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МЕЖДУНАРОДНЫЕ ОТНОШЕНИЯ

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Цель пособия – развитие у студентов лексико-грамматических и коммуникативно-прагматических навыков использования английского языка как средства профессионального общения.

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ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Учебное пособие составлено в соответствии с программой обучения иностранному языку для специальности 031900 «Международные отношения».

Текст пособия состоит из трех частей:

- 1. Дипломатия и переговоры.*
- 2. Политические системы: Великобритания, США, Россия.*
- 3. Международные организации.*

Разделы данного пособия содержат тематические списки слов для активного усвоения материала, способствующих правильному пониманию текста, и упражнения, которые помогают преодолеть грамматические и лексические трудности и обеспечивают полное понимание текста, а также упражнения коммуникативной направленности.

Цель пособия – расширение словарного запаса по изучаемым темам, развитие навыка чтения англоязычной профессиональной литературы, умений и навыков перевода как с английского языка на русский, так и с русского на английский, выработка навыка компрессии текста, развитие навыков говорения по темам профессионального общения.

UNIT I

DIPLOMACY AND NEGOTIATIONS

Part I

WHAT IS INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS?

Read and answer the following questions:

1. What is International Relations?
2. What does the term "International Relations" mean?
3. What was the first important international organization?
4. What is meant by "high politics" and "low politics"?

International Relations is a branch of Political Science dealing with interactions between actors (typically states) in the international system. There are several schools of thought which claim to provide a theoretical model for International Relations, and therefore understand or even predict the behavior of actors on the world stage. Theories of International Relations can be broadly classified into Rationalist and Constructivist groups.

The term "International Relations"

The term "International Relations" is used to describe a phenomenon in its broader sense and therefore is wider than "International Politics" which as a term describes exclusively military and political relations.

The term "International Relations" came to existence at a time when "nation" was considered identical with "state". This identification became much more visible during the second part of the 19th century, when the right of every nation to acquire its own government emerged. This right was particularly outlined at the beginning of the 20th century in the League of Nations Charter, in which the term "state" was actually replaced by "nation". Because of the fact that the League of Nations was the first important international organization this connection between "state" and "nation" was

instituted. From this point on and despite the fact that "International Relations" literally refer to relations between nations, the term is widely used to describe the relations between states.

With the creation of international/multinational organizations came the transformation of the international environment which changed the role of the state. At this point the international organizations are thought to be one of the international actors along with the states. Because of the shift of influence described above, the term "International Relations" may refer to the relations between international organizations. In this context "International Relations" reflect a more limited view as they are mainly about political and military relations known as "high politics" and economic relations known as "low politics".

Part II

DIPLOMACY

Vocabulary

- to conduct negotiations, to negotiate – проводить переговоры
- a representative – представитель
- an issue – вопрос, проблема
- endorsement – утверждение, подтверждение
- to find mutually acceptable solutions – находить взаимовыгодные решения
- a common challenge – общая задача
- to define goals / objectives – определить цели
- an alternative – альтернатива
- opponent's counter – сторона оппозиции
- a proposal – предложение
- resolve – (раз)решить (проблему, вопрос)
- to bargain – договариваться, заключать сделку, торговаться
- a point of view – точка зрения
- a perspective – точка зрения, ракурс, перспектива
- to reach an agreement – достигнуть соглашения
- to sign an agreement – подписать соглашение
- a commitment – обязательство, долг
- an ultimatum – ультиматум

Match the synonyms:

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| 1. a problem | a. a duty |
| 2. to endorse | b. an issue |
| 3. a perspective | c. a choice |
| 4. a commitment | d. a point of view |
| 5. to reach | e. to approve |
| 6. an alternative | f. to come to |

Diplomacy (from Latin diploma, meaning an official document, which in turn derives from the Greek δίπλωμα, meaning a folded paper/document) is the art and practice of conducting negotiations between representatives of groups or states. It usually refers to international diplomacy, the conduct of international relations through the intercession of professional diplomats with regard to issues of peace-making, trade, war, economics, culture, environment and human rights. International treaties are usually negotiated by diplomats prior to endorsement by national politicians. In an informal or social sense, diplomacy is the employment of tact to gain strategic advantage or to find mutually acceptable solutions to a common challenge, one set of tools being the phrasing of statements in a non-confrontational, or polite manner.

Diplomat

Read and answer the following questions:

1. Who is a diplomat?
2. What are his functions?
3. What is his status and public image?
4. What psychological problems can a diplomat have?

A diplomat is a person appointed by a state to conduct diplomacy with another state or international organization. The main functions of diplomats are representation and protection of the interests and of the sending state, as well as the promotion of information and peaceful relations between states.

Diplomats in posts collect and report information that could affect national interests, often with advice about how the home country government should respond. Diplomats have the job of conveying, in the most persuasive way possible, the views of the home government to the governments to which they are accredited and, in doing so, to try to convince those governments to act in ways that suit home country interests. In this way, diplomats are part of the beginning and the end of each loop in the continuous process through which foreign policy is made.

In general, it has become harder for diplomats to act autonomously. Whereas in the past Thomas Jefferson could write to his Secretary of State, "We have not heard from our Ambassador in Spain for two years. If we do not hear from him this year, let us write him a letter", secure communication systems, emails and mobile telephones can track down and instruct the most reclusive head of mission. The same technology in reverse gives diplomats the capacity for more immediate input about the policy-making processes in the home capital.

Secure email has transformed the contact between diplomats and the ministry. It is less likely to be leaked, and enables more personal contact than the formal cablegram, with its wide distribution and impersonal style.

Diplomats have generally been considered members of an exclusive and prestigious profession. The public image of diplomats has been described as "a caricature of pinstriped men gliding their way around a never-ending global cocktail party" J. W. Burton has noted that "despite the absence of any specific professional training, diplomacy has a high professional status, due perhaps to a degree of secrecy and mystery that its practitioners self-consciously promote." The state supports the high status, privileges and self-esteem of its diplomats in order to support its own international status and position.

While posted overseas, there is a danger that diplomats may become disconnected from their own country and culture. Sir Harold Nicolson acknowledged that diplomats can become "denationalised, internationalised and therefore dehydrated, an elegant empty husk".

Part III
NEGOTIATIONS

The Art of Negotiating

Negotiating is often referred to as an "art". While some people may be naturally more skillful as negotiators, everyone can learn to negotiate. And, as they often say in business, **everything is negotiable**. Some techniques and skills that aid people in the negotiating process include:

- Aiming high
- Visualizing the end results
- Treating one's opponent with respect and honesty
- Preparing ahead of time
- Exhibiting confidence

Preparing to Negotiate

Lack of preparation in a negotiation almost always sets a person up for failure. First and foremost, each party must clearly define their own goals and objectives. Secondly, each party must anticipate the goals of the opposition. This may require doing some background research. Finally, each party must come up with various alternatives to their main objectives.

Here are some preparatory questions to ask yourself before beginning talks with the other party:

- What is my main objective?
- What are all of the alternatives I can think of?
- Why do I deserve to have my goals met?
- What will my opponent's counter proposal likely consist of?
- How can I respond to this counter proposal?
- When would I like to have this issue resolved?
- What is my bottom-line?
- What market research/homework do I need to do to back up my cause?
- What is my bargaining power compared to my opponent's?
- What do I know about the principles of negotiating?

The Negotiation Process

It's time to negotiate! Here are a few golden rules to successful negotiations:

1. Always try to negotiate for at least 15 minutes. Any less than that and it is unlikely that either party has had enough time to fairly con-

sider the other side. Generally, the size or seriousness of the negotiation determines the amount of time needed to negotiate it. Setting a time limit is a good idea. Approximately 90 % of negotiations get settled in the last 10 % of the discussion.

2. Always offer to let the other party speak first. This is especially important if you are the one making a request for something such as a raise. The other party may have overestimated what you are going to ask for and may actually offer more than what you were going to request.

3. Always respect and listen to what your opponent has to say. This is important even if he or she does not extend the same courtesy to you. Do your best to remain calm and pleasant even if the other party is displaying frustration or anger. Remember some people will do anything to intimidate you.

4. Acknowledge what the other party says. Everyone likes to know that what they say is important. If the other party opens first, use it to your advantage, by paraphrasing what you have heard. Repeat their important ideas before you introduce your own stronger ones.

5. Pay attention to your own and your counterpart's body language. Review the chart below to learn how to interpret body language during the negotiations. Make sure that you aren't conveying any negative body language.

Language to use to show understanding/agreement on a point:

- I agree with you on that point.
- That's a fair suggestion.
- So what you're saying is that you...
- In other words, you feel that...
- You have a strong point there.
- I think we can both agree that...
- I don't see any problem with/harm in that.

Language to use for objection on a point or offer:

- I understand where you're coming from; however, ...
- I'm prepared to compromise, but...
- The way I look at it...
- The way I see things...

- If you look at it from my point of view...
- I'm afraid I had something different in mind.
- That's not exactly how I look at it.
- From my perspective...
- I'd have to disagree with you there.
- I'm afraid that doesn't work for me.
- Is that your best offer?

Coming to a Close or Settlement

There are a number of signals that indicate that negotiations are coming to a close. This may not always mean that an agreement has been reached. In many cases, there are many rounds of negotiations. The preliminary round may uncover the major issues, while subsequent rounds may be needed to discuss and resolve them. Here are some signals of talks coming to a close:

- A difference of opinion has been significantly reduced
- One party suggests signing an agreement.
- One or both parties indicate that a period of time to pause and reflect is necessary.

Beware of last-minute strong-arm tactics.

Even if you make the decision to treat your negotiating opponent with honesty and kindness, the other party may not extend you the same respect. Be prepared to stand your ground firmly, yet cordially, especially in the last few minutes of the negotiations. This is the time when manipulative parties may employ certain tactics in order to try to fool you into losing focus or lowering goals and standards. Remember that conflicts are generally resolved in the last few minutes. The theory behind last minute tactics is that one party may be more willing to give in out of fear that all of the concessions or progress made up to that point (perhaps hours or weeks of talks) might be lost. People also get tired or have other commitments that need to be met, such as making an important phone call before another business closes, or picking up children from school. Here are some last minutes tricks that negotiators often use at this time:

- Walking out of the room
- Telling you to take it or leave it
- Giving an ultimatum
- Abrupt change in tone (used to shock the other party into submission)
- Introducing new requests (used at to get you to concede with little thought or consideration)
- Stating generalizations without evidence (dropped without significant statistics/proof)
- Adopting the Mr. Nice Guy persona (used to try to make it look like they are doing you a favour in hopes that you will lower your expectations).

Language to use in closing

- It sounds like we've found some common ground.
- I'm willing to leave things there if you are.
- Let's leave it this way for now.
- I'm willing to work with that.
- I think we both agree to these terms.
- I'm satisfied with this decision.
- I think we should get this in writing.
- I'd like to stop and think about this for a little while.
- You've given me a lot to think about/consider.
- Would you be willing to sign a contract right now?
- Let's meet again once we've had some time to think.

Questions to discuss:

1. What techniques and skills help people in the negotiating process?
2. What should you think over while preparing for negotiations?
3. What rules should you follow to conduct negotiations successfully?
4. How to indicate that negotiations are coming to a close?
5. What mistakes have you ever done while negotiating?
6. What gestures should you avoid in the negotiating process?
7. What body language should you use to seem confident?
8. What clothes are preferable to wear for a man/woman during a business meeting?

UNIT II

POLITICAL SYSTEMS: GREAT BRITAIN, THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, THE RUSSIAN FEDERATION

How can you explain the words: «Every nation has the government it deserves» / J. D. Maistre /

Part I

GREAT BRITAIN

The British Constitution

Vocabulary

Statute law – юр. статутное право

common law – обычное (или общее) право

conventions – обычаи

Act of Parliament – парламентский акт, закон (законопроект, принятый Палатой общин и Палатой лордов и получивший королевскую санкцию)

legislative (organ, body), legislature – законодательный (орган), executive – исполнительный, judiciary – судебный

working of the Constitution – действие конституции

electorate – контингент избирателей, избирательный корпус

uniform franchise qualification – единый избирательный ценз

franchise – право голоса

suffrage – избирательное право, право голоса

constituency – избирательный округ

counties – графства (в Англии)

boroughs – города, представленные в Парламенте

Shadow Cabinet – теневой кабинет

The British Constitution has evolved over many centuries. Unlike the Constitutions of most other countries, it is not set out in any single document. Instead it is made up of statute law, common law and conventions. Conventions are rules and practices which are not legally enforceable but which are regarded as indispensable to the working of government; many are derived from the historical events through which the British system of government has evolved.

The constitution can be altered by Act of Parliament, or by general agreement to alter a convention. It is thus adaptable to changing political conditions.

The organs of government overlap but can be clearly distinguished. Parliament is the *legislature* and the supreme authority. The *executive* consists of:

- the Government – the Cabinet and other ministers responsible for national policies;
- government departments, responsible for national administration;
- local authorities, responsible for many local services; and
- public corporations, responsible for operating particular nationalised industries or other bodies, subject to ministerial control.

The *judiciary* determines common law and interprets statutes, and is independent of both legislature and executive.

The Political Party System

The party system is an essential element in the working of the constitution.

The present system depends upon the existence of organised political parties, each of which presents its policies to the electorate for approval. The parties are not registered or formally recognised in law, but in practice most candidates in elections, and almost all winning candidates, belong to one of the main parties.

Background to the Modern Party System

Parliamentary government based on the party system has been established in Britain only over the past 100 years. Even as recently as the early nineteenth century there was no clear-cut division in the House of Com-

mons along modern party lines. The terms 'Whig' and 'Tory' to describe certain political leanings had been in use for about 150 years but there was virtually no party organisation outside Parliament. The House of Commons did not present a picture of opposing parties, but of political groups which could only be classified roughly in accordance with the measurement of their consistency in support of or in opposition to the King's government.

The reason for this lack of cohesion lay to some extent, in the comparatively small size and exclusive nature of the electorate. In the counties there was a uniform franchise qualification of a freehold (that is, clear income) of 40 shillings a year, fixed in the fifteenth century, but in the boroughs the franchise varied enormously. In some there was manhood suffrage, in some ratepayer suffrage, in some the mayor and the corporation returned the Members of Parliament and in others the franchise was restricted to the owners of certain plots of land (burgages). The new industrial areas, such as Manchester (with a population of 133,000), were unrepresented in the Commons while at the other end of the scale ancient boroughs which had decayed over the years and had few or no inhabitants sent several members. The outcome of elections was decided by a small number of influential citizens, and not by the public at large. The personal influence of a candidate counted for more than the policy of a party; and once an MP had been elected he was under no obligation to follow a party line. In 1830 the total electorate of Britain was only about 500,000 out of an adult population of 10 million.

The first parliamentary Reform Act, in 1832, while it did not greatly increase the electorate (this rose to only 720,000 by its provisions), put the franchise on a more consistent basis and, perhaps most important of all, began the process of redistribution of seats in proportion to population. An Act of 1867 in effect enfranchised the urban workers and another in 1884 the rural workers, extending the vote to most adult males. Female suffrage followed in the twentieth century. The voting age for both men and women was lowered to 18 in 1969.

The expansion of the electorate was accompanied by the organisation of political parties in the modern sense, as the representatives of millions of newly enfranchised men (and later, women), politicians, who had hitherto stood in their constituencies as individuals, began to form coherent parties, pledged to carry out a definite policy based on stated principles which

their supporters were prepared to endorse. Side by side with party organisation inside the House of Commons came the development of country-wide party organisation outside Parliament – Liberal (formerly called Whig), Conservative (or Tory) and, from the late nineteenth century, Labour (or Socialist).

The Major Parties

The Conservative Party

The origins of the Conservative Party go back to the Tories of the late seventeenth century – the word ‘Conservative’ first came into use in the 1830s.

“The fundamental principles of the Conservative Party can be summarised as follows. First, individuals have an absolute right to liberty. Second, ownership is the strongest foundation of individual freedom, opportunity and independence. Third, Conservatives believe that freedom entails responsibility - to family, neighbours, and to nation. Fourth, it is the role of Government to strengthen individual liberty and choice while protecting the most vulnerable members of the community. Fifth, in economic affairs the Government should establish a climate in which enterprise can flourish, without directing or over-regulating businesses. Finally, Conservatives believe that Britain must remain strong, with secure defences, in order to provide the surest guarantee of peace”.

The Labour Party

The Labour Party’s origins go back to the last decade of the nineteenth century. “The true aim of the Labour Party is the creation of a genuinely free society in which the fundamental objective of government is the protection and extension of individual liberty irrespective of class, sex, age, race, colour or creed. To Labour, freedom is much more than the absence of restraint or the assertion of the rudimentary rights of citizenship. Protection from coercion – by state, corporate or private power of any sort – is only the first step towards liberty. When so many men and women cannot afford to make the choices which freedom provides, the idea that all enjoy equal and extensive liberty is a deception. Unless men and women have the power to choose, the right to choose has no value.”

The Liberal Democrats

The Liberal Democrats, known as the Social and Liberal Democrats, were formed in 1988 following the merger of the Liberal Party, established in the 1850s (known as the Whigs), and the Social Democratic Party (SDP), established in 1981 by a group of prominent politicians who had split from the Labour Party.

“The Liberal Democrats stand for the right of individuals to have control over their own lives, individual liberty lies at the heart of their beliefs. They aim to enable men and women to develop their own talents to the full, free from the arbitrary interference of government. The role of government is to guarantee this freedom, to create an enterprising, sustainable, free-market economy, to provide services for those in need and to work for peace and prosperity across the planet.”

Since 1945 eight general elections have been won by the Conservative Party and eight by the Labour Party; the great majority of members of the House of Commons have belonged to one of these two parties.

The party which wins most seats, although not necessarily most votes, at a general election, or which has the support of a majority of members in the House of Commons, usually forms the Government. By tradition, the leader of the majority party is asked by the Sovereign to form a government. About 100 of its members in the House of Commons and the House of Lords receive ministerial appointments, including appointments to the Cabinet on the advice of the Prime Minister. The largest minority party becomes the official Opposition, with its own leader and “shadow cabinet”.

Reading notes:

- **freehold** – *фригольд* (характерная для Англии форма феодального владения. Отменена в 1925 г.)

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions:

1. What is the main difference between the British Constitution and the constitutions of most other countries?
2. What are the three main branches of power? What bodies represent them in Britain? Are they totally independent of each other?
3. How long has the current political party system been in place?

4. How did franchise qualifications change over the years?
5. What positive changes did the Reform Acts of the 19th century introduce?
6. What political parties were called the Whigs and the Tories?
7. Which of the current political parties are the oldest/the youngest?
8. How is the British Government formed? Who appoints the Prime Minister?
9. What party is in power now? What is the name of the Prime Minister?

Exercise 2. Write a summary of the text in Russian.

Exercise 3. Study the translation prompts and the grammar and lexical comments to the Unit and translate the following sentences into Russian:

1. Conventions are rules and practices which are not legally enforceable but which are regarded as indispensable to the working of government; many are derived from the historical events through which the British system of government has evolved.

2. Even as recently as the early nineteenth century there was no clear-cut division in the House of Commons along modern party lines.

3. The new industrial areas were unrepresented in the Commons while at the other end of the scale ancient boroughs which had decayed over the years and had few or no inhabitants sent several members.

4. The personal influence of a candidate counted for more than the policy of a party; and once an MP had been elected he was under no obligation to follow a party line.

5. It is the role of Government to strengthen individual liberty and choice while protecting the most vulnerable members of the community.

6. The Labour Party origins go back to the last decade of the nineteenth century.

Exercise 4. Find in the text the English equivalents for the following words and phrases:

осуществимый (о законе); необходимый; происходить; развиваться; частично совпадать; представлять политический курс (на рассмотрение, одобрение); фактически, на деле; истинно свободное общество;

основная задача правительства; отсутствие ограничений; защищать права граждан; принуждение, насилие; слияние, объединение; произвольный; устойчивая рыночная экономика; по рекомендации.

Exercise 5. Suggest Russian equivalents for the following words and phrases:

government departments; subject to ministerial control; political leanings; to return; the public at large; to follow a party line; provisions (of a Parliamentary Act); to enfranchise; to stand as an individual; to endorse principles; the origins of the Party; ownership; vulnerable members of the community; to regulate business; irrespective of creed.

Exercise 6. Translate into English.

Партийная система является неотъемлемым элементом действующей конституции. Современная система основана на существовании организованных политических партий, каждая из которых выносит свою политическую программу на суд электората. Партии официально не зарегистрированы и не признаны в законодательном порядке, но на практике большинство кандидатов, участвующих в выборах, и почти все победившие кандидаты принадлежат к одной из основных партий. Начиная с 1945 г. у власти попеременно находятся Консервативная партия, уходящая корнями в XVIII век, и Лейбористская партия, возникшая в 90-х гг. XIX века.

В 1988 г. появилась новая партия – Партия либерал-демократов, образовавшаяся при слиянии Либеральной партии, ведущей свою историю с XVIII века, и Социал-демократической партии, образованной в 1981 г.

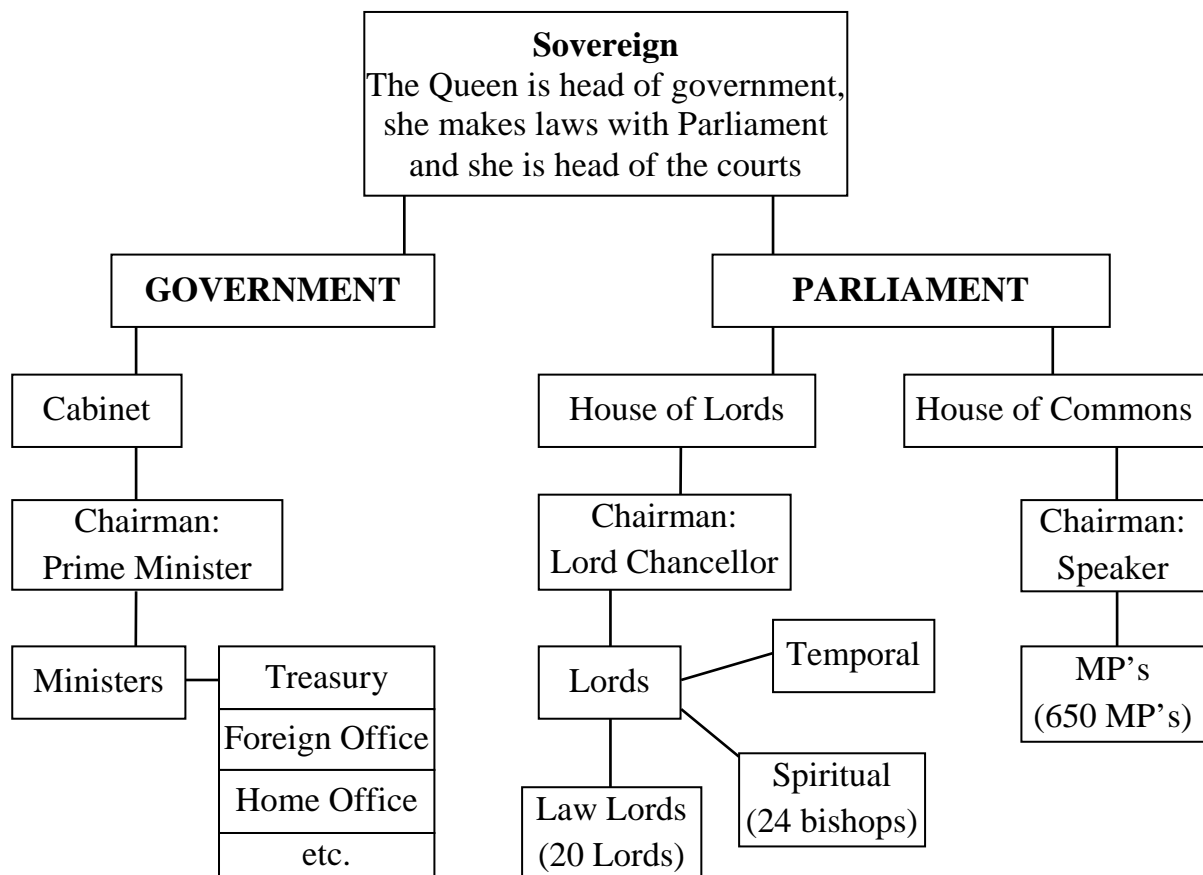
Exercise 7. Fill in the blanks.

1. In the UK there's no president, the Queen is of the
2. There are two Houses in the Parliament: and
3. People who sit in Commons are called
4. People who sit in Lords are called
5. British people for MPs at a general

6. The Party which wins a general forms the and their leader becomes the

7. After the Queen approves the bill it becomes

Exercise 8. Speak about the political system of Great Britain using this chart and information of the text.



Part II

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

The US System of Government

Vocabulary

to veto a bill – наложить вето на законопроект

to charge – обвинить

to put on trial – судить, предать суду

to approve the justices – утвердить судей

an associate justice – член суда

The United States of America (USA), consisting of 50 States and the District of Columbia, is a presidential Republic. The total area of the USA is over nine million square kilometres. The population of the USA is about 250 million people. The capital of the USA is Washington. American English is the official language of the USA.

The legislative branch of the US Government, or the Congress, represents all of the American states. It consists of two parts: the House of Representatives and the Senate. Each state has two senators, who are elected every 6 years. A senator must be at least 30 years old, a citizen of the United States for 9 years, and live in the state she or he will represent. A representative must be at least 25 years old, a citizen for 7 years, and live in the state.

The job of the Congress is to make laws. The President can veto a bill. The Congress can pass the law anyway if it gets a two-thirds majority vote. The Congress can also declare war. The House of Representatives can also impeach the President. This means that the House can charge the President with a crime. In this case, the Senate will put the President on trial. The Senate votes to approve the justices that the President appoints to the Supreme Court.

The executive branch of the government puts the country's laws into effect. The President of the United States is a member of the executive branch. The President must be at least 35 years old, and be a natural citizen of the USA. In addition, he must have lived in the US for at least 14 years, and be a civilian. The President is elected every four years and cannot serve more than two terms. The Vice-President of the USA is a president of the Senate. When the President receives a bill from the Congress, he must sign it, and then the bill becomes a law. However, if he disagrees with the law, he can veto it. The President can also ask the Congress to declare war. He also appoints the justices to the Supreme Court. He must do his job according to the Constitution, or he may be impeached.

The judicial branch of the government is the system of courts in the United States. Its job is to enforce laws. The Supreme Court is the highest court in the country. It consists of 9 justices: one Chief Justice and 8 associate justices. The President appoints the justices, but the Senate must approve them. The justices are appointed for life. The Supreme Court makes sure that people obey the laws. The Supreme Court can also decide if a law

is constitutional, that is, if it is in agreement with the Constitution. The judicial branch works together with the legislative and executive branches to protect the Constitution and the – rights of people.

Three different lawmaking groups exist in the United States: (1) legislatures, (2) agencies, and (3) courts. Legislatures pass laws directly, agencies develop laws that help put legislative rulings into effect, and courts establish laws as a result of case decisions.

The White House is the President's residence.

The US national flag – Stars and Stripes – is red, white and blue. 13 strips represent the original 13 states of the USA; the 50 stars represent the current number of states of the USA.

Exercise 1. Complete the following text with the words and phrases from the box, using them in the appropriate form.

to divide;	to manage;	to warrant;
to be based on;	to follow;	to provide;
to track down;	to deal with;	to cross;
to be put;	to be enforced;	to involve;
to break;	to be established;	to be presented.

The whole system of American government a)_____ the principles b)_____ in the Constitution and Bill of Rights. The people believe that the government should c)_____ a framework of law and order in which they are much the same pattern as the federal left free to run their own lives.

The state governments d)_____ government. Each has a governor as the chief executive, with power e)_____ among the Executive, Legislative and Judicial branches. State governments f) _____ such affairs as maintaining order, educating children and young adults, and building highways. The federal government g)_____ national problems and international relations and with regional problems that h)_____ more than one state. Laws affecting the daily lives of citizens i)_____ by police in the cities and towns. Agents of the Federal Bureau of Investigation – the famous FBI – j)_____ criminals who k)_____ state borders or who l)_____ federal laws.

Before an accused person can m)_____ on trail for a serious crime in a federal court -or in the courts of many states – the case must n)_____ o)_____ to a grand jury of private citizens who decide whether there is enough evidence of probable guilt p)_____ a trial.

The Constitution and the Bill of Rights

The former colonies, now "the United States of America", first operated under an agreement called the Articles of Confederation (1781). It was soon clear that this loose agreement among the states was not working well. The central, federal government was too weak, with too few powers for defence, trade, and taxation. In 1787, therefore, delegates from the states met in Philadelphia. They wanted to revise the Articles, but they did much more than that. They wrote a completely new document, the Constitution, which after much argument, debate, and compromise was finished in the same year and officially adopted by the thirteen states by 1790.

The Constitution, the oldest still in force in the world, sets the basic form of government: three separate branches, each one having powers ("checks and balances") over the others. It specifies the powers and duties of each federal branch of government, with all other powers and duties belonging to the states. The Constitution has been repeatedly amended to meet the changing needs of the nation, but it is still the "supreme law of the land". All governments and governmental groups, federal, state, and local, must operate within its guidelines. The ultimate power under the Constitution is not given to the President (the executive branch), or to the Supreme Court (the judicial branch). Nor does it rest, as in many other countries, with a political group or party. It belongs to "We the People", in fact and in spirit.

In this way, Americans first took for themselves the liberties and rights that elsewhere were the privileges of an elite few. Americans would manage their own laws. And, of course, they would make their own mistakes.

They stated in the first ten Constitutional Amendments, known together as the Bill of Rights, what they considered to be the fundamental rights of any American. Among these rights are the freedom of religion, speech, and the press, the right of peaceful assembly, and the right to petition the government to correct wrongs. Other rights guarded the citizens

against unreasonable searches, arrests, and seizures of property, and established a system of justice guaranteeing orderly legal procedures. This included the right of trial by jury, that is, being judged by one's fellow citizens.

The great pride Americans have in their Constitution, their almost religious respect for it comes from the knowledge that these ideals, freedoms, and rights were not given to them by a small ruling class. Rather, they are seen as the natural "unalienable" rights of every American, which had been fought for and won. They cannot be taken away by any government, court, official, or law.

The federal and state governments formed under the Constitution, therefore, were designed to serve the people and to carry out their majority wishes (and not the other way around). One thing they did not want their government to do is to rule them. Americans expect their government to serve them and tend to think of politicians and governmental officials as their servants. This attitude remains very strong among Americans today.

Over the past two centuries, the Constitution has also had considerable influence outside the United States. Several other nations have based their own forms of government on it. It is interesting to note that Lafayette, a hero of the American Revolution, drafted the French declaration of rights when he returned to France. And the United Nations Charter also has clear echoes of what once was considered a revolutionary document.

Exercise 1. Complete the following text with suitable words or phrases from the text above.

When the Constitution was written in 1787, there were only 13 states. Because the (a)_____ of the Constitution saw that the future might bring a need for changes, they (b)_____ a method of adding (c)_____. Over the years 26 amendments have been added, but the basic (d)_____ has not been (e)_____. The pattern of government planned so long ago for 13 states today meets the needs of 50 states.

The first 10 amendments to the Constitution, called the (f)_____ assure individual (g)_____ and (h)_____. Added in 1791, they include provisions for freedom of citizens to (k)_____ peacefully; the right to be (l)_____ in one's own home against unreasonable

(m)_____ and (n)_____ of person or property; and the right of any person charged with (o)_____ the law to have a speedy trial by a (p)_____ of fellow (q)_____ .

The Costitution (r)_____ the powers of the government into three branches: the (s)_____ headed by the (t)_____ ; the (u)_____ , which include both houses of (v)_____ (the Senate and the House of Representatives) and the the (w)_____ which is headed by the Supreme Court. The Constitution limits the role of each (x)_____ to prevent any one branch from gaining undue (y)_____ .

Exercise 2. Find in the text the English equivalents for the expressions below:

- вносить поправки в конституцию;
- пересмотреть документ;
- действовать в соответствии с соглашением;
- свобода совести;
- управлять своими собственными делами;
- принять конституцию;
- определить чьи-либо полномочия;
- действовать в рамках конституции;
- получить необоснованно большую власть;
- незаконный арест;
- свобода собраний;
- захват собственности;
- удовлетворять требованиям.

Exercise 3. Answer the questions:

1. How does the American Constitution separate the powers of the government?
2. Has the text of the Constitution ever been changed? How did it become possible?
3. Does any governmental organ or official in the US have the ultimate power? Why?
4. What is the Bill of Rights?

Exercise 4. Work in pairs and discuss the following questions:

1. What is the difference between the American Constitution and the Bill of Rights?
2. What is the difference between the constitutions of the UK and the US?

Exercise 5. Make a list of features of the American Constitution which you consider the most important.

Part III

THE RUSSIAN FEDERATION

The political system of the Russian Federation

The Russian Federation was set up by the Constitution of 1993. After its destruction the Soviet Union was broken up into independent Russia and 14 other new, sovereign nations 1991.

Under the Constitution of 1993 Russia is a Presidential Republic. It is headed by the President who is elected for a four-year term. The President is a commander-in-chief of the armed forces, he makes treaties, and enforces laws, appoints the prime minister, cabinet members, and key judges. The President can override and in some cases even dissolve the national parliament, the bicameral Federal Assembly.

The government consists of three branches: legislative, executive and judicial. Each of them is checked and balanced by the President. The legislative power is vested in the Federal Assembly. It consists of the Federation Council (upper house) and the State Duma (lower house). The members of the State Duma are elected by popular vote for a four-year period. The Federation Council is not elected. It is formed of the heads of the regions. Each Chamber is headed by the Chairman. Legislature is initiated in the State Duma. But to become a law a bill must be approved by the Lower and Upper Houses and signed by the President. The executive power belongs to the Government. The judicial branch is represented by the Constitutional Court, the Supreme Court and regional courts.

Exercise 1. Translate into English.

Россия – демократическое федеративное государство, основанное на форме правления. Государственная власть в России осуществляется Президентом, Федеральным собранием, Правительством и судами. Один из основных принципов конституционного правительства – разделение полномочий. В соответствии с этим принципом власть не должна быть сконцентрирована в руках одного человека или одного учреждения, но должна быть разделена среди законодательных, исполнительных и судебных ветвей власти. Президент возглавляет систему государственной власти. Он гарантирует, что все государственные учреждения в состоянии выполнить свои обязанности. Президент России – глава государства. Президент избирается людьми, чтобы отслужить четырехлетний срок. Президент с одобрения нижней палаты парламента назначает премьер-министра в качестве главы Правительства. Совет министров осуществляет действия Правительства. Президентское место в государственной системе власти касается, прежде всего, исполнительной ветви власти. Юридически Президент дистанцирован от всех ветвей власти, но он тем не менее остается ближе к исполнительной власти. Президент имеет право распустить Правительство.

The Constitution of the Russian Federation

Vocabulary

to come into force – вступать в силу

to lay responsibility upon smb – налагать ответственность на

to safeguard Russia's sovereignty – защищать суверенитет России

territorial integrity – территориальная целостность

unity – единство

equality – равенство

to revere memory – чтить память

faith in good and justice – вера в добро и справедливость

The Constitution of the Russian Federation was adopted on the 12th of December, 1993. More than 58 million voters took part in the referendum on the new draft constitution. 32 million people voted in favour of the draft constitution. The new Constitution came into force on the 25th of De-

ember, 1993, when it was officially published. The adoption of the 1993 Constitution marked the beginning of a new era in the history of the Russian Federation. The Constitution forms the country's legal foundation, proclaims the President of the Russian Federation the head of state and lays upon him the responsibility for defending the Constitution, human rights and civil liberties, safeguarding Russia's sovereignty, independence and territorial integrity, and ensuring the coordinated functioning and cooperation of the state bodies of power.

We, the multinational people of the Russian Federation, are united by a common fate on our land. We establish human rights and freedoms, civil peace and accord and preserve the historically established State unity, principles of equality and self-determination of peoples. Russian people revere the memory of ancestors who have passed on to us their love for the Motherland and faith in good and justice. They revive the sovereignty of Russia for future generations. We recognize ourselves a part of the world community. We adopt the Constitution of the Russian Federation.

Exercise 1. In this table you can read the extracts from the Constitution. Complete the sentences with the word on the right in its appropriate form.

Everyone have the right to ...	LIVE
Basic general ... shall be compulsory. Parents or guardians shall ensure that children receive a basic general education.	EDUCATE
All persons shall be ... before the law and the court.	EQUALITY
Everyone shall have the right to use his (her) native language and to a free choice of the language of ..., ... and ... work.	COMMUNICATE EDUCATE CREATE
Everyone shall be guaranteed ... of ... and speech.	FREE SPEAK
The freedom of the mass media is	GUARANTEE
Everyone shall have the right freely to use his (her) labour skills and to choose the type of ... and	ACTIVE OCCUPY
Everyone shall have the right to	RESTFUL
Everyone shall have the right to ... protection and medical care.	HEALTH

Exercise 2. Answer the questions:

1. When was the Constitution of the Russian Federation adopted?
2. When did it come into force?
3. What does the Constitution proclaim?
4. What does the Constitution guarantee?

Russian Presidents

Vocabulary

Supreme Commander-in-chief – верховный главнокомандующий
the Federation Council – Совет Федерации
the Central Election Commission – Центральная избирательная комиссия
the State Duma – Государственная дума
an amendment – поправка
consecutive – последующий
to resign the position to – передать должность к.-л.
retirement – отставка
a successor – преемник
to inaugurate – вступать в должность
the United Russia Party – Партия Единая Россия
to curb corruption – бороться с коррупцией
a contender – соперник

The President of the Russian Federation is the head of the state, Supreme Commander-in-chief and holder of the highest office within the Russian Federation. However, he is not the head of the executive branch. The Government of Russia is the highest organ of executive power. The current president of Russia is Vladimir Putin.

Before December 25, 1991 the head of the state was known as the President of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic.

The election of the President is mainly regulated by the Presidential Election Law and the Basic Guarantees of Electoral Rights (BGL).

The Federation Council calls the presidential elections. If it does not call a presidential election that is due, the Central Election Commission will call the presidential election. The Election Day is the second Sunday of the month and the presidential electoral constituency is the territory of the Russian Federation as a whole.

Each fraction in the State Duma, the lower house of the Russian parliament has the right to nominate a candidate for the presidential elections. The minimum number of signatures for a presidential candidate fielded by a political party with no parliamentary representation is 100,000, down from 2 million before amendments to the law.

The President is elected in a two-round system every six years, with a two consecutive term limitation. A candidate for office must be a citizen of the Russian Federation of at least 35 years old, and 'permanently lived' in Russia for at least 10 years. Prior to 2012, the term of office was four years. If no candidate wins by an absolute majority in the first round, a second election round is held between two candidates with the most votes. The last presidential election was in 2012, and the next is expected in 2018.

Three Russian Presidents

There were only few elections of presidents in Russia. We can name these names.

1. The first president

Our first president was Boris Eltsin.

He was the first freely elected President of Russia in 1991. On June 12, 1991 Boris Yeltsin was elected as the first President of Russia with 57 % of the vote, becoming the first popularly elected president. In June 1996 Boris Yeltsin was re-elected for a second term as President of the Russian Federation.

Boris Yeltsin was born in a peasant family in the village of Butka, in the Talitsa district of Sverdlovsk Oblast in Russia on February 1, 1931. In 1991 he became the first popularly elected leader in the country's history. Yeltsin attended the Urals Polytechnic Institute and worked at various con-

struction projects in the Sverdlovsk oblast from 1955 to 1968, joining the Communist Party in 1961. In 1968 he began full-time work in the party and in 1976 became first secretary of the Sverdlovsk oblast party committee.

Once Yeltsin took power, he moved to reform the newly capitalist and democratic country. But Yeltsin never recovered his popularity after a series of economic and political crises in Russia in the 1990s. The Yeltsin era was marked by widespread corruption, economic collapse, and enormous political and social problems. After nine years as President, he decided that Russia needed a new leadership and resigned the position to Vladimir Putin. On the 31st of December, 1999 President Yeltsin announced his retirement and appointed Vladimir Putin as his successor.

2. The second president

Vladimir Putin was the second president of our country. In December 1999, Boris Yeltsin resigned as a president of Russia and appointed Putin acting president until official elections were held. He became the President in 1999, and was re-elected twice in 2000 and in 2004. Although he is widely criticized for human rights violations. In May 2008 he would become Russia's next Prime Minister as he was barred from running for another term as president. On March 4, 2012, Vladimir Putin was re-elected to the presidency, and he was inaugurated to his third term as Russia's President on May 7, 2012. Soon after taking office, he nominated Medvedev as a prime minister.

Vladimir Putin was born on October 7, 1952 in Leningrad, USSR (now St. Petersburg, the Russian Federation) in the family of a factory worker. While at school, he was fond of doing sports and loved spy movies.

Putin graduated from the International Law branch of the Law Department of the Leningrad State University in 1975. Upon graduation, he was sent to work for the national security agency known as the KGB.

Vladimir Putin has been elected president of the Russian Federation for the third time. The inauguration ceremony took place at St. George's Hall of the Moscow Kremlin on May 7, 2012.

In 1996 Putin moved to Moscow and in August became Deputy Chief of the Presidential Property Management Department headed by Pavel Borodin and shortly afterwards was appointed a chief of the Main Control Directorate of the Presidential Property Management Department. In August 1999 he was appointed as a deputy prime minister.

On December 31, 1999, President Boris Yeltsin unexpectedly resigned and, according to the constitution, Putin became acting President of the Russian Federation.

On March 26, 2000, Putin won in the first round of presidential elections with 52.94 % of the vote. He was inaugurated as a president on May 7, 2000.

On March 14, 2004, Putin was re-elected for a second term, receiving 71.31 % of the vote.

In April 2008, Putin was elected as a chairman of the United Russia Party. However, he didn't become a member of the party.

On May 7, 2008, Putin handed presidency to Medvedev.

He served as a prime minister from May 8, 2008 to May 6, 2012.

On March 4, 2012 Putin won the Russian presidential elections in the first round, with 63.6 % of the vote. He speaks German and English fluently, and is a Master of Sports in sambo and judo.

He loves mountain skiing. Putin was married and has two daughters.

3. The third president

The third president was Dmitry Medvedev. Dmitry Medvedev was born in Saint Petersburg, Russia, in 1965. He studied at the Saint Petersburg State University in law. He was appointed as Chairman of Gazprom by Vladimir Putin, in an effort to curb corruption. Medvedev is known as a sharp legal and business mind with an interest in economic reform. The son of university professors, he earned a law degree (1987) and then a doctorate (1990) at Leningrad State University. He became an assistant professor of law at the same school while also running his own consulting firms and working in local politics, where met Vladimir Putin.

In 2003 he was named Presidential Chief of Staff. In 2005 he was appointed as First Deputy Prime Minister. In 2008 he ran in the presiden-

tial elections and won with over 70 % of the votes. The third President of the Russian Federation was inaugurated on 7 May 2008. Medvedev was elected as the President of Russia on 2 March 2008. According to the final election results, he won 70.28 % (52,530,712) of votes with a turnout of over 69.78 % of registered voters. The main other contenders, Gennady Zyuganov and Vladimir Zhirinovskiy, received 17.72 and 9.35 % respectively. On May 7th, 2012 he became the Prime Minister of Russia while Vladimir Putin became its president.

Thus, in Russia there were three presidents:

Name	Term of office	Length of term
Boris Yeltsin	1991 – 1999	8 years, 6 days
Vladimir Putin (1st and 2nd tenure)	2000 – 2008	8 years, 0 days
Dmitry Medvedev	2008 – 2012	4 years, 0 days
Vladimir Putin (3rd tenure)	2012 – current	

Exercise 1. Speak about each Russian president according to the plan:

1. Date and place of birth.
2. The institution he graduated from.
3. Occupations of his parents.
4. Places he worked at and positions he held.
5. Years of presidency.
6. Main reforms and trends his presidency was marked by.

Exercise 2. Think and answer:

Do you prefer the President or the Tsar in our country? Why?

UNIT III

INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

European Union

Vocabulary

intergovernmental – межправительственный

supranational – наднациональный

treaty – договор, соглашение, конвенция

predecessor – предшественник

relationship – отношение, взаимоотношение, взаимосвязь, касательство, связь (between; to, towards; with)

to date back – датироваться

to cover – накрывать, покрывать, защищать, ограждать, укрывать, закрывать, скрывать, маскировать, прятать

public policy – государственная политика

foreign affairs – международные отношения, область внешней политики

defence – защита, оборона

extent – пространство, протяжение, расстояние, протяженность, объем, мера, степень, рамки, пределы

to depend – зависеть, находиться в зависимости (*от кого-л. / чего-л. – on, upon*), положиться (*на кого-то – on, upon*), доверять (*кому-то*)

confederation – конфедерация, федерация, союз, союз государств

consumer – потребитель

home affairs – внутренняя политика

establishment – создание, образование, учреждение, учереждение, организация

common single market – общий рынок, единый рынок

customs union – таможенный союз

single currency – единая валюта

to adopt – принимать, принимать (*что-л.* официально – закон, постановление и т. п.), перенимать, усваивать
trade policy – торговая политика
Common Fisheries Policy – рыбоохранная политика
the Council of the European Union – Совет Евросоюза
the European Commission – Европейская комиссия
the European Parliament – Европейский парламент
the European Court of Justice – Европейский суд (рассматривает дела о нарушении законов Европейского сообщества)
enlargement – расширение, увеличение, распространение, укрупнение
successive – последующий, следующий, следующий один за другим, последовательный
to occur – происходить, случаться, совершаться
notwithstanding – несмотря на, вопреки, тем не менее, однако, все же
home rule – *зд.* самоуправление
to refer – направлять, отсылать (*за какой-л.* информацией и т.п.; *к какому-л.* факту, событию и т.п., *к кому-л./чему-л.*; to, back to); приписывать (*чему-л.*); относить на счет (*чего-л.*); иметь отношение, относиться; касаться; ссылаться, опираться (*на кого-л./на что-л., чьи-л.* слова и т.п. – to)
in order to – для того чтобы
to fulfill – выполнять, делать, исполнять, осуществлять, совершать
summit – встреча или совещание глав правительств
current – текущий, данный, современный
approximately – близко, около, почти, приближенно, приблизительно

The European Union or the EU is an intergovernmental and supranational union of countries, known as member states. The European Union was established under that name in 1992 by the Treaty on European Union, the Maastricht Treaty. However, many aspects of the Union existed before that date through a series of predecessor relationships, dating back to 1951.

The European Union's activities cover all areas of public policy, from health and economic policy to foreign affairs and defence. However, the extent of its powers differs greatly between areas. Depending on the area, the EU may therefore resemble a federation, for example, on monetary affairs, agricultural, trade and environmental policy or a confederation, for example, on social and economic policy, consumer protection, home affairs, or even an international organization, for example, in foreign affairs.

A key activity of the EU is the establishment and administration of a common single market, consisting of a customs union, a single currency adopted by member states, a Common Agricultural Policy, a common trade policy, and a Common Fisheries Policy.

The most important EU institutions are the Council of the European Union, the European Commission, the European Parliament and the European Court of Justice.

As to the enlargement of the EU there were five successive enlargements, with the largest occurring on May 1, 2004, when 10 new member states joined.

In order to join the European Union, a state needs to fulfill the economic and political conditions generally known as the Copenhagen criteria, after the Copenhagen summit in June, 1993. Also, according to the EU Treaty, each current member state and the European Parliament have to agree.

Exercise 1. Translate into English.

Европейский союз – это межправительственное и наднациональное объединение, созданное в 1992 году Маастрихтским соглашением о Европейском союзе.

Деятельность Евросоюза касается всех сфер государственной деятельности: здравоохранения, экономики, внешней политики, обороны.

Ключом всего существования Евросоюза является создание и управление единым рынком, который объединяет таможенный союз, единую валюту, единую сельскохозяйственную, торговую и рыбоохранную политику.

Самыми важными учреждениями Евросоюза являются Совет Евросоюза, Еврокомиссия, Парламент Евросоюза и Европейский судебный орган.

Чтобы присоединиться к Евросоюзу, государство должно выполнить ряд экономических и политических условий, известных как Копенгагенский критерий. К тому же в соответствии с соглашением Евросоюза каждый нынешний член Евросоюза должен одобрить это вступление.

Exercise 2. Answer the questions:

1. What is the European Union?
2. When was the European Union established?
3. What were the purposes of the European Union creation?
4. What countries joined the European Union in 2004?
5. Do you want Ukraine to join the European Union?
6. What was the largest enlargement of the EU?
7. How many enlargements were there?
8. Is the EU a federation or confederation?
9. What should a state do in order to join the EU?
10. Does Greenland enter the EU?
11. What is the area of the European Union?
12. What is the population of the EU?

Interpol

Vocabulary

prior to – раньше, прежде, до

facilities – зд. инфраструктура

to utilize – утилизировать, использовать, расходовать, употреблять

the Gestapo – гестапо (нацистская тайная полиция)

a regime – режим, власть, система, строй

senior – старший (по возрасту или по социальному положению, антоним, противоположный по смыслу – junior младший), вышестоящий, главный, пользующийся преимуществом, преимущественный

currently – теперь, в настоящее время, ныне
vicinity – близость, соседство, окрестность, округ, район
to forbid (forbade, forbidden) – запрещать, не позволять, препятствовать
involvement – вовлеченность, участие (*в чем-л.* – in, with)
primarily – сначала, первоначально, в основном, главным образом
an organized crime – организованная преступность
illicit drug production – незаконное производство наркотиков
money laundering – отмывание денег

Interpol, the International Criminal Police Organization, was created in 1923 to assist international criminal police co-operation. The organization's new name was adopted in 1956, prior to which it was known as the International Criminal Police Commission.

Interpol was founded in Austria in 1923 as the International Criminal Police Commission. The organization came under control of Nazi Germany when Germany declared the Anschluss, political union between Germany and Austria. The staff and facilities of Interpol were utilised as an information gathering unit for the Gestapo, until the Nazi regime fell to Allied forces.

Senior military officials from Britain, France, Belgium and Scandinavia reorganized Interpol into today's organization.

The United States, after a period of isolationism, joined Interpol in 1961.

Interpol is the world's second largest international organization, after the United Nations; it currently has 184 member countries. It is financed by annual contributions from its member countries. The Organization is headquartered in Lyon, France, formerly headquartered in Saint Cloud, a town located in the vicinity of Paris.

Because of the politically neutral role Interpol must play, its Constitution forbids any involvement in any political, military, religious, or racial crimes. Its work concentrates primarily on public safety and terrorism, organized crime, illicit drug production and drug trafficking, weapons smuggling, trafficking in human beings, money laundering, child pornography, financial and high-tech crime, and corruption.

In October 2001, the Interpol General Secretariat employed a staff of 384, representing 54 different countries. That same month, Interpol began to change from a 9-to-5 agency to a 24-hour agency, making its work more efficient.

Exercise 1. Answer the questions:

1. What is Interpol?
2. When was Interpol established?
3. What were the main purposes of Interpol creation?
4. What activity limitations does Interpol have?
5. When did the United States join Interpol?
6. How many member countries are there in the organization at the moment?
7. What is forbidden for Interpol?
8. Where is the Organization headquartered?

Exercise 2. Translate into English.

Международная организация криминальной полиции (Интерпол) была создана в 1923 году для того, чтобы помогать в работе международной криминальной полиции.

Когда Германия объявила Аншлюс (политическое объединение Германии и Австрии), организация попала под нацистский контроль. Персонал и инфраструктура Интерпола использовались в целях сбора информации для гестапо до тех пор, пока нацистский режим не пал под натиском союзников.

Высокопоставленные офицеры из Британии, Франции, Бельгии и Скандинавских стран реорганизовали Интерпол в ту организацию, которую мы знаем сегодня.

Интерпол является второй по величине международной организацией после Организации Объединенных Наций. Сейчас организация насчитывает более 180 стран-членов организации. Финансируется Интерпол путем ежегодных взносов стран-членов этой организации. Штаб-квартира организации расположена в Лионе, Франция.

Основной закон Интерпола запрещает вмешиваться в преступления на почве политики, религии, расовой нетерпимости и в военные преступления. Его работа в основном сконцентрирована на обеспечении социальной безопасности и предотвращении угрозы терроризма, на преследовании организованной преступности, незаконного производства и оборота наркотиков, контрабанды оружия, торговли людьми, отмывания денег, детской порнографии, финансовых преступлений и преступлений в сфере хай-тек, а также коррупции.

В 2001 году Интерпол перешел с восьмичасового рабочего дня (с 9.00 до 17.00) на круглосуточный график работы, что способствует более эффективной работе организации.

The European Community

Vocabulary

to dominate – доминировать, господствовать

European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) – Европейское объединение угля и стали (ЕОУС)

efficient – эффективный, продуктивный

to promote – содействовать развитию, поддерживать

to increase – увеличивать

profit – прибыль

common market – общий рынок

to run (ran; run) – управлять

to follow – придерживаться, следовать

Benelux – *сокр.* от Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg

to sign – подписывать

to apply (for) – обращаться (за разрешением)

employment – занятость

headquarters – штаб-квартира

Commissioner – специальный уполномоченный

to accept – принимать

to reject – отклонять

a summit – встреча или совещание глав правительств

crucial – решающий

currency – валюта

How it all began

After World War II, Europe was weak.

- Millions of its citizens had died.
- The age of Empire was dead.
- Two new superpowers, America and the Soviet Union, now dominated international affairs.

Europe had to find a new role. It began to do this in 1952 with the creation of the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC). This organisation had six members – France, West Germany, Italy, Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg. Its job was to unite Europe's coal and steel industries. Why? (a) To make them more efficient, (b) To increase profits, (c) To promote peace and co-operation. Five years later, the same countries went even further. At a conference in Rome they decided to form the European Economic Community (or 'EEC'). This agreement created a 'common market' with (a) central organisations like the European Commission and the European Parliament run it, (b) common rules on trade and agriculture, which each government in the Community agreed to follow.

The Members

France, West Germany, Italy and the Benelux countries signed the Treaty of Rome in 1957. Denmark, the UK and Ireland joined the Community sixteen years later in 1973. Greece became a member in 1981, and five years later, so did Spain and Portugal. That made a total of twelve as the 1990s began, but more countries seem certain to join. Austria, Sweden and Turkey have already applied for membership. And then, of course, there are ex-Communist countries of Central and Eastern Europe.

What the EC does

Today's Community (it's usually called the EC now, not the EEC) works hard to promote European business, industry and free trade. It's not just an economic organisation, though. These days, EC decisions and laws affect almost every aspect of life in the member countries, including:

• education • employment • energy • the environment • foreign aid • human rights • the law • medical and scientific research • transport. Now

let's look at some of the organisations which propose (the European Commission), debate (the European Parliament) and take those decisions (the Council of Ministers/Euro-Summits).

The European Commission

This is where new 'Euro' ideas are born. The Commission's headquarters are in Brussels and it employs over 1,500 people. The most important of these are: (a) the President of the Commission, (b) seventeen 'Commissioners' – two each from Germany, France, Italy, Britain and Spain – one from each of the other member nations. They serve for four years and are responsible not to their national parliaments, but to the European Parliament.

Ideas come from the Commissioners and their teams or 'cabinets' (each one specialises in a different subject, e.g. trade or agriculture). These ideas are then either accepted or rejected by a majority vote of all the Commissioners. If an idea is accepted, it moves forward to the European Parliament.

The European Parliament

Members of the European Parliament (MEPs) are directly elected every five years by voters in their own countries. There are 518 of them:

- France, Britain, Germany and Italy have 81 each.
- Spain has 60.
- The Netherlands – 25.
- Belgium, Greece and Portugal have 24 each.
- Denmark has 16.
- Ireland has 15.
- Luxembourg has 6.

Where do they work and what powers do they have? They work in two different places. (1) Strasbourg (in northern France). That's where the main Parliament building is and where debates take place. (2) Brussels. The majority of MEP's job consists of research, meetings and committee work. Most of this happens in the Belgian capital. As for powers – MEPs can't actually pass laws What they can do, though, is represent the views of

ordinary Europeans. The Parliament's... • reports • debates • recommendations... are a vital democratic link between the Commission and the Council of Ministers.

The Council of Ministers

This organisation consists of government ministers from all member countries who meet regularly to talk about Community business. For example, when important agricultural issues (which have come through the Commission and the Parliament) need to be discussed, there's a meeting of the agriculture ministers – when transport issues need to be discussed, the transport ministers meet, and so on. Most EC decisions are made by the Council of Ministers. Most, but not all. Why is that? Because really central questions are decided at an even higher level – namely at Euro-Summits.

Euro-Summits

These crucial meetings take place three times per year. The people who go to them are:

- (a) Heads of State (Presidents and Prime Ministers).
- (b) Foreign Ministers.

It's during summits that the EC's biggest decisions are taken (or sometimes not taken).

Exercise. Answer the questions:

1. When did the EC begin?
2. Which ones are waiting to join?
3. How do all the different parts (e.g. the commission, the Parliament and the Council of Ministers) actually work?
4. How will the Community develop in years to come?

Commonwealth of Independent States

Vocabulary

alliance – союз, альянс (against, between, with), блок, объединение, федерация, союзник

former – бывший, давний, старый
dissolution – распад государства, империи, конец, смерть, исчезновение, вымирание, распад, увядание
purpose – назначение, намерение, цель, замысел, стремление
to allow – позволять, разрешать, предоставлять, давать возможность, делать возможным
divorce – развод, отделение, разъединение, разрыв
observer – наблюдатель, эксперт (во время военных событий и т. д.)
chairman – председатель
to initiate – вводить в должность, начать, приступать, положить начало
Natural Reserve – природный заповедник, природоохранная зона
illegal – незаконный, противозаконный, неправомерный, противоправный, нелегальный, запрещенный
constituent – образующий, слагающий, составляющий (часть целого), правомочный, наделенный властью, законодательный, компонент, компонента, составная часть
charter – право, привилегия, льгота, документ, разрешающий создание университета, компании и других корпораций, хартия, грамота
to ratify – ратифицировать, одобрять, санкционировать, утверждать, скреплять (подписью, печатью)
sovereign – суверенный, независимый, великолепный, отличный, превосходный, прекрасный
to abolish – аннулировать, отменять, упразднять, объявлять недействительным, разрушать, разбивать, уничтожать
controversial – спорный, сомнительный, поставленный под сомнение, вызывающий спор, дискуссионный
circumstance – обстоятельство, случай, условие, *мн. ч.* обстоятельства, условия
to overthrow (*прош. вр.* – overthrew; *прич. прош. вр.* – overthrown) – бросать слишком далеко, перебрасывать, свергать, побеждать, низвергать, уничтожать
predecessor – предшественник
likewise – подобно, так же, также; более того

to drift – смещаться, дрейфовать

to downgrade – переводить в низшую категорию; понижать; понижать в должности, снижать разряд

The Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) is a confederation, or alliance, created by Russia, Ukraine and Byelorussia.

Up to 2005 it consisted of 11 former Soviet Republics: Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Russia, Tajikistan, Ukraine, and Uzbekistan. Turkmenistan discontinued permanent membership as of August 26, 2005 and is now an associate member.

The creation of CIS signaled the dissolution of the Soviet Union and, according to leaders of Russia, its purpose was to allow a civilized divorce between the Soviet Republics. However, many observers have seen the CIS as a tool that would allow Russia to keep its influence over the post-Soviet states. Since its formation, the member-states of CIS have signed a large number of documents concerning integration and cooperation on matters of economics, defence and foreign policy. The CIS is headquartered in Minsk, Belarus. The chairman of the CIS is known as the executive secretary. All of the CIS's executive secretaries have been from Belarus or Russia.

Initiating the dissolution of the Soviet Union in the autumn of 1991, the leaders of Russia, Belarus, and Ukraine met on December 8 in the Belovezhskaya Pushcha Natural Reserve, about 50 km north of Brest in Belarus, and signed an agreement establishing the CIS. At the same time they announced that the new confederation would be open to all republics of the former Soviet Union, as well as other nations sharing the same goals.

Soviet President Mikhail Gorbachev described this as an illegal and dangerous constitutional coup, but it soon became clear that the development could not be stopped and on December 21, 1991, the leaders of 11 of the 15 constituent republics of the USSR met in Alma-Ata, Kazakhstan, and signed the charter, thus de facto ratifying the initial CIS treaty. The Soviet government had already recognized the independence of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania on September 6, 1991, and the three Baltic nations as well as Georgia refused to join CIS. The CIS charter stated that all the members were sovereign and independent nations and thereby effectively abolished the USSR.

The 11 original member-states were Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Russia, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, and Uzbekistan. In December 1993, Georgia also joined the CIS under somewhat controversial circumstances, following a civil war.

Between 2003 and 2005, the so called «colour revolutions» have been taking place in three CIS member states – Georgia, Ukraine and Kyrgyzstan. The official slogan of these revolutions was the democratization of the society. The new government and political leaders of these countries have taken a clearly pro-Western stance contrasted to their predecessors. And now we can see that Ukraine, Georgia and Kyrgyzstan are quietly drifting away from the CIS.

In that time frame a number of statements have been made by member state officials, casting doubt on the potential and continued worth of the CIS.

Exercise. Answer the questions:

1. What is the CIS?
2. What countries were the founders of the CIS?
3. What countries are in the CIS at the moment?
4. When did Turkmenistan discontinue its permanent membership in the CIS?
5. What was the signal of the creation of CIS?
6. How did Soviet President Mikhail Gorbachev describe the creation of the CIS?
7. What were the main purposes of the CIS creation?
8. What leaderships of three CIS member states were overthrown in a series of «colour revolutions»?
9. When did Turkmenistan downgrade its CIS status of an associate member?
10. When was the dissolution of the Soviet Union initiated?
11. When was the initial CIS treaty ratified?
12. When did the Soviet government recognize the independence of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania?
13. Were Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania the members of the CIS?
14. When did Georgia enter the CIS?

OSCE – Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe

Vocabulary

to concern – касаться, относиться, описывать, говорить, волноваться, беспокоиться (about, over)

to warn – предупреждать, предостерегать, извещать, оповещать

prevention – предотвращение, предохранение, предупреждение

the Mediterranean – Средиземноморье

Ministerial Council – Совет министров

Senior Council – Высший совет

Permanent Council – Перманентный совет

Chairman-in-Office – председатель

rule of law – норма права

CSCE – Совещание по безопасности и сотрудничеству в Европе (СБСЕ)

to moot – ставить вопрос на обсуждение, обсуждать, рассматривать

the Cold War – «холодная война»

substantial – крепкий, прочный, солидный, действительный, материальный, реальный, реально существующий

talks – переговоры

to reduce – ослаблять, понижать, сокращать, уменьшать

tension – напряжение, напряженное состояние, напряженность (также об интеллектуальной, нервной деятельности и т. д.), натянутость, неестественность, неловкость (ситуации и т. п.)

to further – продвигать, поддерживать, содействовать, способствовать

to obtain – получать, добывать, приобретать

improvement – улучшение, усовершенствование, исправление, развитие

collapse – обвал, разрушение, крушение, крах, провал

to require – приказывать, требовать, нуждаться (*в чём-л.*); требовать (*чего-л.*)

to cap – перекрыть, перещеголять, перейти все границы, хватить лишнего, быть выше *чего-л.* понимания, завершать, вершить, завершаться (часто прямо не переводится)

accordingly – соответственно, так, таким образом, следовательно

The Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) is an international organization for security. In its region it is concerned with early warning, conflict prevention, crisis management and post-conflict rehabilitation. It has 55 participating states from Europe, the Mediterranean, the Caucasus, Central Asia and North America.

The decision making bodies of the organization are the Summit, Ministerial Council and Senior Council, with the Permanent Council, under the leadership of the Chairman-in-Office, who holds the position for one year. For 2005, it was the Slovenian Foreign Minister.

The OSCE headquarters are located in Vienna, Austria. The Organization also has offices in Copenhagen, Geneva, the Hague, Prague and Warsaw.

The OSCE employs close to 440 persons in its various institutions. In the field, the Organization has about 750 international and 2,370 local staff.

The OSCE Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights, is the oldest OSCE institution, established in 1990. It is based in Warsaw, Poland, and is active throughout the OSCE area in the fields of election observation, democratic development, human rights, tolerance and non-discrimination, and rule of law.

The organization was established in 1973 as the Conference for Security and Co-operation in Europe (CSCE). Talks had been mooted about a European security grouping since the 1950s but the Cold War prevented any substantial progress until the talks in Helsinki began in November 1972. These talks were held at the suggestion of the Soviet Union which wished to use the talks to maintain its control over the communist countries in Eastern Europe. Western Europe, however, saw these talks as a way to reduce the tension in the region, furthering economic cooperation and obtaining humanitarian improvements for the populations of the Communist Bloc.

The CSCE opened in Helsinki on July 3, 1973 with 35 states sending representatives.

The collapse of Communism required a change of role for the CSCE. The Paris Charter for a New Europe which was signed on November 21, 1990 marked the beginning of this change. With the changes capped by the re-naming of the CSCE to the OSCE on January 1, 1995, accordingly to the results of the conference held in Budapest, in 1994.

Ukraine was admitted to the organization on January 30, 1992. On February 26, 1992 Ukraine signed the Helsinki Final Act and on June, 16 of the same year the Charter of Paris was signed. So, Ukraine became the state-member of the OSCE.

Exercise. Answer the questions:

1. What is the OSCE?
2. When was the OSCE established?
3. What were the purposes of the OSCE creation?
4. How many member states are there in the OSCE?
5. When was Ukraine admitted to the organization?

The NATO

Vocabulary

treaty – договор, соглашение, конвенция

alliance – союз, альянс (against, between, with)

collaboration – сотрудничество, участие, совместная работа (*особ.*, в литературе, искусстве, науке)

initially – в начальной стадии, в начале, в исходном положении

to launch – запускать (спутник, ракету и т. п.), выпускать (снаряд), катапультировать (against, at), бросать, разразиться (об угрозе, обвинении и т. п.)

to treat – обращаться, обходиться, вести себя (по отношению к кому-л. как-л.), относиться, иметь дело (*с кем-л.*), договариваться, вести переговоры, трактовать, рассуждать, рассматривать

significant – значительный, важный, существенный, знаменательный, многозначительный, выразительный

to favour – благоволить, быть благосклонным, быть согласным, оказывать внимание, любезность (with), покровительствовать, оказывать протекцию, поддерживать (какую-л. из сторон), благоприятствовать, помогать, поддерживать, способствовать, оказывать помощь

integrated military command – объединенное военное командование

to pursue – преследовать, следовать неотступно за, гнаться, бежать за, преследовать (цель), следовать намеченному курсу, искать, добиваться

nuclear defence programme – ядерная программа сдерживания, защиты

to force – оказывать давление, заставлять, принуждать, вынуждать, напрягать, перенапрягать, действовать на пределе сил, воен. брать, форсировать

to precipitate – бросать, швырять (с силой с большой высоты), низвергать, повергать, ввергать, торопить, ускорять, форсировать, подгонять

to withdraw (*прош. вр. – withdrew, прич. прош. вр. – withdrawn*) – отнимать, забирать, отзываться, отводить (войска), ретироваться, удаляться, уходить

dispute – диспут, дискуссия, дебаты, полемика (about, over, with), спор, разногласия, пререкания, ссора

The North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO), sometimes called North Atlantic Alliance, is an international organisation for defence collaboration established in 1949, in support of the North Atlantic Treaty signed in Washington, D.C., on April 4, 1949. Nowadays NATO headquarters are located in Brussels, Belgium.

Initially there were 12 members in the NATO: Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Iceland, Italy, Luxemburg, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, United Kingdom and United States and it was created as the reaction on the USSR threat to occupy Western Europe. Firstly, it was intended so that if the USSR and its allies launched an attack against any of the NATO

members, it would be treated as if it was an attack on all member states. This marked a significant change for the United States, which had traditionally favoured isolationist policies. Luckily, the feared invasion of Western Europe never came.

Greece and Turkey joined the initial 12 members of the organisation in February 1952. Germany joined as West Germany in 1955.

In 1966 Charles de Gaulle removes French armed forces from NATO's integrated military command to pursue its own nuclear defence programme. All non-French NATO troops are forced to leave France. This precipitates the relocation of the NATO Headquarters from Paris, France to Brussels, Belgium by October 16, 1967. However, France remained a member of NATO, notwithstanding it withdrew from the integrated military command. While the political headquarters are located in Brussels, the military headquarters, the Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE), are located just south of Brussels, in the town of Mons.

Following France Greece also withdrew its forces from NATO's military command structure from 1974 to 1980 as a result of Greco-Turkish tensions following the 1974 Cyprus dispute.

In 1978 NATO countries defined two complementary aims of the Alliance, to maintain security and pursue detente. In 1982 Spain joins the alliance. On October 3, 1990, with the reunification of Germany, the former East Germany becomes part of the Federal Republic of Germany and the alliance. To secure Soviet approval of united Germany remaining in NATO, it is agreed that there will be no new foreign military bases in the east, and that nuclear weapons will not be permanently stationed there. On March 31, 1991 the Warsaw Pact comes to an end. It is officially dissolved on July 1, 1991. The Soviet Union collapses in December of the same year.

In 1994 NATO takes its first military action, shooting down two Bosnian Serb aircraft violating a UN no-fly zone over central Bosnia and Herzegovina. NATO airstrikes the following year help bring the war in Bosnia to an end, resulting in the Dayton Agreement. In 1997 three former communist countries, Hungary, the Czech Republic, and Poland, are invited to join NATO. They joined in 1999. The same year NATO sees its first broad-scale military engagement in the Kosovo War, where it wages an 11

-week bombing campaign against what was then the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, aimed at preventing the alleged ethnic cleansing of Albanians. It ends on June 11, 1999, when Yugoslavian leader Slobodan Milosevic agrees to NATO's demands.

During the Prague summit in 2002, seven countries are invited to start talks in order to join the Alliance: Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Slovenia, Slovakia, Bulgaria, and Romania. The invited countries joined NATO on March 29, 2004. Further countries expressed the wish to join the alliance, including Albania, the Republic of Macedonia, Ukraine and Croatia.

On March 29, 2004 Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Slovakia, and Slovenia joined NATO. NATO Summit 2006 took place in Latvia.

Exercise. Answer the questions:

1. What is the NATO?
2. When was the NATO established?
3. What were the purposes of the NATO creation?
4. What was the main aim of the NATO in its earliest years?
5. When did the NATO take its first military action?
6. How many members were there in the NATO initially?
7. What were the countries that joined the NATO in 1997?

The United Nations

Vocabulary

to coin – измышлять, выдумывать, замышлять

the Allies – союзники

to commit – совершать (обычно выходящее за какие-л. рамки действие и т. п.), верить, поручать, передавать законопроект в парламентскую комиссию

Atlantic Charter – *зд.* Североатлантический договор

to pledge – давать торжественное обещание, заверять, обещать, клясться

to seek (*прош. вр. – sought, прич. прош. вр. – sought*) – искать, разыскивать, разузнавать, добиваться, стремиться

separate peace – сепаратный мир

Axis powers – страны Оси (Германия с союзниками)

to elaborate – детально разрабатывать, обдумывать, конкретизировать, развивать, уточнять

to outline – нарисовать контур, очертить, обрисовать, наметить в общих чертах

arrangement – договоренность, соглашение, разрешение (спора), урегулирование, *мн.ч.* мера, мероприятие, приготовление

to maintain – поддерживать, защищать, отстаивать (закон, теорию, мнение и т. п.), содержать, поддерживать, подкреплять, не дать прекратиться

to draft – писать черновик, делать прикидку, набросок, отбирать, выбирать (предмет из ряда подобных)

to reserve – запасать, откладывать, беречь, сберегать, приберегать, сохранять, бронировать, заказывать заранее

existence – бытие, жизнь, существование

to ratify – ратифицировать, одобрять, санкционировать, утверждать, скреплять (подписью, печатью)

beside – рядом с, близ, около

to purchase – приобретать, покупать, получать, заслуживать

donation – дар, подарок, подношение, денежное пожертвование (to)

the UN Charter – Устав ООН

judgement – приговор, решение, заключение суда, критика, оценка, осуждение, порицание (of, on, upon)

to will – проявлять волю, желать, хотеть, завещать, отказывать, отписывать

to fulfill – выполнять, делать, исполнять, осуществлять, совершать, завершать, заканчивать, оканчивать

The term “United Nations” was coined by Franklin D. Roosevelt during World War II, to refer to the Allies. Its first formal use was in the January 1, 1942 Declaration by the United Nations, which committed the Allies

to the principles of the Atlantic Charter and pledged them not to seek a separate peace with the Axis powers. Thereafter, the Allies used the term “United Nations Fighting Forces” to refer to their alliance.

The idea for the United Nations was elaborated in declarations signed at the wartime Allied conferences in Moscow, Cairo, and Tehran in 1943. From August to October 1944, representatives of France, the Republic of China, the United Kingdom, the United States, and the USSR met to elaborate the plans in Washington, D.C. Those and later talks produced proposals outlining the purposes of the organization, its membership and organs, as well as arrangements to maintain international peace and security and international economic and social cooperation. These proposals were discussed and debated by governments and private citizens worldwide.

On April 25, 1945, the United Nations Conference on International Organizations began in San Francisco. In addition to the Governments, a number of non-government organizations were invited to assist in the drafting of the charter. The 50 nations represented at the conference signed the Charter of the United Nations two months later on June 26. Poland, which was not represented at the conference, but for which a place among the original signatories had been reserved, added its name later, bringing the total of original signatories to 51. The UN came into existence on October 24, 1945, after the Charter had been ratified by the five permanent members of the Security Council – Republic of China, France, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, and the United States – and by a majority of the other 46 signatories.

The United Nations headquarters building was constructed in New York City in 1949 and 1950 beside the East River on land purchased by an 8.5 million dollar donation from John D. Rockefeller, Jr., and designed by architect Oscar Niemeyer. UN headquarters officially opened on January 9, 1951. While the principal headquarters of the UN are in New York, there are major agencies located in Geneva, The Hague, Vienna, Montreal, Bonn.

UN membership is open to all peace-loving states that accept the obligations of the UN Charter and, in the judgement of the organization, are able and willing to fulfill these obligations.

Exercise 1. Answer the questions:

1. Who coined the term “United Nations”?
2. When was the first formal use of the term “United Nations”?
3. When and where was the United Nations headquarters building constructed?
4. Who donated this construction?
5. Who designed the United Nations headquarters building?
6. How many nations were there at the conference in San Francisco in 1945?
7. Why are there 51 founders of the UN instead of 50?
8. What country was not represented at the conference?

Exercise 2. Translate into English using the words given below.

ЮНЕСКО

ЮНЕСКО – это Организация Объединенных Наций по вопросам образования, науки и культуры – создана 16 ноября 1945 года. Образование, наука, культура и обмен информацией стали основой достижения более амбициозной цели – создать мир в умах самих людей.

Сегодня ЮНЕСКО является своеобразным генератором новых идей и стандартов, которые закладываются в основу международных нормативных документов по урегулированию возникающих перед человечеством проблем этического плана. ЮНЕСКО также является центром по обмену и распространению информации и знаний, помогая тем самым государствам – членам этой организации – развивать потенциал общества в самых разных сферах деятельности.

В общем ЮНЕСКО способствует развитию международного сотрудничества среди 191 действующего и шести ассоциированных государств – членов организации в сфере образования, науки, культуры и коммуникации.

ЮНЕСКО работает над созданием условий для честного международного диалога, основанного на уважении основных человеческих

ценностей и признания каждой цивилизации и культуры. Эта роль ЮНЕСКО особенно важна сегодня, когда терроризм представляет собой угрозу всему человечеству. Мир крайне нуждается в глобальном видении перспектив устойчивого развития, основанного на соблюдении прав человека, взаимном уважении людей и народов и борьбе с нищетой. Именно эти направления являются целью ЮНЕСКО и лежат в основе ее деятельности.

Vocabulary

UNESCO (the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) – Организация ООН по вопросам образования, науки и культуры (ЮНЕСКО)

Natural Science – естествознание, естественные науки

ambitious – честолюбивый, стремящийся, жаждущий (of), претенциозный

goal – задача, цель, место назначения

standard-setter – зд. учредитель стандартов

to forge – выдумывать, изобретать, придумывать, фальсифицировать, обманывать, подделывать (документы, печати, подписи и т. д.), постепенно обгонять, постепенно выходить на первое место, возглавлять, лидировать (о бегуне и т. п., *также* forge ahead), медленно и равномерно продвигаться вперед

to emerge – появляться, всплывать, выходить (from), вставать, возникать (о вопросе и т. п.), выясняться (from)

ethical – духовный, внутренний, душевный

issue – исход, выход, вытекание, изливание, истечение, выделение, публикация, опубликование, издание (*чего-л.*), выпуск, издание (совокупность изданных экземпляров газет, книг и т. д.), результат (*чего-л.*), спорный вопрос, предмет спора, разногласие, проблема

clearinghouse – зд. центр по обмену

dissemination – разбрасывание, рассеивание, распространение

to share – делить, распределять, разделять, делиться, разделять (smth. with smb. – с кем-л. что-л.), использовать совместно

capacities – зд. мощности

diverse – многообразный, различный, разнообразный, разный, разнотипный

to promote – выдвигать, продвигать, повышать в чине/звании; способствовать, помогать, содействовать, поддерживать, побуждать, стимулировать, активизировать, возбуждать

Associate Member – ассоциированный член

genuine – истинный, подлинный, неподдельный, реальный, искренний, ненаигранный

shared values – основные человеческие ценности

dignity – достоинство, гордость, светскость, чувство собственного достоинства

to constitute – составлять, основывать, учреждать, создавать, вводить в силу, принимать (закон)

urgent – срочный, неотложный, необходимый, настойчивый, добивающийся

to require – приказывать, требовать, нуждаться (*в чём-л.*), требовать (*чего-л.*)

sustainable – о взгляде, позиции, таких, которых можно придерживаться, которые можно защищать, приемлемый, обоснованный

observance – соблюдение (закона, обычая и т. п. – *of smth.*); регулярное празднование (*какого-л.* праздника), обряд, ритуал, церемониал, церемония

mutual – взаимный, обоюдный, соответственный, общий, совместный, принадлежащий обеим сторонам

alleviation – облегчение, послабление, смягчение

poverty – бедность, нищета, нужда, скудость

ADDITIONAL READING

OUTSTANDING RUSSIAN POLITICIANS OF THE USA, THE RUSSIAN FEDERATION AND GREAT BRITAIN

George Washington



Famous as: First President of the United States

Born on: 22 February 1732

Born in: Westmoreland County, Virginia

Died on: 14 December 1799

Nationality: United States

Zodiac Sign: pisces

Works & Achievements: Victory in the American Revolutionary War

George Washington was the first President of the United States who led the Continental Army to victory in the American Revolutionary War against the Kingdom of Great Britain and saved the nation from the threat of collapse during its most crucial time. The commander-in-chief of the American Revolution Army, Washington became the President of the world's most powerful country in 1789 following the end of war with The Great Britain in 1783. As President, George Washington played a leading role in drafting the American Constitution in 1787 and extended his contribution by building a strong central government, establishing a national bank system and implementing an effective tax system. Washington first

adopted the foreign policy of 'neutrality' in 1773, to avert international conflicts and intervention of other countries. His presidency lay down the foundation of the world's major power, making him the greatest President in the American history.

Abraham Lincoln



Famous as: American President

Born on: 12 February 1809

Born in: Southeast Hardin County, Kentucky

Died on: 15 April 1865

Nationality: United States

Zodiac Sign: aquarius

Works & Achievements: Preservation of the United States,
Abolition of Slavery in America

Abraham Lincoln was the sixteenth President of the United States who led the country to victory during the American Civil War and contributed profoundly towards ending the widespread slavery in America. Before being elected to the Presidency, Lincoln was a successful lawyer, an Illinois state legislator and a member of the United States House of Representatives. His presidency is primarily marked by his success in abolition of slavery and neutralizing a war-like situation with the United Kingdom in 1861. Apart from these, the former President is credited with the establishment of a "Republican form of Government" in America through

a policy of reconciliation. Since then he has been ranked among the greatest presidents of America. Abraham Lincoln is remembered for the sacrifices he made for the unity of his nation.

F. D. Roosevelt



Famous as: 32nd President of the United States

Born on: 30 January 1882

Born in: Hyde Park, New York

Died on: 12 April 1945

Nationality: United States

Zodiac Sign: aquarius

Works & Achievements: 32nd President of the United States

Born in 1882 and famous all over the world with the three letters, 'FDR' Franklin D. Roosevelt was the 32nd President of the U.S. and is the only U.S. president to have served more than two terms of presidency. As president, Roosevelt faced an immediate challenge succeeded in pulling the country back from the brink of unemployment and widespread economic crisis as soon as he took charge of the office in 1932. Initially a member of the Democratic Party, Roosevelt has been credited with the invention and establishment of Social Security system and the National Labor Relations Board (NLRB) in America. He was the only American President to be elected Four times and his tenure was the most by any American President. Serving the U.S. from 1932 to 1945, Roosevelt acquired

fame and popularity in America with the way he framed policies to tackle the Great Depression in America and led the country's ride from a fast growing economy to the mightiest power in the world.

John F. Kennedy



Famous as: 35th President of the United States

Born on: 29 May 1917

Born in: Massachusetts, USA

Died on: 22 November 1963

Nationality: United States

Zodiac Sign: gemini

Works & Achievements: Pulitzer Prize (1973); Known For Contribution in Civil Rights

John F. Kennedy was the 35th President of the United States and first American President to be born in the twentieth century. The former president has many firsts credited to him including the honor of becoming the first president to have won a Pulitzer Prize. He was the only practicing Roman Catholic to be President and the second youngest president of America, being elected to the office at the age of 43. Considered as the most authoritative and charismatic president of the United States, Kennedy was also famous for bearing many similarities with Abraham Lincoln. His effective administration during the Cuban defense crisis, African civil rights and Vietnam War successfully thwart the outbreak of the Third

World War making him the most popular and influential President in the America. John F. Kennedy served the U.S. for two years beginning from 1961 until 1963, when he was assassinated during a political trip to Texas.

Ronald Reagan



Famous as: Former President of the United States

Born on: 06 February 1911

Born in: Illinois, US

Died on: 05 June 2004

Nationality: United States

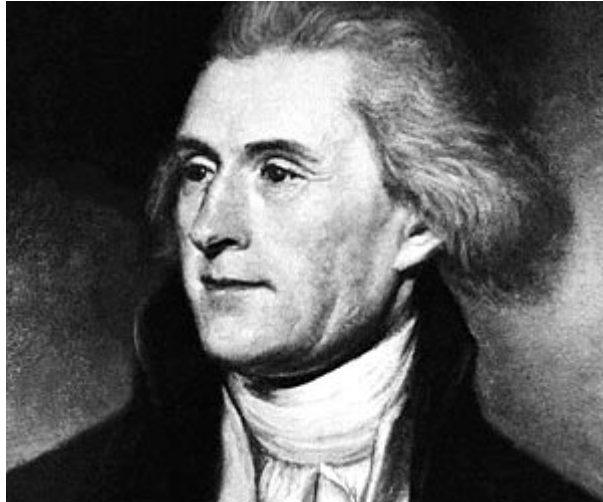
Zodiac Sign: aquarius

Works & Achievements: Contributed towards ending of the Cold War

Ronald Reagan was the fortieth President of the United States and thirty-third governor of California. A short time film actor and director, Reagan was originally a member of the Domestic Party before he switched to the Republican Party in 1962, at the age of 51 and was subsequently elected the governor of California in 1967. He ran for, and failed twice in his bid for Presidency before finally winning it in 1980 and took charge in January 1981. During his first term of presidency, Ronald gained attention and appreciation both from within and outside the country for his bold political and economical policies, famously known as 'Reaganomics'. He was reelected in a landslide victory in 1984 and this time he focused his attention on foreign matters, namely, the

ending of the cold war, opposition to the communist Soviet Union and revelation of Iran-Contra affair. The former president died of the Alzheimer's disease in 2004 after a long period of suffering.

Thomas Jefferson



Famous as: Political Philosopher & the third President of America

Born on: 13 April 1743

Born in: Virginia

Died on: 04 July 1826

Nationality: United States

Zodiac Sign: aries

Works & Achievements: Founder of the Republicanism in America, Father of the Virginia University, the main author of the Declaration of Independence

Thomas Jefferson was a major political leader and the third president of the United States serving from 1801 to 1809. He was also a co-founder and leader of the Democratic Republic Party, the wartime Governor of Virginia (1779 – 1781) and author the book Virginia Statute for Religious Freedom. Before elected to the presidency, he was appointed the first United States Secretary of State during 1789 – 1793 and was the second Vice-president of America where he served from 1797 to 1801. In 1776, he was the main author of the Declaration of Independence and gained appreciation for his role in promoting republicanism in the United States. While in

power, Jefferson fiercely supported the idea of democracy and favored states rights and a limited Federal government in America, which he considered as virtues of republicanism. A man of many talents, Thomas Jefferson explored many interests and gained high opinion for his quality as a horticulturist, statesman, architect, archaeologist, inventor, and founder of the University of Virginia.

Vladimir Lenin



Famous as: Russian Revolutionary & Head of Communist Party

Born on: 22 April 1870

Born in: Simbirsk (Today's Ulyanovsk)

Died on: 21 January 1924

Nationality: Russian Federation

Zodiac Sign: taurus

Works & Achievements: The leader of October Revolution in Russia, the first head of the Russian Soviet Socialist Republic

Vladimir Lenin was a Russian revolutionary and communist who led the famous October Revolution in Russia. Lenin was a driving force in overthrowing the Czarist autocracy and was de facto first leader of the Soviet Union. In 1902, Vladimir Lenin published a pamphlet “What Is To Be Done?” where he argued for a party of professional revolutionaries dedicated to the overthrow of the autocracy of the Czars. Following the 1917

revolution, the Bolshevik faction of the Social Democratic Labor Party, headed by Lenin emerged victorious and subsequently formed the government. While in power, Lenin howled against the oppression of peasants and workers and emerged as the strongest force against capitalism in the world. He was criticized for establishing dictatorship of the Communist Party in Russia. Lenin died on January 21, 1924. The reverend leader was also the first head of the Russian Soviet Socialist Republic.

Joseph Stalin



Famous as: Communist Revolutionary & Ruler of former USSR

Born on: 21 December 1879

Born in: Gori, Georgia

Died on: 05 March 1953

Nationality: Georgia

Zodiac Sign: sagittarius

Works & Achievements: The supreme ruler of the Soviet Union and the leader of world communism

Joseph Stalin was one of the greatest leaders of the former Soviet Union and General Secretary of the Communist party of the Soviet Union serving from 1922 until his death in 1953. While in power, Joseph crushed his contemporary prominent party leaders and opponents he gained popu-

larity among the low-working class people for his socialist-economic policies. He introduced the concept of "Five-Year-Plan" in the Soviet Union seeking a rapid industrialization and economic collectivization. In the late 1930's, Stalin instigated a campaign against corruption and treachery both within the party and outside it what he called 'The Purge'. It resulted in a number of executions of party members as well as other sectors of the Soviet Union who appeared to be suspicious and not loyal to Stalin. Under his leadership, the country joined the ally forces against the Nazi Germany after it violated the non-aggression pact with the Soviet Union that resulted in the defeat of Germany and a huge death toll in the Soviet Union.

Mikhail Gorbachev



Famous as: Former President of the former USSR

Born on: 02 March 1931

Born in: Privolnoye, Stavropol

Nationality: Russian Federation

Zodiac Sign: pisces

Works & Achievements: Nobel Peace Prize (1990)

Mikhail Gorbachev is a former President of the erstwhile USSR who served as the last general secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union from 1986 to 1991 and was also the last head of state of the USSR. He served as the head of state of the USSR from 1988 until 1991, when it

fell down. He was also the last head of the state of the USSR. The leader is praised for his role in world peace process ending the long time cold war and also the political supremacy of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union in Russia. He was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1990 for his contribution in the peace process. At present, Mikhail Gorbachev is the leader of the 'Union of the Social-Democrats', major political party formed after the disintegration of the Social Democratic party of Russia.

Winston Churchill



Famous as: Prime Minister of the United Kingdom

Born on: 30 November 1874

Born in: Woodstock, Oxford shire

Died on: 24 January 1965

Nationality: United Kingdom

Zodiac Sign: sagittarius

Works & Achievements: PM of the United Kingdom

Sir Winston Leonard Spencer-Churchill was one of the greatest politicians of the United Kingdom who went on to become the Prime Minister of the country in 1940, serving till 1945 and again from 1951 to 1955. Winston enjoyed an exceptional success in his political life from the very beginning and held many important positions such as President of the Board of Trade, Home Secretary and First Lord of the Admiralty in the Asquith Liberal government. Before chosen to the premiership of the coun-

try, Winston was appointed the Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1924. He also served in the British Army for a short period, where he witnessed the second Boer war and penned his experience as British officer in books such as «The Second World War» and «A History of the English Speaking Peoples». Winston Churchill was a prolific writer, historian and artist.

Margaret Thatcher



Famous as: and Only Woman Prime Minister of United Kingdom

Born on: 13 October 1925

Born in: Grantham, England

Died on: 8 April 2013

Nationality: United Kingdom

Zodiac Sign: libra

Works & Achievements: Revitalizing Britain's Economy, Suppression of Trade Unions

Margaret Thatcher is the first woman Prime Minister of the United Kingdom and was the first woman to lead a major political party in the country. She acted upon many important positions and took major responsibilities as the leader of the Conservative Party before she eventually elected to the premiership in 1979 after which she was reelected for the second and third time consecutively. During her tenure as Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher took an uncompromising stand against the trade unions, opposed the Soviet Union and established economic policies of Free Markets, entrepreneurialism and reduced State intervention in the country's

economy. Though she was reelected for a third term in 1987, her popularity had begun to decline by the end of her third term as a result of her views on European community and Community Charge Plan, that many people could not stomach. Even so, Thatcher still remains a revolutionary figure who revitalized Britain's economy, impacted the trade unions, transformed UK into a fast growing economy and established the country as a world power.

Tony Blair



Famous as: Prime Minister of Britain

Born on: 06 May 1953

Born in: Edinburgh, Scotland

Nationality: United Kingdom

Zodiac Sign: taurus

Works & Achievements: British Prime Minister from 1997 – 2007

Tony Blair is British politician and the leader of the Labor Party who went on to become the Prime Minister of the country in 1997 and served it until 2007. Before being elected to the post, he has also served as the Member of Parliament for Sedgefield from 1983 to 2007. His role as a leader of the Labor Party is mainly marked with success; he exuded in hauling back the party from the verge of collapse after losing three consecutive elections. Blair brought some radical changes in the policies of the party and led it to a landslide victory in the general elections 1997. Blair's

steps and welfare measures fetched him and the party popularity that eventually helped him coming to power in the elections of 2001 and 2005. Blair was criticized for supporting the US invasion in Iraq and the anger evidently reflected in 2005 electoral verdict, reducing the percentage of votes for Labor Party. On 24 June, 2007 Blair formally handed over the leadership of the Labor Party to Gordon Brown who was then appointed as the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom on 27 June, 2007.

Queen Elizabeth II



Famous as: Queen of Great Britain

Born on: 21 April 1926

Born in: London, England

Nationality: United Kingdom

Zodiac Sign: taurus

Works & Achievements: Britain's longest reigning monarch

Queen Elizabeth II (Elizabeth Alexandra Mary; born 21 April 1926) is the constitutional monarch, Head of the Commonwealth. She is Supreme Governor of the Church of England and, in some of her realms, carries the title of Defender of the Faith as part of her full title.

On her accession on 6 February 1952, Queen Elizabeth became Head of the Commonwealth and queen regnant of seven independent Commonwealth countries: the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, Pakistan and Ceylon.

Elizabeth was born in London and educated privately at home. Her father acceded to the throne as George VI in 1936. In 1947, she married Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh, with whom she has four children: Charles, Anne, Andrew, and Edward. Her coronation service took place in 1953 and was the first to be televised.

Marriage

Wedding of Princess Elizabeth and Philip Mountbatten, Duke of Edinburgh. Elizabeth met her future husband, Prince Philip of Greece and Denmark, in 1934 and 1937. They are second cousins once removed through King Christian IX of Denmark and third cousins through Queen Victoria. After another meeting at the Royal Naval College in Dartmouth in July 1939, Elizabeth – though only 13 years old – said she fell in love with Philip and they began to exchange letters. Their engagement was officially announced on 9 July 1947.

Before the marriage, Philip renounced his Greek and Danish titles. Just before the wedding, he was created Duke of Edinburgh and granted the style *His Royal Highness*.

Elizabeth and Philip were married on 20 November, 1947 at Westminster Abbey. They received 2500 wedding gifts from around the world.

Elizabeth gave birth to her first child, Prince Charles, on 14 November 1948. A second child, princess Anne, was born in 1950, Prince Andrew was born in 1960 and Prince Edward in 1964.

With Elizabeth's accession, it seemed probable that the royal house would bear her husband's name, becoming the *House of Mountbatten*, in line with the custom of a wife taking her husband's surname on marriage. Elizabeth's grandmother, Queen Mary, and British Prime Minister Winston Churchill favoured the retention of the House of Windsor, and so *Windsor* it remained. The Duke complained, "I am the only man in the country not allowed to give his name to his own children." In 1960, after the death of Queen Mary in 1953 and the resignation of Churchill in 1955, the surname *Mountbatten-Windsor* was adopted for Philip and Elizabeth's male-line descendants who do not carry royal titles.

Despite the death of Queen Mary on 24 March, the coronation went ahead, as Mary had asked before she died, taking place as planned on 2 June 1953. Elizabeth's coronation gown was embroidered on her instruc-

tions with the floral emblems of the Commonwealth countries: English Tudor rose; Scots thistle; Welsh leek; Irish shamrock; Australian wattle; Canadian maple leaf; New Zealand silver fern; South African protea; lotus flowers for India and Ceylon; and Pakistan's wheat, cotton, and jute.

The Queen's working day begins like many people's – at her desk. After scanning the daily British newspapers, The Queen reviews her correspondence.

Every day, 200 – 300 (and sometimes many more) letters from the public arrive. The Queen chooses a selection to read herself and tells members of her staff how she would like them to be answered. Virtually every letter is answered by staff in her Private Secretary's office

The Queen will then see, separately, two of her Private Secretaries with the daily quota of official papers and documents. This process takes upwards of an hour.

Every day of every year, wherever she is, The Queen receives from government ministers, and from her representatives in the Commonwealth and foreign countries, information in the form of policy papers, Cabinet documents, telegrams, letters and other State papers.

These are sent up to her by the Private Secretaries in the famous 'red boxes'. All of these papers have to be read and, where necessary, approved and signed.

A series of official meetings or 'audiences' will often follow. The Queen will see a number of important people.

These include overseas ambassadors and high commissioners, newly appointed British ambassadors, senior members of the British and Commonwealth Armed Forces on their appointment and retirement, and English bishops and judges on their appointment.

Each meeting usually lasts 10 to 20 minutes, and usually The Queen and her visitor meet alone.

The Queen may also meet a number of people who have won prizes or awards in a variety of fields such as literature or science, to present them individually with their prize.

The Queen will often lunch privately. Every few months, she and The Duke of Edinburgh will invite a dozen guests from a wide variety of backgrounds to an informal lunch.

In the afternoons, the Queen often goes out on public engagements.

If the engagement is outside London, her journeys are often by air using a helicopter or an RAF aircraft.

Such engagements can include visits to schools, hospitals, factories, military units, art galleries, sheltered accommodation for elderly people, hostels for the homeless, local community schemes in inner city areas, and other British and Commonwealth organisations.

The Queen regularly goes out for the whole day to a particular region or city. If the visit is a busy one, or if it lasts more than a day, then The Queen will travel overnight on the Royal Train.

The Duke of Edinburgh will often accompany The Queen on such visits; when this happens, they will carry out some engagements jointly and others separately to ensure that the maximum number of people and organisations can be visited.

The Queen may end the afternoon seeing a number of Government ministers

The Queen's working day does not stop at the end of the afternoon.

Early evening may see a meeting with the Prime Minister. The Queen has a weekly meeting alone with the Prime Minister, when they are both in London

This usually takes place on Wednesdays at 6.30 pm. No written record is made of such meetings; neither The Queen nor the Prime Minister talk about what is discussed between them, as communications between The Queen and the Prime Minister always remain confidential.

At about 7.30 pm a report of the day's parliamentary proceedings arrives. The Queen always reads this the same evening.

On some evenings, The Queen may attend a film première.

The Queen has numerous private interests, which can coincide with her public work, to complete her working day.

Often, one of the last lights on in the Palace at night is The Queen finishing her 'red box' of official papers.

ЗАКЛЮЧЕНИЕ

Отражая специфику специальности 031900 «Международные отношения», издание способствует повышению общего профессионального уровня студентов, а также приобретению навыков, необходимых для изучения англоязычной профессиональной литературы, что поможет им ориентироваться в значительных потоках общественно-политической информации.

В дальнейшем планируется расширить учебное пособие благодаря включению социокультурной информации, касающейся национальной идентичности стран изучаемого языка, что облегчит будущим специалистам задачу установления отношений с партнерами из англоговорящих стран. Также планируется включить раздел об искусстве публичных выступлений с целью формирования у студентов навыков межкультурной коммуникации в целом и ведения деловых переговоров в частности.

Ряд материалов, представленных в издании, будет полезен студентам других специальностей гуманитарного профиля для развития лексико-грамматических и коммуникативно-прагматических навыков использования английского языка как средства профессионального общения.

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CONTENTS

ВВЕДЕНИЕ	3
Unit 1. DIPLOMACY AND NEGOTIATIONS	4
Unit 2. POLITICAL SYSTEMS: GREAT BRITAIN, THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, THE RUSSIAN FEDERATION	12
Unit 3. INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS	33
ADDITIONAL READING	57
ЗАКЛЮЧЕНИЕ	73
СПИСОК РЕКОМЕНДУЕМОЙ ЛИТЕРАТУРЫ	74

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