1 tablespoon) flour.

2. In a large saucepan, melt butter over medium heat; add flour and cook, stirring constantly, for 1 to 2 minutes (this is a **roux**).

3. Slowly pour the warm **juices/broth** mixture into the flour mixture, stirring constantly. Bring to a boil and cook until thickened. Season with salt and pepper to taste.

Makes 28 servings.

Cooking Notes:

As an option, you can place the giblets and neck in a saucepan, add enough water to cover, bring to a boil and simmer, covered, for about 20 minutes or until done. Remove meat from neck bones, chop giblets and add to the **stuffing** or gravy. Use the cooled broth in place of the chicken broth when preparing the stuffing. Per 1 cup of liquid, use 1 tablespoon flour for thin gravy, 1 1/2 tablespoons for medium-thick gravy and 2 tablespoons for thick gravy.

TOPIC 12. MONEY MATTERS, SHOPPING

Text 1. Supermarket

A **supermarket** is a store that sells a wide variety of goods including food and alcohol, medicine, clothes, and other household products that are consumed regularly. It is often part of a chain that owns or controls (sometimes by franchise) other supermarkets located in the same or other towns; this increases the opportunities for economies of scale.

Supermarkets usually offer products at low prices by reducing margins. To maintain a profit supermarkets attempt to make up for the low margins with a high volume of sales. Customers usually shop by putting their products into trolleys (shopping carts) or baskets (self-service) and pay for the products at the check-out. At present, many supermarket chains are trying to reduce labour costs (and thus margins) further by shifting to self-service check-out machines, where a group of four or **five** machines is supervised by a single assistant.

A larger full-service supermarket combined with a department store is known as a hypermarket. Other services that supermarkets may have include **cafés**, creches, photo development, pharmacies, **and/or** petrol stations.

Early retailers did not trust their customers. In many stores, all products had to be fetched by an assistant from high shelves on one side of a counter while the customer stood on the other side and pointed to what they wanted. This was obviously labour-intensive and quite expensive.

The concept of a self-service grocery store was developed by Clarence **Saunders** and his Piggly **Wiggly** stores, and A&P was the most successful of the early chains, having become common in American cities in the 1920s. The general trend in retail since then has been to stack shelves at night and let the customer get their own goods and bring them to the front of the store to pay for them. Although there is a higher risk of shoplifting, the costs of appropriate security measures will be ideally outweighed by the economies of scale and reduced labour costs.

The first true supermarket was opened by ex-Kroger employee Michael J. Cullen, in 1930 in a 6,000 square foot (560 **ml**) former garage in Jamaica, Queens, New York. The store, titled King Kullen, following King Kong, operated under the slogan "Pile it high. Sell it low." When Cullen died in 1936, there were fifteen stores in operation.

Supermarkets proliferated along with suburban areas after World War II. Supermarkets in the USA are now often **co-located** with department stores in strip malls and are generally regional rather than national. Kroger is probably the closest thing in the U.S. to a national chain but has preserved most of its regional brands like Ralphs.

It was formerly common for supermarkets to give trading stamps.

In Britain, Denmark and other European countries the proliferation of out-of-town supermarkets has been blamed for the disappearance of smaller, local grocery stores and for increased dependency on the motor car.

Text 2. Shopping mall

A **shopping mall** is a building or set of buildings that contain stores/shops and have interconnecting walkways that make it easy for people to walk from store to store. The walkways may or may not be enclosed. In the United Kingdom and Australia these are called **shopping centres** or **shopping arcades**.

A **strip mall** is a type of shopping mall where the stores are arranged in a row, with a sidewalk in front. Strip malls are typically developed as a unit and have large parking lots in front. They face major traffic **arterials** and tend to be self-contained with few pedestrian connections to surrounding neighborhoods. In the United Kingdom these are called "retail parks" or "out of town shopping centres", even though they might not be out of town.

The first **enclosed shopping mall** ever built was the **Galleria Vittorio Emmanuele** in Milan, Italy. Many other large cities created similar malls in the late 19th century and early 20th century along similar lines.

In the **late 20th century**, with the rise of the suburb and automobile culture in the **United States**, a new form of mall was created away from city centers. The design is modeled after small town main streets in the USA, but placed entirely indoors. This new generation of mall was pioneered by **Northgate**, located in north Seattle, in 1950, and **Southdale**, located in the Twin Cities suburb of **Edina**, Minnesota, in 1956.

A very large shopping mall is sometimes called a **megamall**. The largest enclosed shopping mall is the West Edmonton Mall in Edmonton, Alberta, Canada. The world's largest shopping complex at one discrete location is the two-mall agglomeration of the Plaza at King of Prussia and the Court at King of Prussia in the Philadelphia suburb of King of Prussia.

Prussia, Pennsylvania. The largest mall in the United States is the Mall of America, located near the Twin Cities in Bloomington, Minnesota.

The Mall of Arabia inside Dubai Land in Dubai, United Arab Emirates, which will open in 2006, will become the largest mall in the world.

Mall can refer to a shopping mall, which is a place where a collection of shops all adjoin a pedestrian area, or an exclusively pedestrian street, that allows shoppers to walk without interference from vehicle traffic. *Mall* is generally used in North America and Australasia to refer to large shopping areas, while the term *arcade* is more often used, especially in Britain, to refer to a narrow pedestrian-only **street**, often covered or between closely spaced buildings. A larger, often only partly covered but exclusively pedestrian shopping area is in Britain also termed a *shopping precinct or pedestrian precinct*.

In recent times, as more modern facilities are built, many early malls have become largely abandoned, due to decreased traffic and tenancy. These dated and deteriorating "*dead malls*" have failed to attract new business and often sit unused for many years until restored, or **demolished**. Unique examples of architecture and urban design, these structures often attract people who explore and photograph them.

Until the mid-1990s, the trend was to build enclosed malls and to renovate older outdoor malls into enclosed ones. Such malls had advantages like temperature control.

Since then, the trend has turned. Now it is fashionable to build open-air malls again, and some enclosed malls have literally been ripped open, such as the Sherman Oaks Galleria.

Text 3. Department store

A **department store** organizes its goods by departments, such as women's clothes, home furnishings, electronics, and the like.

Department stores range from collections of elaborate, fancy shops to practical outlets for ordinary merchandise. They differ from ordinary stores principally because of their size and range of merchandise.

There are a number of classes of department store. Discount stores, such as Kmart, Wal-Mart or Target were sometimes called **junior department stores** in contrast with more full-fledged stores like Sears or Macy's.

Though the **Hudson's Bay Company** of Canada (which began operations in 1670) was the first store with departments, it is not clear when it could be classified as a department store. In Paris in 1838 **Aristide** Boucicaut started the emporium that developed into **Bon Marché** by 1852, the first department store that offered a wide variety of goods in "departments" all under one roof. Goods were sold at a fixed price, with guarantees allowing exchanges and refunds.

In New York City in 1846, Irish-born entrepreneur A.T. Stewart established the prototype of the US department store on the east side of Broadway, between Chambers and Reade Streets. He offered European retail merchandise at set prices on a variety of dry goods, and advertised a policy of providing "free **entrance**" to all potential customers. Though it was clad in white marble to look like a Renaissance palazzo, the **building's** cast iron construction permitted large plate glass windows. In 1862 Stewart built a true department store on a full city block at Broadway and 9th Street, opposite Grace Church, with eight floors and 19 departments of dress goods and furnishing materials, carpets, glass and china, toys and sports equipment, ranged around a central glass-covered **court**. Within a couple of decades, New York's retail center had shifted uptown, forming a stretch of retail shopping from A.T. **Stewart's** as far as 23rd Street, on Broadway and Sixth Avenue, a stretch that was called the "**Ladies' Mile**." **Macy's**, founded as a dry goods store by Rowland Hussey Macy in 1858, Benjamin Altman and Lord & Taylor soon competed with Stewart as New York's first department stores, later followed by **McCreary's** and, in Brooklyn, **Abraham & Strauss**. Many of the grand buildings of the 1880s and 90s **remain**., now put to other uses.

Similar developments were under way in London (with Liberty And Co.) and in Paris (with La **Samaritaine**) and in Chicago, where department stores sprang up along Michigan Avenue, notably Marshall Field and Company. In 1877, **Wanamaker's** opened in Philadelphia. Philadelphia's John **Wanamaker** performed a 19th century redevelopment to the former Pennsylvania Railroad terminal in that city, and eventually opened a modern day department store in the building.

In the beginning, some department stores leased space to individual merchants, along the lines of the New change in late 17th-century London, but by 1900 the smaller companies were purchased or replaced by the larger company. In some ways they were very similar to our modern malls, where the property owner has no direct interest in the '**departments**' or

'stores,' other than to collect rent and provide utilities. Today only the most specialized departments are leased out. This could include photography and photo **finishing**, automotive services, or financial services. But this is rare. Even the store restaurant is usually run by the department store now.

Virtually since the beginning department stores featured food courts, entertainments, specialty and seasonal kiosks. These were joined together in spectacular buildings with central atriums, with the departments arrayed around this center. The owners of the larger building usually advertised his department store as a bastion of convenience and ease, but left individual departments free to advertise themselves.

In 1906, Harry Gordon **Selfridge** a junior partner in Marshall Field's, left America to set up a department store, **Selfridges** in London. After it opened in 1909 it stimulated wide-ranging changes to British retail practice, and the establishment of further department store **chains.**, such as Marks & Spencer

Text 4. Credit card

A **credit card system** is a type of retail transaction settlement and credit system, named after the small plastic card issued to users of the system. A credit card is different from a debit card in that the credit card issuer lends the consumer money rather than having the money removed from an account. Most credit cards are the same shape and size, as specified by the ISO 7810 standard.

A credit card user is issued the card after approval from a provider (often a general bank, but sometimes from a captive bank created to issue a particular brand of credit card, such as American Express Centurion Bank), in which they will be able to make purchases from merchants supporting that credit card up to a prenegotiated credit limit. When a purchase is made, the credit card user indicates their consent to pay, usually by signing a receipt with a record of the card details and indicating the amount to be paid. More recently, electronic verification systems have allowed merchants (using a strip of magnetized material on the card holding information in a similar manner to magnetic tape or a floppy disk) to verify that the card is valid and the credit card customer has sufficient credit to cover the purchase in a few seconds, allowing the verification to happen at time of purchase. Some services can be paid for over the telephone by credit card merely by quoting the

number embossed onto the card (the credit card number), and they can be used in a similar manner to pay for purchases from online vendors.

Each month, the credit card user is sent a statement indicating the purchases undertaken with the card, and the total amount owing. The cardholder must then pay a minimum proportion of the bill by a due date, and may choose to pay more or indeed pay the entire amount owing. The credit provider charges interest on the amount owing (typically, a fairly high rate much higher than most other forms of debt). Typically, credit card issuers will waive interest charges if the balance is paid in full each month, which allows the credit card to serve as a form of revolving credit.

As well as profits through interest, card companies charge merchants fees for money transfer. When the companies formally or informally prevent these fees from being passed on to credit card users but instead require them to be spread among all customers, this raises the possibility of a harmful market imperfection through the mechanism of the Tragedy of the commons, especially as some credit providers give their users incentives such as frequent flier miles or gift certificates. Australia is currently acting to reduce this by allowing merchants to apply surcharges for credit card users. Credit card companies generally do provide a guarantee the merchant will be paid on legitimate transactions regardless of whether the consumer pays their credit card bill. However, credit card companies generally will not pay a merchant if the consumer challenges the legitimacy of the transaction and will fine merchants who have a large number of chargebacks.

The credit card was the successor of a variety of merchant credit schemes. The concept of paying merchants using a card was invented in 1950 with Diners Club's invention of the charge card, which is similar but required the entire bill to be paid with each statement. Credit card service was first offered in 1951.

In recent times, credit card portfolios have been exceedingly profitable to banks, largely due to the booming economy of the late nineties. However in the case of credit cards, such high returns go hand in hand with risk.

A secured credit card is a special type of credit card in which you must first put down a deposit between 100% and 150% of the total amount of credit you desire. Thus if you put down \$1000, you will be given credit in the range of \$500–\$1000. This deposit is held in a special savings account. The owner of the secured credit card is still expected to make regular payment, as he or she would with a regular credit card, but should he or she default

on a payment, the card issuer can deduct payments on the card out of the deposit. Secure credit cards are an advantage to anyone with poor or no credit history. They are often offered to people as a means of rebuilding one's credit. Secured credit cards are available with both Visa and MasterCard logos on them.

As well as convenient, accessible credit, the cards offered consumers an easy way to track **expenses**, which is necessary both for monitoring personal expenditure and the tracking of work-related expenses for taxation and reimbursement purposes. They have now spread worldwide, and are offered in a huge variety of permutations with differing credit **limits**, repayment arrangements (some cards offer interest-free **periods**, while others do not but compensate with much lower interest rates), and other perks (such as rewards schemes in which points "earned" for purchasing goods with the card can be reclaimed for further goods and services).

In addition, some countries such as the United States limit the amount that a consumer can be held liable for fraudulent transactions, which shifts the liability to the merchant. This encourages the use of credit cards for electronic and mail order transactions, collectively called "card not present" transactions. For further security, some banks are offering one-time numbers for use in these transactions. They have spread far and wide beyond their initial market of the wealthy businessman and are now ubiquitous amongst the middle class of most Western countries.

The relatively low security of the credit card system presents many opportunities for fraud. However, this does not imply that the system is broken. The goal of the credit card companies is not to eliminate fraud, but to reduce it to manageable levels, such that the total cost of both fraud and fraud prevention is minimised. This implies that high-cost low-return fraud prevention measures will not be used if their cost exceeds the potential gains from fraud reduction. This opportunity for fraud has created a black market in stolen credit card numbers, which must generally be used quickly before the cards are reported stolen.

Three improvements to card security are being introduced to the more common credit card networks at the time of writing. An additional 3–4 digit code is now present on the back of most cards, for use in "card not present" transactions. The on-line verification system used by merchants is being enhanced to require a 4 digit Personal Identification Number (PIN) known only to the card holder, and the cards themselves are being replaced with similar-looking tamper-resistant smart cards which are intended to make forgery more

difficult. The majority of **smartcard** (IC card) based credit cards comply with the **EMV** (Europay Visa MasterCard) standard.

The 3–4 digit numbers for use in “card not **present**” transactions are to be found in different places on the various cards, and are referred to differently by the card issuers:

- **AMERICAN EXPRESS:** 4 digits long, printed on the front side of the card above the number, referred to as the **CID**, or Card Identification Number.
- **MASTERCARD:** last 3 digits of the number printed on the back signature panel of the card, referred to as the CVC, or Card Validation Code.
- **VISA:** last 3 digits of the number printed on the back signature panel of the card, referred to as the **CVV**, or Card Validation Value.

Text 5. Price discrimination

Price discrimination exists when sales of identical goods or services are transacted at different prices from a single vendor. Theoretically, price discrimination is a feature only of monopoly markets, but in practice it occurs with oligopolies such as the airlines. In addition to a monopoly **market**, price discrimination requires some means to discourage discount customers from becoming resellers and, by extension, competitors. This usually entails either keeping the different price groups separate, making price comparisons difficult, or restricting pricing information. The boundary set up by the marketer to keep segments separate are referred to as a *ratefence*.

Examples of price discrimination

Travel classes in aircraft and trains are often said to be methods of price discrimination. This is not technically true since first class and economy class are different services. However, to the extent that both classes transport passengers from one point to another, subjecting them to the same time delays and so on, travel classes can be considered as price discrimination.

With U.S. airlines following deregulation in the 1980s, airfares are notoriously irregular and only loosely correlate to the costs of the service provided. To avoid getting a raw deal, strategic consumption is necessary on the part of an individual **purshasing** airline tickets. An individual purchasing tickets for dates far in advance, or alternatively too close, will suffer inflated fares. Additionally, airfares are higher during the holidays and high travel seasons

than during the rest of the year, though the costs of providing the services (responsive primarily to prices of jet fuel) do not change.

Some have claimed that U.S. airlines charge high fares because they are no longer subject to controls since the Reagan administration deregulated the industry in the 1980s. Others claim that free market policies have forced airlines to become more competitive and lower prices. Unstable prices are certainly attributable in part to the recession that began in the late 1990s and increased terrorist threats since September 11, 2001.

Many U.S. nightclubs feature a "**ladies' night**" in which women are offered discount or free drinks, or are absolved from payment of cover charges. This differs from conventional price discrimination in that the primary motive is not, usually, to increase revenue at the expense of consumer surplus. Rather, establishments benefit by maintaining an equitable gender balance; if the clientele of an establishment is primarily male ("sausage party") it will lose popularity with both men and women, and therefore it is better for the establishment to lower its prices for women if they show less demand,

Financial aid as offered by U.S. colleges and universities is a form of price discrimination that is widely accepted, and completely legal.

These institutions often price discriminate by setting their prices well outside the reach of most families, sometimes as high as \$170,000 for four years of education. Middle- and lower-income students are often afforded discounts and loans to lower these costs to the institution's estimation of the **family's** willingness to pay.

Since financial aid is awarded according to parental income, students whose parents are wealthy but refuse to pay for college are often unable to afford a college education at all,

Little objection is given to this version of price discrimination because, allegedly, the *per annum* costs of educating one student exceed even the tuition rate one pays without financial aid.

TOPIC 13. EDUCATION AND SCHOOLING

Text 1. Education in the United States

Education in the United States is highly decentralised with funding and curriculum decisions taking place mostly at the local level through school boards. Educational standards are generally set by state agencies. The federal government of the United States through the U.S. Department of Education is involved with funding of some programs and exerts some influence through its ability to control funding. Accreditation of schools is accomplished by voluntary regional associations of educational institutions. There are also **non-entrepreneurial** schools that are private.

Schools in the 50 states primarily teach in English, while schools in the territory of Puerto Rico teach in Spanish.

Unlike many other industrialized **countries**, the United States has not nationalized its educational system.

Thus, K-12 students in most areas have a choice between free taxpayer-funded public schools, and private schools, which charge varying rates depending on geographic location and religious status. For example, some churches will partially subsidize a private school for its members. Some people have argued that when their child attends a private school, they should be able to take the funds which the public school no longer needs and apply that money towards private school tuition in the form of vouchers; this is the basis of the school choice movement.

Although they are free to all comers, most public K-12 schools are moderately underfunded by their respective governments, and can only afford to employ teachers with only **bachelor's** and associate's degrees. Class sizes vary widely- some states achieve average sizes of less than 20 students, but class sizes can run as high as 40 or 45 in the worst cases. It is widely believed that large class sizes contribute to discipline problems and a poor learning environment (see the Columbine High School massacre for an example of the worst possible outcome). Meanwhile, the physical infrastructure tends to be in various states of decay. Teachers often must buy materials for their poorer students out of their own salaries.

In contrast, private schools usually maintain high quality facilities and a sufficient number of teachers to keep class sizes lower than in public schools. Class sizes are generally

around 15 and are usually capped at 20. This is possible partly because private schools pay their teachers less (often about 80% of the public school pay scale), and partly because private schools are at liberty to refuse any more students after they have reached their full capacity (whereas public schools are required by law to give education to anyone who signs up). As a result, admission is competitive (often based on university entrance exams like the SAT). Discipline also tends to be stricter in private schools than in public schools.

In American terminology, a *college* is a postgraduate institution that may award associate, bachelor, and even master's degrees, but only the university can award the **Ph.D.** or doctorate. A typical university usually consists of at least one undergraduate college (awarding bachelor's degrees) and several graduate schools (awarding **master's** degrees and doctorates).

Each state maintains its own public university system, which is always nonprofit. Most areas will also have private institutions which may be **for-profit** or non-profit. The most prestigious universities are part of the Ivy League.

All but a few charity institutions charge tuition to all students, although scholarships (both merit-based and need-based) are widely available. Generally, private universities charge much higher tuition than their public counterparts, which rely on state funds to make up the difference. Because each state supports its own university system with state taxes, most public universities charge much higher rates for **out-of-state** students. Private universities are generally considered to be of higher quality than public **universities**, although there are many exceptions. The absence of state funds tends to drive private universities to offer better customer service.

The vast majority of students lack the financial resources to pay tuition up-front and must rely on student loans from their university, the federal government, or a private lender.

Annual undergraduate tuition varies widely from state to state, and many additional fees apply. A typical year's tuition at a public university (for residents of the state) would be about \$15,000. Private schools are typically much higher, although prices vary widely from "no-frills" private schools to highly specialized technical institutes. Depending upon the type of school and program, annual graduate program tuition can vary from \$20,000 to as high as \$40,000.

Many foreign readers of Wikipedia may be unfamiliar with the snobbery and elitism which American **postsecondary** education is infamous for. American colleges and

universities are highly status-conscious and are generally sorted by prestige based on their selectivity in admissions (the lower the percent admitted, the **better**).

It is universally agreed that the most prestigious universities are the private universities that belong to the Ivy League athletic conference on the East Coast. For better or worse, their alumni dominate American business, media, and government. They also constitute a large part of the faculties at most other universities. Less than **10-15%** of those who apply are allowed in.

Next in line are a small group of elite private universities scattered around the country. After them come the top land-grant public universities, and then the vast majority of public and private universities, colleges, and technical schools. At the bottom are community colleges, which by law are usually required to accept all local residents who seek to attend.

Text 2. University

A **university** is an institution of higher education and of research, which grants academic degrees. A university provides both tertiary and quaternary education. *University* is derived from the Latin *universitas*, meaning *corporation* since the first medieval European universities were simply groups of scholars.

Arguably the first western university was the Academy founded in 387 BC by the Greek philosopher Plato in the grove of Academos near Athens, where students were taught philosophy, mathematics and gymnastics.

About a thousand years **later**, institutions bearing a resemblance to the modern university existed in Persia and the Islamic world, notably the Academy of Gundishapur and later also **Al Azhar** university in Cairo, which remains the oldest operating university in the world. One of the most important Asian universities, next to the Persian Academy of Gundishapur, was Nalanda, in **Bihar**, India, where the second century Buddhist philosopher **Nagarjuna** was based.

In the **Carolingian** period a famous academy was created by Charlemagne for the purpose of educating the children of aristocrats to help train the professionals needed to run an empire. It was a foreshadow of the rise of the University in the **11th** century.

The first European medieval universities were established in Bologna (Italy) and Paris (France) in the Middle Ages for the study of law, medicine, and theology.

In Europe young men proceeded to the university when they had completed the study of the **trivium**: the preparatory arts of grammar, rhetoric, and logic; and the **quadrivium**: arithmetic, **geometry**, music, and astronomy. See Degrees of Oxford University, §1 for the history of how the *trivium* and *quadrivium* developed in relation to degrees, especially in anglophone universities.

Universities are generally established by statute or charter. In the United Kingdom, for instance, a university is instituted by Act of Parliament or Royal Charter; in either case generally with the approval of Privy Council, and only such *recognised bodies* can award degrees of any kind.

In France, students can also attend **Grandes écoles**, which are very prestigious and elitist schools, with small **promotions**—usually a couple hundred **students**—and very selective competitive exams at the entrance. There are Grandes écoles for literature, business, and engineering. Formation provided in these schools is usually of a better level than the corresponding one in French universities. The system of the Grandes écoles is particular to the French education system.

In the United States, universities are usually treated by the law as a corporation like any other, although many states impose special responsibilities to safeguard the welfare of a university's students. Because the American federal government does not directly organize or regulate universities, informal systems of accreditation have been developed by regional networks of academic institutions. The vast majority of private and public American universities are non-profit (meaning that excess tuition is plowed into providing higher quality of service), but starting in the 1970s, many **for-profit** colleges and universities were founded to take advantage of certain changes in the federal student assistance programs.

In the late 19th century, the U.S. Congress encouraged the creation of many land-grant universities.

In the last decades of the 20th century, a number of mega universities have been **created**, teaching with distance learning techniques.

Text 3. Private school

Private schools, in the United States, Australia and other English-speaking countries (with the exception of the United Kingdom), are schools not administered by local or national government, which retain the right to select their student body and are funded in whole or in part by charging their students tuition rather than with public funds. In Australia the use of the term is generally restricted to primary and secondary educational levels, and not applied to college or tertiary-levels

Private education covers the whole gamut of educational activity. Private schools range from **pre-school** to tertiary level institutions. At the top of the heap are private colleges and universities such as Yale, Princeton and Harvard which are world renowned.

The next category is the preparatory school or "prep school". These are secondary schools (high schools) which are designed to prepare a student for higher education. Many of these schools are highly selective, accepting only a very small percentage of applicants. Tuition at private secondary schools varies from school to school. High tuition, schools claim, is used to pay higher salaries for the best teachers, and also used to provide enriched learning environments and services such as libraries, science laboratories, and computers. Graduates of preparatory schools are often actively sought by colleges due to the **colleges'** confidence that the students will be well educated.

Many private schools are boarding schools. Some military schools are privately owned or operated as well. Trade or vocational schools are also usually private schools where students can learn skills in a trade which they intend to make their future occupation. Trade schools exist in a variety of occupations from **beauticians'** schools to prestigious schools for the performing arts.

Religiously affiliated schools (also called parochial schools) form a distinct category of private school. Such schools teach religious lessons, often alongside a secular education, to instill religious knowledge and a strong religious identity in the students who attend.

Many alternative schools are also privately financed (though some prefer to be called *independent schools* rather than *private schools* to avoid possible connotations of prep-school elitism). Private schools can often avoid some state regulations which might make alternative methods of schooling more difficult, and they are often easier for a small group of committed parents or teachers to create and maintain than **state-funded** schools.

Finally, special assistance schools aim to improve the lives of their students by providing services tailored to very specific needs of individual students. Such schools include tutoring schools and schools to assist the learning of handicapped children.

In the United Kingdom, such schools are called independent schools, and certain kinds of privately owned schools are **confusingly called** *public schools*.

Text 4. Student activism

Student activism is work done by students to effect political or societal change. It has often focused on making changes in schools, such as increasing student influence over curriculum or improving educational funding, but in some settings, student groups have had a major role in broader political events. For example, student groups in many countries have played leading roles in forcing change in governments they viewed as oppressive.

In the United States, student activism is often understood as a form of youth activism that is specifically oriented toward change in the American educational system. Movements in this area vary widely in subject, size, and success, with all kinds of students in all kinds of educational settings participating. Popular issues include student voice, student rights, school funding, anti-racism in education, tuition increases (in colleges), and many other areas.

Student activism in the United States dates to the beginning of public education, if not before. The best early historical documentation comes from the 1930s. The American Youth Congress was a student-led organization in Washington, DC, which lobbied the US Congress against racial discrimination and for youth programs. It was heavily supported by First Lady Eleanor Roosevelt.

The 1960s saw student activists gaining increased political prominence. One highlight of this period was Students for a Democratic Society (SDS), a student-led organization that focused on schools as a social agent that simultaneously oppresses and potentially uplifts society. SDS eventually spun off the Weather Underground. Another successful group was Ann Arbor Youth Liberation, which featured students calling for an end to state-led education. Also notable was the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee, which fought against racism and for integration of public schools across the US. These specific organizations closed in the mid-1970s.

American society saw an increase in student activism again in the 1990s with the ushering in of the **neoliberal** policies of Bill Clinton. The popular education reform movement has led to an resurgence of populist student activism against standardized teaching and testing, as well as more complex **issues**, including rallying against the **military/industrial/prison** complex and the influence of the military and corporations in education. There is also increased emphasis on ensuring that changes that are made are sustainable, by pushing for better education funding and policy or leadership changes that engage students as decision-makers in schools. Major contemporary campaigns include work for better funding of public schools and against increased tuitions at colleges or the use of sweatshop labor in manufacturing school apparel.

Text 5. School uniform

School uniforms are common in elementary and secondary schools in many nations. The European country that has the most widespread use of school uniforms is the United Kingdom. The practice of prescribing clothing has spread from there to many formerly British territories (including the Republic of Ireland, Australia, Singapore, Hong Kong, New Zealand, Malaysia and South Africa).

Japan is another industrialised country in which school uniforms are nearly universal. In most of continental Europe and Scandinavia, school uniforms are however not common. Russia abolished school uniforms in its public school system after the replacement of communist party government in the early 1990s. Cuba still dresses its children in the "pioneer" uniform. In 2004 the French law on **secularity** and conspicuous religious symbols in schools was introduced to outlaw obvious religious clothing and symbols.

In North America school uniforms are generally not used in public (state-sponsored) schools. However, independent schools often have school uniforms. In the 1990s, there was a trend, including a mention by President Clinton in a State of the Union Address toward re-introducing uniforms in American public schools, and especially so in low-income areas. This was at first motivated by a need to counter "gang clothing", but has later also been seen by some as a way of improving morale and school discipline.

Traditionally, school uniforms have been subdued and professional. **Boys'** uniforms often consist of dark trousers and light-coloured shirt, plus a jacket in cold weather. A **girl's** might consist of a skirt and blouse. The gender-specific uniforms have been another point of

contention, and some schools permit female students to choose either skirt or trousers. The use of a blazer or suit-like jacket has come into favour in some areas.

British night clubs often organise uniform theme parties where patrons are asked to wear adult versions of the uniform. This kind of use of **children's** clothing may be controversial in context of heavy drinking and sexual behaviour. Angus Young from the Australian musical act ACDC often wears his school uniform on stage.

Proponents of uniforms argue:

- they reduce cliques (or gangs) and peer-envy based on clothes
- they allow the student to focus on **schoolwork** rather than on socialising
- they add a professional air to the school environment, resulting in better morale
- parents do not have to spend on fashionable brand attire
- they give a sense of belonging to the school

Common arguments against school uniforms are:

- they violate the students' right to self expression
- some school uniforms can be costly
- **"one-size-fits-all"** style does not suit **all students'** body shapes,
- many uniforms are not gender neutral, which may lead to exploitation or discrimination

TOPIC 14. JOBS AND CAREERS

Text 1. Employment law

Employment Law is the branch of the legal profession that deals with employment related issues.

Employment Law exists in many countries, including the USA and England.

English Employment Law has developed rapidly over the past forty **years**, largely due to a historically strong UK Union movement. In **it's** current form, it is largely a creature of Statute, (Acts of the UK Parliament) rather than Common Law.

Leading Employment Law Statutes include the Employment Rights Act 1996, the Employment Act 2002 and various Acts outlawing discrimination.

Unusually for UK legislation, the operation of the Employment Law system is broadly **similiar** across the whole of the UK.

After the **employer's** own processes, such as disciplinary hearings and internal appeals, have been exhausted, employment law cases usually start by one party to a dispute presenting a complaint to an Employment Tribunal (ET). These (as Industrial Tribunals) were set up under the 1964 **Industrial** Training Act, although they now have a substantially greater role and do count as courts. They have sometimes been referred to as industrial **juries**.

Generally speaking a tribunal will hear specific complaints about an aggrieved party being deprived of their rights, including (but not limited to) unfair dismissal. The tribunal will decide whether the responding party acted in a way that would be generally and typically seen as reasonable. Notice this is different from any opinion the tribunal itself might have about the reasonableness of any **complained-of** action.

Appeals from an Employment Tribunal can be made to an Employment Appeals Tribunal (EAT) on one of three grounds (1) an error in law, (2) a finding of fact not supported by evidence, or (3) a finding of perversity.

An EAT decision can be appealed to the Court of Appeal, and after that (very rarely) to the House of Lords.

Text 2. Profession

In a more restrictive sense, profession often refers specifically to fields that require extensive study and mastery of specialized knowledge, such as law, medicine, the military, nursing, the clergy or engineering. In this sense, *profession* is contrasted with *occupation*, which refers generally to the nature of a person's employment.

Terms such as *occupational* serve the purpose of upholding the distinction between *professionals* and others who for their living are dependent on their work rather than on their economic wealth. Such usage avoids the confusion caused by vague usage of the words *professional* and *professionalism* to express prestige, approval or a sense of exclusivity.

Sociologists have been known to define *professionalism* as self-defined power elitism or as organised exclusivity along guild lines, much in the sense that George Bernard Shaw characterised all professions as "conspiracies against the laity". Sociological definitions of professionalism involving checklists of perceived or claimed characteristics (altruism, self-governance, esoteric knowledge, special skills, ethical behaviour, etc) became less fashionable in the late 20th century.

The distinction between laypersons and professionals denotes the critical aspect of more liberal definitions of a profession: being paid for the work. As such, ball players and movie makers may be professionals, although their work does not fit the strict definition offered above.

Historically, few professions existed: members of the clergy, medical doctors, and lawyers held the monopoly on professional status and on professional education, with military officers occasionally recognised as social equals. Self-governing bodies such as *guilds* or *colleges*, backed by state-granted charters guaranteeing monopolies, limited access to and behaviour within such professions.

With the rise of technology and occupational specialisation in the 19th century, other bodies began to claim "professional" status: engineers, paramedics, educationalists and even accountants, until today almost any occupational group can -- at least unofficially -- aspire to professional rank and cachet, and popular recognition of this trend has made possible the widespread recognition of prostitution as "the oldest profession".

In modern usage, professionals tend to have certain qualities in common. A profession is always held by a person, and it is generally that **person's** way of generating income. A

professional is usually licensed and regulated by a particular quasi-governmental organization, such as a bar association. To get a license, the professional must receive certain education (such as graduating from medical school), and pass further examinations **and/or** apprenticeships. Professionals are also subject to discipline, including revocation of their license, if they breach the standards set out by the governing organization. People without licenses are usually prohibited by law from engaging in those activities practiced by professionals.

There is no standard definition of a modern professional, however. Beyond the classical examples (lawyers, doctors, etc.) there are many groups that claim status as a profession, and many who would dispute that status. The existence of a traceable historical record of notable members of the profession can serve as an indicator of a profession. Often, these historic professionals have become well known to laypersons outside the field, for example, Clarence **Darrow** (law), Edward **Jenner** (medicine), and Florence Nightingale (nursing). In modern times, however, there is no standard definition.

Text 3. Employment

Employment is a contract between two parties, one being the **employer** and the other being the **employee**. In a commercial setting, the employer conceives of a productive **activity**, generally with the intention of creating profits, and the employee contributes labour to the enterprise, usually in return for payment of wages.

Employment also exists in the public, nonprofit and household sectors.

In the United States, the "**standard**" employment contract is considered to be **at-will** meaning that the employer and employee are both free to terminate the employment at any time and for any cause, or for no cause at all.

To the extent that employment or the economic equivalent is not universal, unemployment exists.

Employment is almost universal in capitalist societies. Opponents of capitalism such as Marxists oppose the capitalist employment system, considering it to be unfair that the people who contribute the majority of work to an organization do not receive a proportionate share of the profit. However, the surrealist movement is one of the few groups to actually *oppose* work, and during the partially surrealist-influenced events of May 1968 the walls of the Sorbonne were covered with anti-work graffiti.

Labourers often talk of "**getting** a job", or "having a job". This conceptual metaphor of a "job" as a possession has led to its use in slogans such as "money for jobs, not bombs". Similar conceptions are that of "land" as a possession (real estate) or intellectual rights as a possession (intellectual property).

An **employer** is a person or institution that hires employees or workers. Employers offer wages to the workers in **exchange** for the worker's labor-power.

Employers include everything from individuals hiring a babysitter to governments and businesses which hired many thousands of employees. In most western societies governments are the largest single employers, but most of the work force is employed in small and medium businesses in the private sector.

Note that although employees may contribute to the evolution of an enterprise, the employer maintains autonomous control over the productive infrastructure of land and capital, and is the entity named in contracts. The employer typically also maintains ownership of intellectual property created by an employee within the scope of employment and as a function thereof. These are known as "works for hire".

Within large organizations the management of employees is often handled by Human Resources departments.

An **employee** is any person hired by an employer ~ typically, a worker hired to perform a specific "job". Typical examples include accountants, solicitors, lawyers, photographers, among many other worker classifications.

There are differing classes of employee. Some are permanent and provide a guaranteed salary, other employers hire workers on short term contracts or rely on consultants.

The employee contributes labour and expertise to an enterprise. Employees perform the discrete activity of economic production. Of the three factors of production, employees usually provide the labor.

Some companies feel that a happier work force is a better one and thus offer extra benefits to improve morale and performance. However, other employers try to increase profits by providing low wages and few benefits. To resist this, employees can organize into labor unions (American English), or trade unions (British English), who represent most of the available work force and must therefore be listened to by the management. This is the source of considerable bad feeling between the two sides, and sometimes even violence.

An individual who entirely owns the business for which he labours is known as self-employed, although if a self-employed individual has only one client for whom he performs work, he may be considered an employee of that client for tax purposes.

Workers who are not paid wages, such as volunteers, are generally not considered as being employed.

Someone who works under a threat of physical force is known as a slave and slaveowners are also not considered employers. Some historians suggest that slavery is older than employment, but both arrangements have existed for all recorded history.

Text 4. Detectives and their work

In most American police departments, a candidate for detective must have served as a uniformed officer for a period of one to five years before becoming qualified for the position. Prospective British police detectives must have completed two years as a uniformed officer before applying to join the Criminal Investigation Department. In European police systems, most detectives are university graduates who join directly from civilian life without first serving as uniformed officers. In fact, many European police experts cannot understand why British, American and Commonwealth police forces insist on recruiting their detectives from the ranks of uniformed officers, arguing that they do a completely different job and therefore require completely different training, qualifications, qualities and abilities. The opposing argument is that without previous service as a uniformed patrol officer a detective cannot have a great enough command of standard police procedures and problems and will find it difficult to work with uniformed colleagues.

Detectives obtain their position by competitive examination, covering such subjects as:

- Principles, practices, and procedures of investigations
- Principles, practices, and procedures of interviewing and interrogation
- Local criminal law and procedures
- Applicable law governing arrests, search and seizures, warrants, and evidence
- Police department records and reports
- Principles, practices and objectives of courtroom testimony
- Police department methods and procedures

Private detectives are licensed by the state in which they live after passing a competitive examination and a criminal background check. Some states, such as Maryland, require a period of classroom training as well.

Detectives have a wide variety of **techniques** available in conducting investigations. However, the majority of cases are solved by *interrogation* of suspects and witnesses, which takes **time**. In a policeman's career as a uniformed officer and as a detective, a detective develops an intuitive sense of the plausibility of suspect and witness accounts. This intuition may fail at times, but usually is reliable.

Besides interrogations, detectives may rely on a network of informants he or she has cultivated over the years. Informants often have connections with persons a detective would not be able to approach formally.

In criminal investigations, once a detective has a suspect or suspects in mind, the next step is to produce evidence that will stand up in a court of law. The best way is to obtain a *confession* from the suspect, usually in exchange for a plea bargain for a lesser sentence. A detective may lie or otherwise mislead and may psychologically pressure a suspect into confessing, though in the United States a suspect may invoke his or her Miranda **rights**.

Physical **forensic evidence** in an investigation may provide leads to closing a case.

Examples of physical evidence can be, but are not limited to:

- Fingerprinting of objects persons have touched
- DNA analysis
- Luminol to detect blood stains that have been washed
- Footprints or tire tracks
- Chemical testing for the presence of narcotics or expended **gunpropellant**
- The exact position of objects at the scene of an investigation

Many major police departments in a city, county, or state, and the Federal Bureau of Investigation, maintain their own forensic laboratories.

Detectives may use public and private records to provide background information on a subject. These include:

- Fingerprint records. In the United States, the FBI maintains records of people who have committed felonies and some misdemeanors, all persons who have applied for a Federal security clearance, and **all** persons who have served in the U.S. armed forces
- Records of criminal arrests and convictions

- Photographs or *mugshots*, of persons arrested
- Motor vehicle records
- Credit card records and bank statements
- Hotel registration cards
- Credit reports
- Answer machine messages

Text 5. Resume Writing: The Objective

Ideally, your resume should be pointed toward conveying why you are the perfect candidate for one specific job or job title. Good advertising is directed toward a very specific target audience.

When a car company is trying to sell their inexpensive compact to an older audience, they show grandpa and grandma stuffing the car with happy, shiny grandchildren and talk about how safe and economical the car is. When they advertise the exact same car to the youth market, they show it going around corners on two wheels, with plenty of drums and power chords thundering in the background. You want to focus your resume just as specifically..

Targeting your resume requires that you be absolutely clear about your career **direction--or** at least that you appear to be clear. If you **aren't** clear where you are going, you wind up wherever the winds of chance blow you. You would be wise to use this time of change to design your future career so you have a clear target that will meet your goals and be personally fulfilling. Even if you are a little vague about what you are looking for, you cannot let your uncertainty show. With a nonexistent, vague or overly broad objective, the first statement you make to a prospective employer says you are not sure this is the job for you.

The way to demonstrate your clarity of direction or apparent clarity is to have the first major topic of your resume be your **objective**.

Let's look at a real world example. Suppose the owner of a small software company puts an ad in the paper seeking an experienced software sales person. A week later they have received 500 resumes. The applicants have a bewildering variety of backgrounds. The employer has no way of knowing whether any of them are really interested in selling software.

They remember all the jobs they applied for that they didn't really want. They know that many of the resumes they received are from people who are just using a shotgun approach, casting their seed to the winds. Then they come across a resume in the pile that starts with the following:

*"OBJECTIVE - a **software** sales position in an organization seeking an extraordinary record of generating new **accounts**, exceeding sales targets and enthusiastic customer relations".*

This wakes them up. They are immediately interested. This first sentence conveys some very important and powerful messages: "I want exactly the job you are offering. I am a superior candidate because I recognize the qualities that are most important to you, and I have them. I want to make a contribution to your company." This works well **because** the employer is smart enough to know that someone who wants to do exactly what they are offering will be much more likely to succeed than someone who **doesn't**. And that person will probably be a lot more pleasant to work with as well.

Secondly, this candidate has done a good job of establishing why they are the perfect candidate in their first sentence. They have thought about what qualities would make a candidate stand out. They have started communicating that they are that person immediately. What's more, they are communicating from the point of view of making a contribution to the employer.

They are not writing from a self-centered point of view. Even when people are savvy enough to have an objective, they often make the mistake of saying something like, "a position where I can hone my skill as a scissors sharpener." or something similar. The employer is interested in hiring you for what you can do for them, not for fulfilling your private goals and **agenda**.

Here's how to write your objective:

First of all, decide on a specific job title for your objective. Go back to your list of answers to the question "How can I demonstrate that I am the perfect candidate?" What are the two or three qualities, abilities or achievements that would make a candidate stand out as truly exceptional for that specific job?

The person in the above example recognized that the prospective employer, being a small, growing software company, would be very interested in candidates with an ability to

generate new accounts. So they made that the very first point they got across in their resume.

Be sure the objective is to the point. Do not use fluffy phrases that are obvious or do not mean **anything**, such as: "allowing the ability to enhance potential and utilize experience in new challenges." An objective may be broad and still somewhat undefined in some cases, such as: "a mid-level management position in the hospitality or entertainment industry."

Remember, your resume will only get a few seconds attention, at best!

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