

English for Professional Communication

Reading in Political Science

САРАТОВСКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ ИМЕНИ Н. Г. ЧЕРНЫШОВСКОГО

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Английский язык для студентов II курса юридического факультета
направления подготовки 41.03.04 «Политология»

Саратов, 2016

Рекомендовано
кафедрой английского языка
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и специальностей

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Настоящее учебное пособие предназначено для студентов II курса юридического факультета направления подготовки 41.03.04 «Политология». Цель – формирование и развитие навыков работы с профессионально-ориентированными текстами на английском языке в рамках дисциплин «Иностранный язык (английский язык). Части 1,2,3» и «Профессиональный иностранный язык (английский язык)». Пособие представляет собой сборник профессионально-ориентированных текстов по указанному направлению подготовки, рекомендации по аннотированию и терминологический глоссарий.

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САРАТОВСКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ ИМЕНИ Н. Г. ЧЕРНЫШЕВСКОГО

Введение

Настоящее учебное пособие входит в серию «English for Professional Communication», назначение которой – обучение различным аспектам общения на английском языке в сфере профессиональной коммуникации. Цель пособия «English for Professional Communication: Reading in Political Science» – формирование и развитие навыков работы с профессионально-ориентированными текстами на английском языке у студентов II курса юридического факультета направления подготовки 41.03.04 «Политология».

Пособие способствует выработке у студентов навыков литературной письменной и устной речи; навыков публичной и научной речи; умения создавать и редактировать тексты профессионального назначения, анализировать логику рассуждений и высказываний.

«English for Professional Communication: Reading in Political Science» состоит из семи глав и двух приложений. Тексты профессиональной направленности для отработки различных навыков взяты из энциклопедии “*Encyclopædia Britannica*”.

В приложении 1 (Appendix 1) «Tips on Writing Summaries» приводятся рекомендации по написанию аннотаций текстов второй части. Подготовка аннотаций может быть дополнительным заданием в процессе работы над текстом.

Приложение 2 (Appendix 2) «Glossary of Political Terms» представляет собой глоссарий специализированных терминов, встречающихся в текстах.

Приведенные в настоящем пособии материалы могут быть использованы студентами других направлений подготовки, в том случае, если рабочие программы дисциплины «Иностранный язык (английский язык)» в рамках этих направлений предполагают освоение общественно-политической тематики.

Chapter 1

Political science

Text 1

Multiparty systems

In Germany, Belgium, Italy, and some other countries, there are several parties large enough to contend for office. But the number of parties usually makes it impossible for any one of them to win decisively. It is often necessary, therefore, for the biggest winners to form coalitions in order to govern.

Some multiparty countries have adopted proportional representation in their legislatures. This is a device by which seats in the legislature are awarded to members of political parties based on the number of ballots cast for the parties within electoral districts. Various mathematical formulas are used to achieve the representation, but the results are the same: members of minority parties are able to get one or more candidates seated in a legislature. Proportional representation has been adopted by Belgium, Norway, Denmark, Sweden, Greece, Italy, Switzerland, Germany, Israel, and a few other nations.

Mexico has been an exception to the problems besetting most multiparty states. It had more than a dozen political parties, but since 1938 the government has been solidly controlled by the Institutional Revolutionary party. Most competition for elected office takes place within the party—not between parties.

The chief reason for the existence of a large number of parties in a single nation is ideology—the adherence to fixed economic or political doctrines, such as Marxism or socialism. Strongly held beliefs are also the basis for the minor parties in the United States and other two-party nations, but such parties are never able to attract broad enough support to win elections. In addition, the major parties in Canada, the United States, and Britain are really broadly based coalitions that already represent a great diversity of views. By welcoming many different opinions, the major parties prevent themselves from becoming narrowly based ideological factions. In the United States the success of the two-party system has been based on freedom from ideological conflicts.

Text 2

One-party governments

During the 20th century there have been three types of one-party governments: Communist, Fascist, and Third World. The Communists came to power in Russia in the October Revolution of 1917, with the success of Lenin's Bolshevik wing of the Social-Democratic Workers' party. After World War II Communist regimes were established in much of Eastern Europe. In 1949 Mao

Zedong's Chinese Communist party came to power. All effective political power was in the hands of the party and the first secretary of the party was the regime's dominant figure. Most Communist governments were totalitarian, but this did not imply perpetual conflict between people and party. In 1989 the face of Eastern European politics completely changed. The Communist party lost its political monopoly in East Germany, Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, Romania, and Yugoslavia. Even Albania overthrew its neo-Stalinist system by 1992. Multiparty elections were held in many Eastern European countries in 1990. In 1991 the Communist party lost control in the Soviet Union and the country ceased to exist.

Five years after the Russian Revolution a Fascist party, led by Benito Mussolini, came to power in Italy. Whereas Communists contended that they spoke for the workers, Fascists believed in the right of the elite to govern the masses. As a result, in Italy—as well as in Spain and Portugal later—the Fascist party never played as dominant a role as did the Communist party in the Soviet Union. Industrialists, bankers, and other powerful figures tended to dominate policy. The party's function was focused on policing the state, eliminating political opposition, and controlling the military.

In Germany the National Socialist (Nazi) party of Adolf Hitler, though Fascist in outlook, exerted much greater control of the nation than did the Fascists in Italy or the Falange in Spain. Germany under the Nazis differed from other Fascist countries in that Hitler personally, not the party, was the government. There was no pretense at a rule of law.

In the Third World the Communist governments of North Korea, Vietnam, and Cambodia were similar to those that existed in the Soviet Union. In other developing nations, however, single-party governments tend to call themselves either socialist or reformist, but they rarely have any strong leaning toward Communism. Often a one-party system is proclaimed to keep one individual in power for life. Third World single-party governments have generally proved to be inefficient and corrupt. They have rarely been able to oversee economic development successfully, since their chief aim is monopoly of political power.

Text 3

American Two-Party System

Electoral politics in the United States has been dominated by two political parties since the administration of George Washington; but they have not always been the same two parties. The first opposition was between Federalists and Anti-Federalists—those who supported a strong federal government and those who did not. Leaders of the Federalists were Alexander Hamilton and John Adams. Both were from the Northeast where Federalist sentiment was strongest. Thomas Jefferson became the acknowledged leader of Anti-Federalist sentiment, and by the time of his election to the presidency in 1800 his party was called Democratic

Republican. The Federalist party disappeared as a political force after the 1816 election, mostly because of its opposition to the War of 1812.

The demise of the Federalists left the country with only one major party—but only for a short time. During the 1820s the Democratic Republicans split into two parts. The conservative Eastern elements of the party favored a strong nationalism, a protective tariff, and a national bank. They called themselves National Republicans. The other wing represented the South and West. It stood for states' rights, tariff for revenue only, and an independent treasury. It took the name Democratic and elected its leader, Andrew Jackson, to the presidency in 1828 and 1832. The party of Jackson is today's Democratic party.

By the election of 1836 the National Republicans and other anti-Jackson factions had merged to form a new party, the Whigs. They lost to the Democrats that year, but in 1840 they succeeded in getting William Henry Harrison elected president. In 1844 the Whig candidate, Henry Clay, lost to James Polk, but four years later Zachary Taylor won for the Whigs.

Meanwhile a social force greater than party loyalty was beginning to reshape American politics. The slavery issue, by the passions it aroused in the North and the South, gradually compelled a realignment of parties. The Whigs doomed their party in 1852 by taking a compromising stand on slavery. During the next few years most Southern Whigs joined the Democrats. Northern Whigs joined Northern antislavery Democrats to form today's Republican party.

In 1854 small groups of men met in Ripon, Wis., Jackson, Mich., and elsewhere to urge creation of a new political party opposed to the extension of slavery. In 1856 this newly formed Republican party chose John C. Frémont as its presidential candidate. He lost to the Democratic nominee, James Buchanan. By 1860 the Democrats were split on the slavery issue. Four candidates ran for the presidency, and Abraham Lincoln—the Republican nominee—was elected.

The Republicans emerged from the Civil War with great political strength. The Democrats were marked as the party of slavery and secession. Republican control of the national government lasted for 72 years except for the 16 years when Grover Cleveland and Woodrow Wilson were in the White House.

The Great Depression of the 1930s had a powerful influence on American politics. The economic disaster helped the election of Franklin D. Roosevelt, a Democrat, as president in 1932. His first administration forged what has been called the New Deal coalition. In response to New Deal social programs, millions of Americans were attracted to the Democratic ranks. Blacks, whose loyalty had been to the Republicans since the days of Lincoln, moved into the Democratic column. This coalition continued to dominate the presidency for seven years after Roosevelt's death, and—except for two sessions in 1947–48 and 1953–54—it controlled Congress through 1980, when Ronald Reagan was elected president.

In spite of the upheavals caused by slavery, the Civil War, and the Depression, the Democrats and the Republicans remained the two major parties. The New Deal coalition diminished, but did not destroy, Republican power. And, beginning with the election of Dwight D. Eisenhower in 1952, the Republicans regained much of the public loyalty that was lost during the New Deal years.

Unlike parties elsewhere in the world, the Democratic and Republican parties in the United States are very decentralized in structure and are marked by the absence of a rigid discipline and hierarchy. It is only a slight exaggeration to say that the United States does not have two parties but 100—two in each state.

Each party can be viewed as a large pyramid. At the base are citizens who regularly vote for party candidates. The next level consists of local party officials. These officials choose the party's state officers. Each state organization in turn names representatives to a national committee. From this group members are selected to form an executive committee. The national committee is headed by the national chairperson, who is chosen by the party's nominee for president but must be approved by the national committee. Elected officials from the local to the national level exert considerable influence on the operations of local, state, and national party machinery.

The base unit of local organization is the precinct, or election district. The chief official is the committeeman, or precinct captain. This official's job is to win friends for the party and to get out the vote on election day. The official also schedules social events, recommends party members for political (or patronage) jobs, and provides transportation to the polls on election day.

The next higher level of leadership in cities is the ward committeeman and, in rural areas, the county chairman. Above these are organizations for the city, Congressional district, state, and national levels.

Text 4

National conventions

The most visible aspect of a political party to most citizens is its national nominating convention, which is held every four years. The purpose of the convention is to select candidates for president and vice-president and to adopt a party platform. The nominating convention was originated by a splinter party called the Anti-Masons in 1831 in Baltimore, Md. The Jackson Democrats followed this example in 1832 by holding their first national convention, also in Baltimore. Since then party conventions have always been held in the same year as a presidential election—in years that are evenly divisible by the number 4.

In the spring of a convention year, delegates are selected to attend their party's national convention. They are chosen by state party conventions or are elected in presidential primaries. The national committee determines the number of delegates for each state. Each party uses a formula based on the state's population, party support, and votes cast to allot the number of delegates.

Both the Democratic and Republican parties hold their convention in a large city in midsummer. The first convention is usually held by the party that does not control the White House. Each convention lasts four or five days.

Text 5

Third parties

Despite the political dominance of Democrats and Republicans, there have been several other party movements. None has succeeded in winning the presidency or the control of Congress, but the positions they advocate are often later adopted by the major parties. This was especially true of Theodore Roosevelt's Progressive party in 1912. Most of its platform has since become public policy.

The first distinctive third party was the Anti-Mason—in opposition to the Masonic lodge and other secret societies. The Nullification and Anti-Jackson parties were South Carolina protests against federal authority. The American, or Know Nothing, party of 1856 opposed immigration and Roman Catholicism. The Liberty and Free-Soil parties were pre-Civil War antislavery groups. In 1860 the Constitutional Union party tried to avoid the slavery issue.

The Greenbacks of 1876 and the Populists of 1890 advocated easy credit. In 1920 the Farmer-Labor party entered national politics. Its name survives in Minnesota's Democratic Farmer-Labor party. Several Socialist and Communist parties have come into existence. The Prohibition party became active in 1869. In 1924 a Progressive party presented a national ticket headed by Robert M. LaFollette, Sr. Still another Progressive party was launched in 1948 with Henry A. Wallace as its candidate for president.

Southern Democrats rebelled against the party's civil rights policy in 1948 and formed the States' Rights Democratic, or Dixiecrats, party with J. Strom Thurmond as their presidential candidate. In 1968 the American Independent party nominee, George C. Wallace, made a strong showing with more than 9 million popular and 46 electoral votes. John Anderson, a Republican member of Congress from Illinois, ran as an independent in the 1980 presidential election, finishing with more than 5 million popular votes. Independent presidential candidate H. Ross Perot captured 19 percent of the popular ballot in the 1992 election, though he failed to win a single electoral vote.

Chapter 2

Cabinet government

Text 1

The British System

The origins of cabinet government in England date back to the Middle Ages. The early kings had a court called the *Curia Regis*, which means “king's court.” It was made up of various household officials and anyone else the king looked to for

advice. The king's Privy Council eventually developed from this court. This group of advisers performed most of the functions of government.

As the council grew in size, kings chose an inner circle of special advisers. After the Glorious Revolution of 1688, the king was obliged to select his advisers from Parliament. George I, who spoke German and French but no English, became king in 1714 and stopped attending meetings of the Privy Council. The king turned the meetings over to Sir Robert Walpole, who became the king's first, or prime, minister (a title that Walpole himself rejected as a term of abuse). Walpole thus became the first prime minister in the modern sense—the first leader of the House of Commons to preside at Cabinet meetings.

Throughout the 18th century the Cabinet maintained a position between king and Parliament. It had real executive power, but it could not do anything that the king or the legislature disapproved of. The Reform Bill of 1832 changed the Cabinet's status. Since that time no Cabinet has been able to maintain itself in power unless it had the support of a majority of the House of Commons or could obtain a majority by dissolving the House and appealing to the people in an election. The most successful way to gain and maintain the required majority is through a political party. Hence, cabinet government and political parties developed simultaneously in the United Kingdom. Cabinet members generally have seats in Parliament, and they regularly attend sessions to defend and justify their actions before the rest of the legislature—especially members of the opposition party.

Theoretically the British Cabinet advises the monarch—the king or queen. In practice, however, the Cabinet is the center of government. Individually, Cabinet members administer the departments of state. Together they set policy on all major issues and propose laws. Because they have a majority of their party or coalition in the House of Commons, their laws are normally passed without difficulty.

The prime minister, called premier in some countries, directs the government in much the same way an American president directs the executive branch. He (or she—Margaret Thatcher became the United Kingdom's first woman prime minister in 1979) is nominally appointed by the Crown and is generally the leader of the party that wins the most seats in the House of Commons in the general election. The prime minister chooses about 100 ministers from the House of Commons or the House of Lords to form the rest of the government. Of these, some 20 become members of the Cabinet.

The prime minister has virtually total authority over the Cabinet. He may drop or add members, and he may also give one minister two or more posts. The prime minister himself may hold one or more posts—nearly always he is first lord of the treasury. Chief Cabinet offices include deputy prime minister; secretary of state for foreign and Commonwealth affairs; chancellor of the exchequer, who deals with public finance; and secretary of state for home affairs.

Robert Walpole, the first prime minister, lived at Number 10 Downing Street in the Westminster section of London. At his death he left the house to the government. It is still the residence of the prime minister (though in 1997 Prime

Minister Tony Blair moved into 11 Downing Street, a more spacious residence, to house his large family), and the Cabinet holds its meetings there.

Text 2

The United States System

The word cabinet does not appear anywhere in the United States Constitution. The framers of the Constitution did, of course, expect that the president would appoint officers to help him. Article II, Section 2, stipulates: "The President may require the Opinion, in writing, of the principal Officer in each of the Executive Departments, upon any Subject relating to the Duties of their respective Offices." But if the president wanted advice, he was expected to go to the Senate for it.

George Washington, however, instead turned to his department heads for counsel. At first he met with them individually. Soon he began to invite some or all of them to more formal meetings. By 1793 the meetings became fairly regular, and his advisers soon became known as the president's Cabinet. Congress created the Departments of State, of the Treasury, and of War in its first session in 1789. The heads of these departments and the attorney general formed the first Cabinet. The Department of the Navy was created in 1798. In 1829 the postmaster general was raised to the rank of a department head. The Department of the Interior was established in 1849. The Department of Justice was created in 1870, and the attorney general became its head. The Department of Agriculture was created in 1862; its chief became a Cabinet officer in 1889. A Department of Commerce and Labor was created in 1903 and was divided into two departments in 1913.

In 1947 a new Cabinet post, the secretary of defense, was created to replace the secretaries of war and the navy. Congress also created a new Department of the Air Force and converted the War Department to the Department of the Army. Two years later the three branches of the military officially became part of the new Department of Defense. In 1953 the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare was created. Departments of Housing and Urban Development and of Transportation were added in 1965 and 1966, respectively. In 1971 the Post Office Department was reorganized as the United States Postal Service, and the postmaster general lost his Cabinet position. A Department of Energy was created in 1977. In 1980 the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare was renamed the Department of Health and Human Services, and a separate Department of Education was created. The Department of Veterans Affairs was added in 1989. In 2002 the Department of Homeland Security was created.

The heads of the 15 executive departments of the United States government form the president's Cabinet. At the discretion of the president, other officials, such as the ambassador to the United Nations or the head of the Environmental Protection Agency, can be accorded Cabinet-level rank.

Although the president appoints the department heads, they must be approved by the Senate. The Senate rarely rejects a president's choice. The president may dismiss any Cabinet member by asking for his or her resignation.

Presidents generally choose Cabinet members from among their political supporters. They have often tried to select people from different parts of the country and to include women and members of ethnic minorities. Some presidents have even selected members of the other major party to make the Cabinet more inclusive.

The Cabinet meets regularly at the White House on days chosen by the president. Special meetings are called in emergencies. The president and the vice president sit across from each other at an oval conference table, and the rest of the Cabinet members sit in an arrangement that reflects the order in which their offices were established. Meetings are informal. No records are kept. Questions are seldom put to a formal vote because the president alone makes the final decision. Abraham Lincoln is reported to have suggested a policy to his Cabinet that every member voted against. Lincoln calmly declared, "Seven nays, one aye. The aye has it." Harry Truman expressed the same sentiment with a sign on his desk that said simply, "The buck stops here." After all the discussion and exchange of opinion, the president alone must make the decision, and the responsibility is always his alone. Nevertheless, at times some members of the Cabinet resign from office because of policy disagreements with the president.

Chapter 3

Parliament

Text 1

Parliament of Great Britain

The head of state of the United Kingdom is the monarch, presently Queen Elizabeth II. The monarch is by law the head of the executive and judicial portions of government as well as a part of the legislative portion of government (Parliament). She has the right to summon Parliament and to dissolve it. She opens each new session of Parliament with a speech written by the prime minister's government outlining their goals. The monarch gives assent to bills passed by Parliament, though her assent is now largely a formality.

The prime minister is head of government. Political power resides with the prime minister and the Cabinet, which has about 20 members. These are responsible for administering all national affairs, setting policy, and introducing legislation in Parliament. Most members of the Cabinet are members of the House of Commons, but members of the House of Lords may participate, and the lord

chancellor (the speaker of the House of Lords) is always a Cabinet minister. The prime minister is always a member of the House of Commons and the leader of the party elected to a majority of seats in that body.

Parliament handles matters that concern the United Kingdom as a whole, including foreign affairs, defense, social security, and overall economic policy. Some powers of regional government have been devolved, or passed down, to assemblies in Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland. The United Kingdom's Parliament retains responsibility for the regional government of England.

The upper house, or House of Lords, is the older of the two parts of Parliament. It originated in the 11th century with the councils of nobles and high clergy who were the closest advisers to the monarch. The Lords was at one time the more powerful of the two houses, but over the centuries its powers were whittled away. While it corresponds in some respects to the United States Senate, its authority is much less.

The members of the House of Lords are not elected. The Lords is made up of peers of the realm (members of the nobility, or Lords Temporal), the highest clergy in the Church of England (Lords Spiritual), and the highest judges (Law Lords). There are about 700 members, though the number fluctuates. For some 700 years, all hereditary peers—the dukes, marquesses, earls, viscounts, and barons who passed their titles on from father to eldest son—were eligible to sit as members. From the 16th to the late 20th century, the hereditary peers made up the majority of the Lords. Most of these peers were members of the Conservative party, which essentially enjoyed a permanent large majority in the house. In 1998 there were some 750 hereditary peers. In 1999, however, reform legislation introduced by the Labour party government of Prime Minister Tony Blair limited the number of hereditary peers to 92 members, who are elected by their fellow peers. The great majority of the members of the House of Lords are now life peers or peeresses, individuals with nonhereditary titles conferred by the monarch in honor of outstanding accomplishments. All life peers and peeresses can be members of the house. The clergy who are members of the Lords are the archbishops of Canterbury and York and 24 other bishops of the Church of England. The Law Lords include 12 judges of the Supreme Court of Judicature (the Court of Appeal and the High Court of Justice), who are all also life peers. The Law Lords act as the country's final court of appeal (except in Scottish criminal cases).

In spite of the large number of members, the average attendance in the House of Lords is usually about 350. Because of its generally more relaxed schedule, the Lords has more time for the discussion of issues than does the Commons. While most of the members affiliate with a political party, many members, called crossbenchers, do not. The presiding officer is the lord chancellor, or the speaker of the house, who may take part in debates and votes. In addition to serving in Parliament, the lord chancellor is also a member of the Cabinet and the chief administrator of the courts.

Until the early years of the 20th century, the House of Lords had considerable power. The Lords could veto bills passed by the Commons and could

thereby direct public policy and keep a tight rein on liberal or socialist tendencies. This authority was stripped away by the Parliament Acts of 1911 and 1949. These bills enabled the Commons to override the House of Lords by allowing bills to become law after a specified time, even if the Lords failed to act or vetoed them. The House of Lords still plays an important role in revising bills initiated by the House of Commons, especially those that have not been formulated in great enough detail. In addition, the Lords initiates noncontroversial bills.

The House of Commons is the real legislative authority. The national chief executive is the prime minister, who is the leader of the majority party in the Commons. Almost all legislation is introduced by the majority party. The Commons has complete control of money bills—all tax policy and expenditures. Under the law all legislation must be passed by the Commons and Lords in identical form and be assented to by the monarch. In practice, however, the Lords rarely holds up legislation passed by the Commons, and the sovereign almost automatically agrees to any bill passed. The royal veto power has not been used since the reign of Queen Anne, early in the 18th century.

There are 659 members in the Commons: 529 for England, 72 for Scotland, 40 for Wales, and 18 for Northern Ireland. Members are elected from constituencies, or electoral districts, determined by the Parliamentary Boundary Commissions. Citizens of the United Kingdom, of a Commonwealth country, or of the Republic of Ireland who are 21 years of age and older are eligible to run for the Commons as long as they do not fall into one of the disqualified categories. Apart from convicted criminals, those disqualified include members of the House of Lords; government employees; members of the armed forces; policemen; most judges; government-nominated members of some public corporations; and persons in bankruptcy.

Text 2

Sessions of Parliament

Under a law passed in 1911 a general election for all members of the House of Commons must be held every five years. Elections, however, may be called at any time within that period. Dissolution of Parliament and new elections can be forced by opposition parties. If, for instance, the ruling party loses a vote of confidence in Parliament on a critical issue, a general election may be called. Or if the ruling party believes it is riding a crest of popularity, it may call an election. Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher called such an election for June 1987, and her party won by a considerable margin. If a vacancy occurs in the Commons, a by-election is held to fill the seat.

After a general election the monarch appoints as prime minister the leader of the party that has the majority of members in the Commons. If no party has a majority, the one with the most members must reach an agreement with one or more other parties to form a coalition government. In times of national crisis a

coalition government may be formed even if one party has a majority. The government of Prime Minister Winston Churchill during World War II was such a coalition.

The opening of a new Parliament takes place shortly after an election. Sessions of a sitting Parliament normally begin in late October or early November. The opening of a session is a formal ceremonial affair. The monarch reads a speech to both houses outlining the government's goals for the session. A Parliament cannot be legally constituted without the presence of the monarch and the rest of the government.

The primary officials of the Commons are the speaker, the chairman of Ways and Means, two deputy chairmen, the clerk, the sergeant at arms, and heads of such departments as the library, the administration, and the official report. The speaker of the house presides over and regulates debate and rules on points of order. He does not speak during debate or vote on bills, unless a vote is tied. Each party has a whip, whose duty it is to assure attendance of members during votes. There is also an officially recognized leader of the opposition, a member of the largest minority party.

Proposed legislation usually originates with the Cabinet. Every bill gets a public reading, which is basically an order to get it printed. At the second reading debate begins. The bill is then sent to the proper committee of the Commons for a clause-by-clause analysis. Committees are organized in relation to the Cabinet departments—defense, foreign policy, agriculture, energy, environment, and so forth. In some cases the whole house may act as a committee.

After review by a committee the bill is reported to the Commons for a final reading, debate, and vote. The vote in Parliament is called a division of the house, meaning that the members divide, usually along party lines, for or against the legislation. Bills originating in the Lords follow much the same procedure, but the entire house usually participates at the committee stage, as the Committee of the Whole House.

Bills passed by Parliament are made part of the public record. Unlike legislation in the United States, the validity of acts of Parliament cannot be challenged. There is no court higher than Parliament. Appealing the constitutionality of a law does not apply, because the constitution of the United Kingdom is only partly written, and Parliament essentially decides what the constitution comprises at any given time.

The members of the Commons also participate in a regularly scheduled question period, in which members require government ministers, including the prime minister, to answer questions regarding their departments. This question time generates policy debates and allows the opposition an opportunity to attack government policy and to raise its own issues.

Text 3

Parliaments of British Origin

Most of the nations that were once British colonies or dependencies have legislative bodies modeled after Parliament. The major difference between Britain's Parliament and the others is that the latter are regulated by fully written constitutions. Some parliaments, such as New Zealand's, are unicameral.

Australia

The people of Australia have been governed by their own parliament since 1901. In 1900 the British Parliament passed the Commonwealth Act, which went into effect on Jan. 1, 1901. The act provides for a federal parliamentary government for Australia, a nation divided into six states and two territories. Australia's Parliament consists of the governor-general (who is officially the representative of the British monarch), the Senate, and the House of Representatives.

The Senate has 76 members. There are 12 from each state and two each from the Australian Capital Territory and the Northern Territory. The term for senators from the states is six years, with half the membership up for election every three years. The terms of senators from the territories expire on the day before a general election for the House of Representatives and are therefore three years or less.

The House of Representatives consists of about twice as many members as there are senators. The members are chosen in proportion to the population. A session of the House lasts three years unless it is dissolved sooner. All money bills originate in the House. To become law a bill must be passed by both houses and assented to by the governor-general.

As in other parliamentary systems, the leader of the controlling party is prime minister and has executive power. Policy is developed by the prime minister and the Cabinet.

A remarkable feature of the Commonwealth Act is a provision to end deadlocks between the Senate and House. Under certain circumstances, the governor-general may dissolve both houses at the same time if, within one or two sessions, the Senate has twice rejected a bill passed by the House. A new House and Senate are then elected. If the new House then passes the same bill again and the Senate rejects it again, the governor-general may call for a combined meeting of the two houses. If at this meeting the bill is passed by an absolute majority of the combined membership, it is considered to have passed both houses.

Canada

The framework of the Canadian Parliament was defined in the British North America Act of 1867. It states that "there shall be one Parliament for Canada, consisting of the Queen, an upper house, styled the Senate, and the House of Commons." The executive power was vested in the queen and carried in her name by the governor-general and Privy Council. The act of 1867 was replaced in 1982 by the Canada Act, the last bill passed by the British Parliament concerning the

Canadian constitution. Canada has since had complete authority over provisions of its constitution. The Act of 1982, however, did not alter the structure of the nation's legislature.

The first national Parliament of Canada met on Nov. 6, 1867, in Ottawa, Ont. The members of the House of Commons, representing the four provinces that then made up Canada, were nearly all veterans in government. They had served in colonial assemblies, and several of them were among the Fathers of Confederation who had worked for a national government. John A. Macdonald was chosen as the first prime minister.

The Canadian Senate has 105 members, all of whom are appointed by the governor-general. Those who were in office as of June 2, 1965, may serve for life. Representation by province is as follows: 24 each from Ontario and Quebec; ten each from Nova Scotia and New Brunswick; six each from Newfoundland and Labrador, Manitoba, British Columbia, Alberta, and Saskatchewan; four from Prince Edward Island; and one each from the Yukon Territory, the Northwest Territories, and Nunavut. A senator must be at least 30 years of age, a citizen, a resident of the province represented, and have a stipulated level of financial worth.

The Senate votes on bills passed by the House of Commons. It may also originate bills, except those having to do with money. Occasionally the Senate alters a bill by amending it, since the senators have more time for study and debate than do members of the Commons.

Most of the real governing power for Canada is in the House of Commons. There are 301 members, who are all elected by the people. Membership of the House of Commons is based on proportional representation among the provinces of Canada, with each province or territory having at least as many members in the Commons as it does in the Senate. All money bills and most other pieces of legislation originate in the Commons. The prime minister is the leader of the controlling party in the Commons.

As in Britain, elections for members of the Commons must be held every five years unless Parliament is dissolved sooner. A new election can be called at almost any time. A vote of no confidence in the Commons necessitates an election. The formal ending of a Parliament is a writ by the governor-general, who dissolves the legislature. Prior to 1977 the actions of the governor-general were in the name of the sovereign. In that year the queen transferred her functions to the governor-general.

All bills must be assented to in identical form by all three branches of Parliament in order to become law. (The third branch is the governor-general, who must be present at Parliament's opening for the session to be legally constituted.) In practice the Senate almost always passes bills passed by the House of Commons. The governor-general signs the bills after they have passed through both chambers. The three-way division of authority operates smoothly most of the time. The House of Commons is for all practical purposes the supreme power. The other two branches function as checks and balances.

Text 4

Other Parliaments

The history of parliamentary legislatures in Continental Europe is one of uneven development. There is nothing comparable to the unbroken evolution of the British Parliament. Many European nations were absolute monarchies with little need for an independent legislature. Italy and Germany did not become unified states until 1870 and 1871, respectively. Only then were they able to create national legislatures. France's Estates-General was abolished by the Revolution of 1789 and replaced by a National Assembly.

Most national legislatures of Europe emerged during the 19th century, and most were bicameral. The trend toward popular sovereignty and parliamentary government, however, made the composition of the traditionally conservative upper houses a problem. They had to be changed, or they would continually defy the will of the electorate. No satisfactory determination of their role has been found. Some nations—among them The Netherlands, France, and Belgium—converted their upper houses into forums for local government units. In Italy the Senate became a virtual duplicate of the Chamber of Deputies, though the members are generally older and there are fewer of them.

Major political power rapidly came to be exercised by the lower houses. In 1971 Sweden eliminated its upper house altogether. In Norway the parliament (Storting) assembles as a unit but then divides itself into two houses to conduct business. When the two parts disagree, a bill is considered by the whole legislature. A law passed in this manner then must be put before the whole electorate.

Historical Background

The origins of parliaments can be traced to the popular assemblies that seem to have existed among early European tribes. The assemblies developed into advisory councils that shared power with tribal chiefs. The witenagemot, or “meeting of the wise,” among Anglo-Saxon tribes is an ancestor of modern legislatures, as is the Althing, the deliberating body established in Iceland in 930. During the early Middle Ages a *parlement* was usually a meeting of the king and his council, to which judges were summoned to consider pleas and petitions. Such a body thus incorporated the executive (king), legislative, and judicial functions of the government.

The name *parlement*, also called by the Latin term *parliamentum*, was also applied to a gathering of lords (clergy and nobles) and representatives of the commons (knights and town leaders) when called by the king for a colloquium, literally, a “talking together.” A colloquium might be held to discuss a specific problem such as raising an army for an invasion. More often it was a king's way to get permission to raise money.

Such parliaments began meeting in the 13th century during the reign of England's Edward I. Rolls of membership and statutes were kept beginning in

1278. The separation of functions in government began early in the 13th century, when the Court of Common Pleas began operating on its own. The separation of the king's council (today's Cabinet) began in the 14th century. The council became a definite legal body during the reign of Richard II, when councillors were sworn in. By the end of the reign of Henry V in 1422, the council and Parliament were two distinct governmental bodies.

With the separation of functions, Parliament began to develop as a purely legislative body. Petitions asking for a change in the law came to the king's council. Such changes, even minor improvements, were considered serious because they took place in a society that was rigidly structured and devoted to tradition and custom (*see feudalism*). Although the king and council could legally issue a new law, it became customary to refer proposed laws to Parliament.

By the 14th century a distinction had emerged between statutes of Parliament and ordinances published by the king and council. Statutes were laws based on petitions from individuals or groups, and they were agreed to by the king and Parliament. Because laws from Parliament were entered on the statute roll, they soon claimed a high degree of authority. Gradually Parliament became critical of laws passed as ordinances and began to claim the right to be consulted on all legislation. By the mid-15th century, in the time of Henry VI, bills no longer needed to originate as private petitions. They could be public bills introduced by a member of Parliament.

Discussion of bills and petitions usually took place in the absence of the king. It became customary for the nobles and higher clergy to meet in one chamber, or house, while knights and town leaders (the burgesses) met in another. These separate meetings were the origin of the two houses of Parliament, the Lords and the Commons. Strictly speaking there were three houses because the king and council were also considered part of Parliament.

As the separation between Lords and Commons became fixed, the king was forced to select most of his councillors from among members of the two houses. After the king made his opening speech (still the prerogative of the monarch), he and any councillors who were not members of Parliament departed. The Commons would then meet by itself in the chapter house of Westminster Abbey, while the Lords met in the Palace of Westminster (the official name of today's Parliament building in the City of Westminster, Greater London).

The position of Parliament was greatly enhanced during the reign of the Tudor monarchs—from Henry VII to Elizabeth I. All the changes in English society achieved by Henry VIII were carried out by acts of Parliament. Law by royal ordinance was still possible, but Henry was too shrewd a politician not to use Parliament to indicate popular approval. During his reign, in 1547, publication of the daily proceedings of the House of Commons began. The journal of the House of Lords had been published since 1509.

Henry VIII began the practice of keeping Parliament in session for years but sending the members home for an occasional recess. By doing this he did not have to dissolve Parliament, which would have required new elections of knights and burgesses—the Lords were hereditary. By simply interrupting sessions, Henry was

able to keep the same Parliamentary membership for years. This was an advantage to him because he knew the members and could rely on their support.

The political party system began slowly in the late 17th century with the emergence of factions either favoring or opposing James II. These factions were called Tory and Whig, terms applied to later political parties that represented either conservative or liberal policies in Parliament.

Chapter 4

Primaries

Text 1

Real Representation

That every citizen of a nation should be allowed to vote for public officials is a fairly modern idea. It dates from the 18th century, when such writers as John Locke, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, and Thomas Jefferson voiced the idea of civil rights for all citizens. The events of the American and French revolutions enabled this idea to be put into practice.

Originally, from the ancient world until the early modern period, what was represented in government were certain wealthy and powerful vested interests. These included landowners, nobles, corporations, and churches. The common people did not count for much in the councils of government. They had no voice in selecting the people who would rule over them, and their interests carried little weight. They simply did the work and supplied the military manpower.

During the 19th century the suffrage, or right to vote, was gradually extended. It was first extended to the working classes of Europe and the United States—but to males only. Women won the right to vote in many states of the United States, but they could not vote in presidential elections until 1920. At about the same time women won the vote in Belgium, The Netherlands, Germany, Poland, and Canada. Not until 1928 did women get the right to vote in the United Kingdom. In France, Italy, Japan, China, and some other countries this did not happen until after World War II. In some conservative Arab countries bordering the Persian Gulf, women won the right to vote in the late 20th or early 21st century. In most countries voting rights have been extended to citizens 18 years of age or older.

In the United States nearly every political unit has elections—from small towns, cities, counties, and states, to the nation itself. There is, however, only one national election every four years, and it is for the offices of president and vice president. The rest of the general elections, which are held every two years, are really simultaneous state elections. At each of these, candidates are elected for all

of the House of Representatives and one third of the Senate, as well as for a variety of state and local offices.

Text 2

Election Practices

Since the mid-19th century, election procedures have become fairly standardized and formal in the large democratic nations. Voters are registered according to where they live; they are entitled to vote in secret; use of the ballot makes secret voting possible; and some societies make voting compulsory by law.

Secret voting depends for its success on most people's being able to read and being willing to make their own decisions in private. Those who cannot read must have help in marking a ballot, and the helper might vote for anyone—the illiterate voter would never know the difference. Secret voting also requires that citizens stop taking instructions on voting from social superiors. They must think for themselves how their interests can best be served. Secret voting also makes it more difficult for committed party workers to “deliver” the vote, or get large numbers of people to vote for the candidate they are promoting.

Voting is done at polling places. After voters identify themselves, they may be given printed ballots with the names of all candidates as well as ballots with the various issues to be decided. Or the individual voter may simply enter a voting booth where all the names and issues are on a voting machine. Whereas ballots have squares next to the names to be filled in with an “X,” some voting machines have small levers by each name. To vote for a candidate, the voter simply pushes down a lever. After making all selections, the voter opens the typical booth's curtain by pulling a large handle on the front of the machine. This action also registers the choices within the machine. There is also a system of punch-card voting. In the booth is a book containing the names of the candidates on several pages. A card is inserted in the book, and the voter uses a pin to push through holes next to the names selected. Holes are punched in the card at the proper places, and this becomes the completed ballot. Various computerized voting machines also have been used.

In Australia, Belgium, and some other nations, voting is compulsory, or required by law, for all citizens of voting age. The purpose of compulsory voting is to ensure the equal voting rights of all.

Text 3

Election Participation

The percentage of individuals who vote depends on a variety of circumstances: the significance of the election, how strongly the voters feel about

issues, the social groupings to which voters belong, and the voter's personality and beliefs. Electoral turnout is greater in national elections than in state contests and is usually greater in state elections than in local ones. This is probably because there is more drama connected with larger elections, and the candidates and issues are better known because of greater television and newspaper coverage.

Levels of education, income, and occupational status also affect voter participation. Groups in society that have more recently received the right to vote tend to participate less. Hence women vote less often than men, blacks less than whites, working-class members less than middle-class citizens, and young people less than older ones. Nonparticipation naturally has an effect on the outcome of elections. If everyone were to vote, the balance of power in a society would shift toward the most recently enfranchised and less privileged citizens.

Participation tends to be higher among voters who are committed to a political party. These individuals usually feel that government policies have a direct influence on their lives.

Independent voters may or may not be poorly informed or relatively uninterested in politics. Although independence is often based on strongly held convictions, sometimes it results from an unwillingness to be committed unless they see that an issue or candidate directly affects them.

Chapter 5

Lobbying

Text 1

Lobbying

Attempts to influence the decisions of government are called lobbying. The term comes from the fact that attempts to put pressure on legislators often took place in the vestibule, or lobby, adjacent to the legislative chamber. The activity is most commonly associated with private interest groups, such as representatives of corporations or labor unions, but it may also be carried out by individuals. Legislators themselves, when they try to influence the making of public policy by other officials, are lobbyists.

Governments are composed of competing interest groups and factions. James Madison, in the 10th Federalist paper, states: "By a faction, understand a number of citizens, whether amounting to a majority or minority of the whole, who are united and actuated by some common impulse of passion, or of interest." Madison realized that the effects of factions could not be prevented, but he believed that they could be controlled by the checks and balances built into the Constitution.

Lobbying may be done in several ways. Interests may be represented openly before committees of a legislature or before administrative tribunals. Public

officials may also have private meetings with lobbyists. Some lobbying organizations organize grass roots campaigns through the media to build support for their causes.

An example of such a grass roots campaign occurred in 1983. Banks and savings and loan associations campaigned to get people to write senators and congressmen in order to repeal a law requiring these institutions to withhold tax on interest payments for the federal government.

Indirect lobbying

This term denotes group activity designed to influence government by shaping public opinion through the news media and advertising. One of the most notable ways this has been done since the early 1970s is through political action committees, usually called PACs. The comprehensive campaign financing act of 1974 provided for the public financing of presidential campaigns, but it did not make the same provision for congressional campaigns. Business and labor organizations succeeded in having a provision inserted in the law allowing the formation of independent political action committees that could raise funds either to support or defeat particular candidates. By 1983 more than 3,500 such PACs existed. The hundreds of millions of dollars they raised for campaign purposes brought charges that they were unduly trying to influence the legislative process with their contributions.

Text 2

The American Experience

In the United States, as well as in other popular democracies, the idea of representative government suggests that elected officials owe service to the people who live in their districts and states. Throughout the 19th century and much of the 20th, however, elected officials were often controlled by private interests whose power and money could, among other things, aid in a political campaign. Thus, in the second half of the 19th century, during a period of rapid industrialization, representatives and senators passed a great deal of legislation favorable to the railroads, steel companies, oil companies, and other industries. These laws were frequently against the public interest.

The power of industry over elected officials became so great that, in 1906, an investigative reporter named David Graham Phillips published a series of articles under the overall title, 'The Treason of the Senate'. In dramatic detail Phillips exposed the alliance between big business and the most influential senators. His articles, combined with a general public outrage over government scandals, led to a movement for reform in campaign financing. Beginning in 1907, a series of laws was passed, culminating in the 1925 Federal Corrupt Practices Act. Unfortunately, the laws were written in such a manner that their intent could easily be evaded.

In 1913 the ratification of the 17th Amendment provided for the direct election of United States senators. Until then they had been elected by the state legislatures and were, therefore, less accountable to the public than to the interests that got them elected. This amendment helped bring the Senate's work more into the spotlight and weaken the strong ties between business interests and the senators.

Demands to curb the excessive influence of pressure groups led to the Federal Regulation of Lobbying Act in 1946. The law requires lobbyists to register and to report contributions and expenditures. The groups they represent must make similar reports. The assumption behind the law is that lobbyists cannot do much harm if their activities are publicized.

The most effective lobbying in the United States is done by large associations representing single industries, trades, professions, or other interests. Typical national associations have federal, state, and local units capable of operating at every level of government. Representative examples of such associations are the Chamber of Commerce of the United States; the American Fur Industry, Inc.; the American Medical Association; the National Association of Manufacturers; the National Association of Realtors; the American Petroleum Institute; and the Western Cotton Growers Association.

Lobbying is also done directly by corporations, labor groups, and citizens' groups. The citizens' groups are the most recent to emerge, and they represent an effort on the part of a number of organizations to influence legislation on behalf of segments of the general public. Most of the citizens' groups deal with specific matters: the Wilderness Society, for instance, is concerned with environmental issues; and the Citizen/Labor Energy Coalition tries to influence laws on price controls for oil and gas. Two of the best known citizens' groups are Common Cause and Public Citizen, Inc. Common Cause works for general political and social reform, with a goal of making government more responsive to the people. Public Citizen, Inc., started by consumer advocate Ralph Nader, also addresses a broad spectrum of issues, but it emphasizes consumer problems versus the power of the corporations and other private interests.

Chapter 6

Initiative, Referendum, and Recall

Text 1

History and Use of Initiative, Referendum and Recall

Both the initiative and the referendum originated in Switzerland in the first half of the 19th century. In 1831 the canton of St. Gall adopted what is called the

facultative, or optional, referendum. The obligatory referendum was first adopted by the canton of rural Basel in 1863. The initiative came into use at Vaud in 1845.

Both the referendum and the initiative were adopted in the United States under the leadership of groups hostile to machine politics or those convinced that government was generally insensitive to the popular will. But these devices, like the recall, are legal only in certain states and municipalities, not at the national level.

Since the early 1970s, the initiative has increased greatly in popularity. The use of the device gained momentum with the emergence of groups concerned with specific issues such as civil rights, abortion, capital punishment, nuclear power, tax policies, handgun control, and the environment.

Probably the most celebrated initiative to pass in recent years was Proposition 13 in California. This was a highly popular proposal to reduce property taxes in the state by 57 percent. Its success in 1978, despite the strong opposition of the governor, state legislature, and the bureaucracy, prompted tax revolts in several other states.

Some plebiscites have gained international attention since the late 1970s, because they dealt with matters of great concern to large groups of people. On May 18, 1981, Italians resoundingly defeated a proposal to repeal a controversial 1978 abortion law, although the Catholic church had strenuously urged repeal. Canadians, in May 1980, defeated a proposal that would have forced the national government to negotiate sovereignty for the French-speaking province of Quebec. In the United States, during the 1982 congressional elections, there were successful, nonbinding plebiscites in several states and municipalities on the issue of a nuclear weapon freeze.

Like the initiative and referendum, recall originated in Switzerland, where it was made applicable to the entire legislature as well as to individual officials. The device was first adopted in the United States in 1903 as a part of the Los Angeles city charter. Many cities and about one fourth of the states have incorporated it into their charters or constitutions. A year after Los Angeles adopted the device, voters in that city recalled a city councilman. In 1921 the voters of North Dakota removed from office the governor, attorney general, and commissioner of agriculture. The mayors of Detroit and Los Angeles were recalled in 1929 and 1938, respectively. In April 1983, a recall vote to remove San Francisco's mayor Dianne Feinstein from office was overwhelmingly defeated.

Text 2

Initiative, referendum, and recall

Taken together, they are called the politics of direct action. Initiative, referendum, and recall are three means by which the people may bring their will to bear directly on the legislative process and the machinery of government. Most constitutional democracies, such as Australia, Canada, Italy, and the United States, operate through a system of representative government. If the people are dissatisfied with and want to change the actions of government, or if the

government wants to get public approval for a given policy, these three devices are available.

Initiative is a legislative proposal that originates with the people. Recall, the device by which voters may remove public officials from office, also originates with the people. Referendum, however, is a measure submitted by the government to the people for their approval. All three have in common the fact that, at some point or other, the people vote on them; and in most cases, the vote of the people is final.

Any proposed law can, with sufficient backing, be put on the ballot in an election. To do this, petitions have to be signed by a certain portion of the electorate, or voters. If the petitions are approved and the signatures are valid, the proposal can be voted on. If it passes, it becomes law. Sometimes initiatives are first submitted to a legislature. If they are passed there, they become law without the need for a popular vote. If they fail, they may be submitted directly to a vote by the public, who may override the action of the legislature.

There are two kinds of referenda: obligatory and optional. In many areas certain proposals must be put on the ballot for public approval. For example, when a school district wants to issue bonds for building construction, it goes to the voters with an obligatory referendum. In the United States, amendments to state constitutions also must be put before the voters for approval. This practice was first adopted by the state of Connecticut in 1818, and by the 20th century it had become the prevailing way of changing constitutions.

Under the optional referendum, a specified number of voters may, by petition, demand a popular vote on a law passed by the legislature (a process similar to the initiative). By this means, an act of the legislature can be overturned in a kind of popular veto.

There is another kind of referendum, called the plebiscite (from a Latin term meaning “decree of the people”), whereby questions or issues are submitted to the vote of the people. Depending on the nature of the particular plebiscite, the result may be binding or it may be only advisory.

Recall is a device, used mostly in the United States at the state and local level, whereby voters may remove a public official from office before the expiration of his or her term. It is based on the principle that officeholders are agents of the popular will and should, therefore, be constantly subject to its control.

Chapter 7

The Commonwealth and European Union

Text 1

The Commonwealth

The largest, richest, and most powerful empire in the world's history was the British Empire. At its zenith, Great Britain ruled broad lands on every continent and islands in every ocean. It was a common saying that the sun never set on Britain's dominions. As one after another of these lands have become independent states, they have joined together in the Commonwealth (from 1931 until 1949, the British Commonwealth of Nations). It too spans the globe. The territory of its member states covers almost a quarter of the land surface of the Earth and contains nearly a fourth of its people. It comprises peoples of every race and many religions and includes some of the oldest as well as some of the youngest civilizations.

The Commonwealth is a free, voluntary association of sovereign states, together with dependencies for which certain states are responsible. The sovereign member states are free and equal partners with Great Britain in the association. When a dependency achieves full sovereignty, it may decide whether or not to be a member. A member may elect to leave the Commonwealth. Few states have left.

Free Association Without Legal Ties

The Commonwealth differs from other international bodies. It has no formal constitution or bylaws. The members have no legal or formal obligation to one another; they are held together by shared traditions, institutions, and experiences as well as by economic self-interest.

Commonwealth action is based upon consultation—in correspondence and conversations between members and in meetings. The center for consultation in Great Britain is the Foreign and Commonwealth Office. It is headed by the secretary of state for Foreign and Commonwealth Affairs, a Cabinet member. Each member nation sends an emissary, called a high commissioner, to the capitals of the other members. Conferences include the Heads of Government Conference and the Education Conference.

Educational cooperation among the member nations takes many forms. About two thirds of the foreign students in Great Britain's universities are from the Commonwealth, and many receive scholarships. Hundreds of teachers go overseas each year. Britain and the other older members send extensive educational and technical aid to the developing countries.

Britain has huge overseas investments, both government and private, in the Commonwealth. Britain also grants tariff preferences to Commonwealth members and contributes to the development of the dependencies. Many of the Commonwealth countries' exports go to other member nations.

Text 2

The History of the Commonwealth

Beginnings of the First British Empire

In the 16th century England was a small island kingdom without overseas possessions. Spain and Portugal had taken the lead in opening up the New World and the routes to India. They claimed a monopoly of trade with the new lands.

England had established a claim to North America in 1497 through the voyage of John Cabot, sailing under the English flag.

During the reign of Queen Elizabeth I, English buccaneers and privateers raided Spanish settlements and seized Spanish treasure ships. These raids helped plunge the two nations into war. In 1588 the English fleet defeated Spain's Invincible Armada and established the superiority of English ships and seamanship.

England was now ready to enter the race for overseas trade and possessions. It built up its empire partly through combat and conquest and partly through discovery and settlement. In 1600 Elizabeth I granted a charter to the British East India Company, which was to lay the foundations for British rule in India. James I laid plans to colonize North America. The first permanent settlement was Jamestown, Va., founded in 1607. By 1700 English colonies stretched along the Atlantic seaboard. In the same period Britain annexed numerous islands in the West Indies, set up trading posts in Africa, founded a settlement in Burma, and secured footholds on the Indian peninsula.

Rivalry with the Dutch and the French

The Dutch and French had also entered the race for possessions. Wars against the Dutch in the 17th century brought various Dutch holdings, including New Netherland (New York), into the British Empire.

By the Treaty of Utrecht (1713) Great Britain acquired Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Hudson Bay territory from France. In 1763 the Treaty of Paris, which ended the Seven Years' War, gave England the rest of Canada. French influence in India declined and British supremacy was established there. The explorations of Captain Cook (in 1768, 1772, and 1776) and the settlement of Sydney (1788) and Wellington (1840) gave Britain title to Australia, New Zealand, and other valuable possessions in the Pacific Ocean.

Nine tenths of this first British Empire was in America. The richest and best developed part was the 13 American colonies. Because of their increasing freedom, wealth, and strength, many colonists came to treat lightly their tie with England. Finally they refused to submit to interference in their government and commerce. After a bitter war, they won their independence in 1781

Britain Builds a Second Empire

Meanwhile a momentous revolution of a different sort was taking place in England itself. This was the Industrial Revolution. Steam power and new machines completely changed processes of manufacture, particularly in the textile industry. Britain became the world's workshop. Manufacturers needed markets for their goods and raw materials for their factories. British shipping grew enormously. The British navy was called upon to make the vast shipping secure and to protect British investments and markets overseas.

Within 25 years after the loss of the American Colonies, a second and more extensive British Empire was well under way. Ceylon (now Sri Lanka) was added and Australia began to be colonized. Islands and harbors on the great trade routes

were acquired as naval bases, provisioning stations, or ports for trade. British migration to the colonies increased. The people chose principally areas in the temperate zones—Canada, South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand.

The Empire grew steadily in size and strength in the 19th and early 20th centuries. An agreement with the Dutch in 1824 gave Britain control over much of Malaya. The beginnings of its African domains had already been made on the west coast (Sierra Leone, the Gold Coast, Guinea, and others) in the 17th and 18th centuries. Cape Colony was captured from Holland in 1806, while that country was aiding Napoleon against England. The Dutch republic of Natal was added in 1843. Rhodesia was brought under control of the Empire largely by victories over the fierce Matabele tribe in 1893. The Transvaal and the Orange Free State were won in the Boer War (1899–1902). They were united in 1910 with Cape Colony and Natal to form the Union of South Africa.

A period called the New Imperialism set in about 1875. European nations engaged in a mad scramble for all lands in backward areas not yet taken over. In Britain this imperialistic drive is usually associated with the name of Benjamin Disraeli, who twice served as prime minister under Queen Victoria. He bought Suez Canal shares to ensure control of the route to India and the Far East and added to Queen Victoria's titles that of empress of India.

World War I and League Mandates

When the German empire tried to expand by conquest it threw Europe into World War I in 1914. The British lost heavily in men and wealth but emerged from the struggle with control over more territory than ever. Possessions of Germany and Turkey were distributed to the victors as League of Nations mandates.

Great Britain received parts of the Cameroons and Togoland and nearly all of German East Africa. This connected South Africa with British East Africa, the Sudan, and Egypt. Though occupied by Great Britain since 1882, Egypt belonged nominally to Turkey until World War I, when a British protectorate was proclaimed. The Union of South Africa received German Southwest Africa as a mandate. The League also added to the Empire the mandated territories of Palestine, Transjordan, and Iraq in Southwest Asia. All former German islands south of the equator were assigned to either Australia or New Zealand.

Loosening the Bonds of Empire

Great Britain had liberalized its colonial administration after the American Revolution. Colonies settled by English-speaking peoples quickly developed parliamentary government.

In 1867 the self-governing Dominion of Canada was formed. Australia achieved dominion status in 1901 and New Zealand in 1907. The Union of South Africa was created as a dominion in 1910 and the Irish Free State (southern Ireland) in 1922.

World War I was followed by a rise of nationalistic spirit among dependent peoples everywhere. The British agreed in 1930 to end their mandate over Iraq. In 1935 they granted a new constitution to India. They promised to withdraw their

forces from Egypt, and they made no objection when the Irish Free State in 1937 proclaimed itself the state of Éire.

Birth of the Commonwealth of Nations

When World War I broke out in 1914, the United Kingdom had declared war on behalf of the Empire without consulting the dominions. After the end of the war, in 1919, the dominions put their signatures to the peace treaty and were accepted as full members of the League of Nations. The Imperial Conference of 1926 defined Great Britain and the dominions as “autonomous communities, equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another in any aspect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations.” This principle was embodied in the Statute of Westminster, which was ratified in 1931.

At the outbreak of World War II, the member nations made their own declarations of war. All except Eire, which remained neutral, supported Great Britain. The Commonwealth suffered severely. Britain was hard-pressed at home, and its navy could not protect all the outlying dependencies. Several in the Far East and the Pacific were overrun and occupied. At the war's end Britain was exhausted and its authority in the Middle East and Asia weakened.

Unable to put down the warfare between Arabs and Jews in Palestine, Britain in 1948 resigned its mandate over the area. It had granted independence to the Arab state of Jordan in 1946. It relinquished control over India in 1947, dividing the subcontinent into India and Pakistan. In 1948 it gave Burma (now Myanmar) independence and Ceylon (now Sri Lanka) dominion status. In 1949 Eire was separated from the Commonwealth and became the Republic of Ireland.

India in 1949 adopted a constitution proclaiming it a republic. It desired to remain in the Commonwealth (if it were not called “British”); but as a republic it could not recognize the British king or queen as its sovereign. A Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference agreed that as a republic India might accept the Crown only as “the symbol of the free association” of Commonwealth members. The word British was dropped from the title of the organization.

Dependencies Guided Toward Independence

The dependencies are ruled by Great Britain, Australia, or New Zealand. Most of the older dependencies are colonies. Until 1983 there were also associated states, which governed their own internal affairs, and protectorates and protected states, administered through native princes or tribal chiefs.

Britain follows a policy of leading the dependencies toward self-government and training the people for the responsibilities of statehood. The usual method has been to create a territorial government in a colony. It comprises a lawmaking body (often called the legislative council); an executive body (called the executive council), which with the governor is the executive authority; and an independent judiciary. At first government posts are appointive, but an increasing elected element is introduced, as constitutions are altered, until elected officials are made wholly responsible. After a colony achieves internal self-government, its

legislature may apply to the British Parliament for complete independence. It decides whether to remain in the Commonwealth.

Growth of the Commonwealth

Commonwealth membership continued to grow as former dependencies attained sovereignty. Ghana and Malaya joined in 1957; Nigeria, 1960; and Cyprus, Sierra Leone, and Tanganyika, 1961. South Africa left in 1961 after other members condemned its racial policies. Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago, and Uganda joined in 1962. In 1963 the Federation of Malaysia (Malaya, Singapore, Sarawak, Sabah), Kenya, and Zanzibar joined, and the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland was dissolved. Malawi (Nyasaland), Zambia (Northern Rhodesia), and Malta joined in 1964. Singapore became a separate nation in 1965. Also in 1965 The Gambia became an independent member of the Commonwealth. In 1966 Guyana, Lesotho, Botswana, and Barbados became independent. In 1967 the West Indies colonies of Antigua, Dominica, Grenada, Saint Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla, and Saint Lucia became associated states. Mauritius, Swaziland, and the Pacific island of Nauru became independent in 1968.

As Anguilla's opposition grew toward its association with Saint Kitts-Nevis, it voted to break all ties with Great Britain. British troops invaded the island in 1969, and it came under direct colonial administration. In 1976 Anguilla was granted a separate dependence, which was formalized in 1980.

In 1970 Western Samoa joined the Commonwealth, and Fiji and Tonga became independent members. In 1972 Pakistan withdrew when other members recognized the independence of Bangladesh (East Pakistan), which joined the Commonwealth. The Bahamas won independence in 1973; Grenada, 1974; Papua New Guinea, 1975; Seychelles, 1976; Solomon Islands, Tuvalu (Ellice Islands), and Dominica, 1978; Saint Lucia, Kiribati (Gilbert Islands), and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, 1979; and Vanuatu (New Hebrides), 1980. Although Rhodesia unilaterally declared itself independent in 1965 and a republic in 1970, Britain refused to recognize its white-minority government. Officially independent as Zimbabwe in 1980, it joined the Commonwealth.

The Commonwealth Today

In 1981 independence came to the colony of Belize and to Antigua (as Antigua and Barbuda, including the uninhabited island of Redonda). The Maldives became a special member of the Commonwealth in 1982. The last of the British associated states in the Commonwealth, Saint Kitts and Nevis gained full independence in 1983. The protected sultanate of Brunei became fully independent in 1984. Fiji's membership lapsed in 1987 after it became a republic in the wake of a military coup. In 1989 Pakistan rejoined the Commonwealth.

In 1990 Namibia gained its independence and joined the Commonwealth. In September 1984 the governments of Britain and China drafted a pact to restore the colony of Hong Kong to Chinese rule beginning in 1997. South Africa was readmitted to the Commonwealth in 1994, and Cameroon joined the following year.

Text 3

European Union

Part 1

The organization for the economic and political integration of Europe known as the European Union (EU) was officially created on Nov. 1, 1993. In practice, however, the union traces its origins back to 1950, and it has continued to grow in the 21st century. EU members are sovereign countries that have control over their own basic economic and political affairs, yet they have agreed to follow several EU laws and standards, including treaties regulating regional and world trade, the free movement of citizens within the EU, environmental regulations, and security and law enforcement agreements.

There are five main governmental institutions of the EU. Both the European Parliament and the Council of the European Union make EU laws, among other responsibilities. Members of Parliament are elected directly, with proportionately larger numbers elected by the citizens of more populous countries. Members of the Council are appointed by the EU members' national governments, with the presidency shared on a rotating basis. Each president holds office for a six-month term. The European Commission is the executive branch of EU government and the “driving force” behind many of its actions. The Court of Justice resolves disputes between national laws and EU laws, while the Court of Auditors ensures that the budget is managed correctly.

When the European Parliament meets, its representatives sit with other members of their political group (consisting of several national political parties) rather than sitting in national groups. Among the larger political groups are the European Socialists, the European People's party (or Christian Democrats), the Liberal Democratic and Reform Group, the European Democrats, the European United Left, and the Greens (an environmental group).

After the terrible destruction and loss of life caused by World War II, many hoped that international cooperation would help Europe avoid future wars. Some felt that stronger economies would aid western European democracies, which they believed were threatened by the Communist states of eastern Europe. However, a union did not always seem possible. Few politicians wished to give up power, and they only gradually cooperated when international agreements also served their own interests, which might have included helping their own national corporations and special interest groups.

The creation of the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) was the first step on the road toward western European integration. It was formed through the efforts of Paul-Henri Spaak of Belgium and Robert Schuman and Jean Monnet of France, among other leaders. Schuman called for integration in a speech on May 9, 1950 (a date now celebrated as “Europe Day”). As a result, in April 1951 the Treaty of Paris set up an international agency to supervise the coal and steel

industries of Belgium, France, West Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, and The Netherlands. The treaty took effect on July 25, 1952. Brussels, Belgium, was named as headquarters for the ECSC, as it later was for the EU. By 1954 nearly all barriers to intra-community trade in coal and steel had been removed, and this success prompted further cooperation.

The same six countries agreed to establish the European Economic Community (EEC), or Common Market, in the Treaty of Rome in March 1957, and the EEC officially came into existence on Jan. 1, 1958. Among its goals were to remove European trade barriers, to establish a single trade policy toward nonmember countries, to coordinate transportation systems and agricultural policies, to help workers move freely across borders, and to encourage free-market competition. Meanwhile, the European Atomic Energy Community (Euratom) began coordinating nuclear energy for western Europe.

Text 4

European Union

Part 2

On July 1, 1967, the members of the ECSC, EEC, and Euratom created the European Commission (EC), which is regarded as the immediate predecessor of the EU. Denmark, the United Kingdom, and Ireland joined the EC in 1973; Greece in 1981; and Spain and Portugal in 1986. Germany took on an even more central role in the organization after the Berlin Wall was dismantled in 1989 (an event so surprising that it changed the political climate almost overnight). On Oct. 1, 1990, East and West Germany were officially reunified.

Several other political events energized the process of integration, such as the momentous decline and breakup of the Soviet Union (and end of the Cold War), the Persian Gulf War of 1990–91, and the civil wars and splintering of Yugoslavia. Another factor was globalization, or the increasing development of worldwide economic and cultural connections. In the midst of these changes, a stronger European trading bloc—within a closer political union—was seen as a way to compete economically with the United States.

In April 1990 the EC committed itself to a common foreign and defense policy, and in 1991 the EC and the seven-member European Free Trade Association agreed to create a free-trade zone called the European Economic Area, which took effect on Jan. 1, 1993. Meanwhile, in December 1991 delegates from the 12 member states met in Maastricht, Netherlands, to call for a closer political union, a central bank, and a common currency. After a lengthy ratification process, the historic Maastricht Treaty took effect on Nov. 1, 1993, the date marking the official creation of the EU.

Austria, Finland, and Sweden joined the EU on Jan. 1, 1995, but voters in Norway rejected membership in 1994. The EU currency, known as the euro, made its debut in 11 member countries in 1999. In 2003 the EU invited several of the

formerly Communist countries of eastern Europe—the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, and Slovenia—to join the organization, along with Cyprus and Malta. They became full EU members on May 1, 2004, bringing the total number of EU countries to 25. Meanwhile, the EU allowed for the possibility of future membership for Bulgaria, Romania, Croatia, and Turkey.

Some have heralded the EU as the beginning of a federally united Europe, but not everyone shares this ideal. For example, citizens of smaller nations have been concerned that larger countries such as Germany, the United Kingdom, and France may wield too much influence. International events have also brought disagreements into the union, as occurred when the British joined in the United States–led invasion of Iraq in 2003 despite objections from Germany, France, and other EU countries. There have also been debates over EU economic policies and their varying levels of support for small farmers, industrial workers, international investors, and powerful multinational corporations. The EU has achieved a large degree of political cooperation while also becoming a sort of economic “counterbalance” to the United States, but its effectiveness in the 21st century will depend on numerous events at local, national, and global levels.

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Appendix 1. Tips on Writing Summaries

Материал, приведенный в настоящем приложении, поможет Вам освоить жанр аннотации, ее виды, структуру, правила написания и наиболее типичное языковое наполнение. Рекомендации, которые мы предлагаем, можно использовать в качестве ориентира и крепкой основы для возможных вариаций.

Аннотация – предельно сжатая характеристика первоисточника, имеющая чисто информационное значение; не может заменить самого материала; дает общее представление об основном содержании книги, статьи.

Аннотации пишут на разнообразные типы текстов: статьи (публицистические, научные, научно-популярные и др.); монографии; диссертационные исследования; художественные произведения; судебные решения; отчеты компаний. В некоторых случаях может быть необходимым написать аннотацию не к целому тексту, а к его отдельной части (главе, части, разделу).

Аннотация как сжатое описание первоисточника необходима для того, чтобы напомнить о содержании прочитанной некоторое время назад книги, статьи и т.д. (например, в процессе работы над определенной проблемой, когда нужно оценить степень ее исследованности; в данном случае анализ оригинального текста и его фиксация своими словами помогает избежать плагиата (см. предыдущий раздел курса)); составить представление о содержании оригинального текста и решить, стоит ли читать его целиком; оформить заявку на конференцию, на исследовательские гранты; включить как обязательную часть в публикуемую статью или монографию; облегчить работу специалистов, создающих информационные базы.

Объем аннотаций может варьироваться: от одного предложения до 30% объема оригинального текста. В первом случае говорят о сжатой аннотации, во втором – о детальной. Детальная аннотация включает сведения об авторе, название, изложение основной идеи текста. Детальная аннотация может повторять структуру оригинального текста только в сжатом виде или представлять собой резюме аналитико-синтетического характера. Детальная аннотация может включать примеры и цитаты из текста оригинала. Приведем примеры этих двух разновидностей аннотаций. Статья и примеры для демонстрации сжатой и детальных аннотаций к ней взяты с сайта <http://writing.colostate.edu/guides/documents/standsum/pop2a.cfm>.

Computers and Education in America

In the last decade, computers have invaded every aspect of education, from kindergarten through college. The figures show that schools have spent over two billion dollars installing two million new computers. Recently, with the explosive

increase of sites on the Internet, computers have taken another dramatic rise. In just five years, the number of Internet hosts has skyrocketed from 2 million to nearly 20 million. It is not uncommon for 6th graders to surf the Net, design their own home pages, and e-mail their friends or strangers they have "met" on the Web. Computer literacy is a reality for many junior high students and most high school students.

In the midst of this technological explosion, we might well stop and ask some key questions. Is computer technology good or bad for education? Are students learning more or less? What, exactly, are they learning? And who stands to benefit from education's current infatuation with computers and the Internet?

In the debate over the virtues of computers in education, the technological optimists think that computers and the Internet are ushering us into the next literacy revolution, a change as profound as Gutenberg's invention of the printing press. In contrast, a much smaller but growing number of critics believe that cyberspace is not the ideal classroom. I agree with the critics. If you consider your own experience, you'll agree that the benefits of computer literacy are at best wildly overrated. At their worst, computers and the Internet pander to the short attention spans and the passive viewing habits of a young television generation.

The technological optimists sing a siren song of an enchanted new land where the educational benefits of computers and the Internet are boundless. First, they boast that children can now access information on every conceivable subject. If little Eva or little Johnny wants to learn about far-away cultures, they can access sites from their own homes that will teach them about the great languages and cultures of the world. Second, these starry-eyed optimists warble about how the Internet has created a truly democratic space, where all children--rich, poor, black, white, and brown--have equal access to information and education. Third, they claim that computers will allow students to have e-mail conversations with experts on any subject around the world. No longer will students be limited by their own classroom, their teacher, or their environment. Distance learning is the wave of the future, and classrooms will become obsolete or at least optional. In the words of John Sculley, former CEO of Apple Computer, the new technologies have created an "avalanche of personal creativity and achievement" and they have given students the "ability to explore, convey, and create knowledge as never before." Children who used to hate going to school will now love to learn to read and write, to do math and science. They will voluntarily spend hours learning on the Web instead of being bored to death by endless books and stodgy teachers.

Sound too good to be true? Let's examine these claims, one by one. First, promoters of computer learning are endlessly excited about the quantity of information available on the Internet. The reality, however, is quite a different story. If you've worked on the Internet, you know that finding and retrieving information from a Web site can sometimes be tedious and time consuming. And once you find a site, you have no idea whether the information will be valuable. Popular search engines such as Yahoo! are inefficient at finding relevant information, unless you just want to buy a book on Amazon.com or find a street

map for Fargo, North Dakota. Information is definitely available on the Web, but the problem is finding relevant, reliable, and non-commercial information.

Next, the optimists claim that the Internet is truly a democratic space with equal access for everyone. Again, the reality falls short. First, access to an Internet provider at home costs over a hundred dollars a month, once you add up service and long distance fees. And then there's the technology barrier--not every person has the skills to navigate the Web in any but the most superficial way. Equal access is still only a theoretical dream, not a current reality.

Finally, computers do allow students to expand their learning beyond the classroom, but the distance learning is not a utopia. Some businesses, such as Hewlett Packard, do have mentoring programs with children in the schools, but those mentoring programs are not available to all students. Distance learning has always been a dream of administrators, eager to figure out a cheaper way to deliver education. They think that little Eva and Johnny are going to learn about Japanese culture or science or algebra in the evening when they could be talking with their friends on the phone or watching television. As education critic Neil Postman points out, these administrators are not imagining a new technology but a new kind of child: "In [the administrator's] vision, there is a confident and typical sense of unreality. Little Eva can't sleep, so she decides to learn a little algebra? Where does little Eva come from? Mars?" Only students from some distant planet would prefer to stick their nose in a computer rather than watch TV or go to school and be with their friends.

In addition to these drawbacks are other problems with computers in education. There is the nasty issue of pornography and the rampant commercialism on the Internet. Schools do not want to have their students spend time buying products or being exposed to pornography or pedophiles. Second, the very attractiveness of most Web sites, with their color graphics and ingenious links to other topics, promotes dabbling and skimming. The word "surfing" is appropriate, because most sites encourage only the most surface exploration of a topic. The Internet thus accentuates what are already bad habits for most students: Their short attention spans, their unwillingness to explore subjects in depth, their poor reading and evaluation skills. Computers also tend to isolate students, to turn them into computer geeks who think cyberspace is actually real. Some students have found they have a serious and addictive case of "Webaholism," where they spend hours and hours on the computer at the expense of their family and friends. Unfortunately, computers tend to separate, not socialize students. Finally, we need to think about who has the most to gain or lose from computers in the schools. Are administrators getting more students "taught" for less money? Are big companies training a force of computer worker bees to run their businesses? Will corporate CEO's use technology to isolate and control their employees?

In short, the much ballyhooed promise of computers for education has yet to be realized. Education critic Theodore Roszak has a warning for us as we face the brave new world of computer education:

Like all cults, this one has the intention of enlisting mindless allegiance and acquiescence. People who have no clear idea of what they mean by information or

why they should want so much of it are nonetheless prepared to believe that we live in an Information Age, which makes every computer around us what the relics of the True Cross were in the Age of Faith: emblems of salvation.

I think if you examine your own experience with computers, you'll agree that the cult of computers is still an empty promise for most students. Computers, the Internet, and the Web will not magically educate students. It still must be done with reading, study, good teaching, and social interaction. Excellence in education can only be achieved the old fashioned way - students must earn it.

Written by Dudley Erskine Devlin

Сжатая аннотация (одно предложение)

Devlin believes the benefits of computers in education claimed by the technological optimists are wildly overrated in that equal access on the Internet is not a reality; that finding relevant and reliable information is tedious and time-consuming; that distance learning assumes an unrealistic learner; and that pornography, commercialism, "surfing," and social isolation are not consistent with the goals of education.

Детальная аннотация

Dudley Erskine Devlin writes his own commentary of computer technology on the rise in "Computers and Education in America." While all the optimists out there push the movement of Websites and constantly flash e-mail addresses on all advertising promising simplicity for our hectic lives and education for our children, Devlin retorts by saying, "In short, the much balleyhooed promise of computers for education has yet to be realized." He believes that finding information and retrieving it from the Internet is long and tedious. The Internet is cluttered by commercialism, claims Devlin. He also points out how the information might be false when found. He believes claims that the Internet is democratic are false. The personal computer eats money and that plus the cost of Internet bills is too much for families. Although the Internet has nearly 20 million sites, there are not enough mentoring programs to lead students through the Internet. Besides, according to Devlin, kids will always prefer the TV and their friends over cyberspace. Even if kids were on the Internet they would be surrounded by commercialism and pornography. Finally, in the words of Dudley Erskine Devlin, "The cult of computers is still an empty promise for most students."

Описывая детальную аннотацию, мы затронули вопрос структуре: из каких частей состоит аннотация и какую информацию она включает. В самом общем виде структуру аннотации можно представить следующим образом:

- библиографическое описание (автор статьи / книги, номер тома или издания, место издания, количество страниц, иллюстраций);
- общие сведения (сжатая характеристика) материала;
- дополнительные сведения (о работе и его авторе).

Более прагматически ориентированные западные коллеги отказываются от абстракций и предлагают шаблон, который не только повторяет приведенную выше структуру аннотации, но и предлагает всем, осваивающим жанр аннотации, схему, по которой можно составлять собственные аннотации, следуя строгой структуре и используя вполне конкретное языковое наполнение [http://homepage.smc.edu/reading_lab/writing_a_summary.htm]:

In "Title of the Piece" (source and date of piece), author shows that: central idea of the piece. The author supports the main idea by using _____ and _____ showing _____ that _____

Приведем в качестве примера аннотации к разным типам текстов, чтобы убедиться, что указанный шаблон работает:

http://homepage.smc.edu/reading_lab/writing_a_summary.htm

In the short story "[The Secret Life of Walter Mitty](#)," author James Thurber humorously presents a character who fantasizes about himself as a hero enduring incredibly challenging circumstances. In his real life, Walter Mitty lives an ordinary, plain life; he is a husband under the control of an overbearing, critical wife. Thurber uses lively dialogue to give readers an understanding of Mitty's character. The story takes place over a period of about twenty minutes; during this brief time, Mitty drives his wife to the hairdresser and runs errands that his wife has given him while he waits for her. In between his worrying that he is not doing what she wants him to do, he daydreams about himself as a great surgeon, brilliant repair technician, expert marksman, and brave military captain. This story shows that fantasy is often a good alternative to reality.

http://web.hc.keio.ac.jp/~hjb/How_to_write_a_summary.html

In "[Someone Is Stealing Your Life](#)" (The LA Weekly, 26 Jan. 1990), Michael Ventura argues that American workers are being treated as slaves, and calls on employers to value the contribution of workers to the success of companies. For the majority of Americans, the ideal that the individual is free to find his or her own happiness is an illusion. Employees have no control over any aspect of their work and the living standards that they are able to achieve by working have declined. Those who wish to control their working lives do so by becoming employers, but in order to become profitable, they have to exploit their workers to the full. The author accepts that successful entrepreneurs deserve high rewards for their hard work and the risks they have taken. He also recognizes the role played

by investors. However, he argues that the success of a company derives from the hard work of the employees as well. They deserve to share in the rewards and they should also be involved in major company decisions since these affect their lives. The author asserts that his view is worth of consideration because it is based on his experience in a variety of lower paid jobs, not on academic study.

<http://darwin.bio.uci.edu/~sustain/Abstract.html>

"Their War": The Perspective of the South Vietnamese Military in Their Own Words

Author: Julie Pham (UCB participant in UC Day 2001)

Despite the vast research by Americans on the Vietnam War, little is known about the perspective of South Vietnamese military, officially called the Republic of Vietnam Armed Forces (RVNAF). The overall image that emerges from the literature is negative: lazy, corrupt, unpatriotic, apathetic soldiers with poor fighting spirits. This study recovers some of the South Vietnamese military perspective for an American audience through qualitative interviews with 40 RVNAF veterans now living in San José, Sacramento, and Seattle, home to three of the top five largest Vietnamese American communities in the nation. An analysis of these interviews yields the veterans' own explanations that complicate and sometimes even challenge three widely held assumptions about the South Vietnamese military: 1) the RVNAF was rife with corruption at the top ranks, hurting the morale of the lower ranks; 2) racial relations between the South Vietnamese military and the Americans were tense and hostile; and 3) the RVNAF was apathetic in defending South Vietnam from communism. The stories add nuance to our understanding of who the South Vietnamese were in the Vietnam War. This study is part of a growing body of research on non-American perspectives of the war. In using a largely untapped source of Vietnamese history & oral histories with Vietnamese immigrants; this project will contribute to future research on similar topics.

Качественная аннотация должна давать объективное представление об аннотируемом источнике, т.е. должна отвечать на следующие вопросы: Кто что где и когда сделал? Какова главная идея текста? Какие доводы и доказательства приводит автор в защиту своей точки зрения?. При составлении аннотации необходимо руководствоваться следующими правилами:

- излагать сжатое содержание первоисточника своими словами;
- избегать оценочных суждений и критики аннотируемого текста, выражения собственного мнения о прочитанном;
- избегать ненужных и неуместных деталей, примеров из первоисточника;

- включать цитаты из оригинального текста только в том случае, если на это есть веская причина.

Подготовка к написанию аннотации и сам процесс включают несколько этапов. Опишем их в качестве руководства к действию:

- Прочитайте текст, на который собираетесь писать аннотацию.
- Перечитайте текст и разделите его на части согласно рассматриваемым в нем идеям, положениям; дайте каждой части название; подчеркните ключевые слова и словосочетания.
- Напишите по одному предложению в качестве краткого содержания каждой части.
- Сформулируйте центральную идею, которая объединяет вместе все предложения, представляющие краткое изложение отдельных частей.
- Напишите черновую версию аннотации в соответствии с принятой структурой.
- Отредактируйте черновой вариант; уберите все ненужные детали; исключите повторы.
- Перепишите или напечатайте окончательный вариант аннотации.

При написании аннотации рекомендуется использовать широкий спектр слов, позволяющих передать мнение, утверждения и мысли автора первоисточника. Приведем примеры некоторых из них:

provides an explanation / solid evidence / description

carries out an exploration / research / experiment

puts a lot of emphasis / gives emphasis to / underlines / highlights / stresses

gives a description

puts forward a theory / advance / propose

goes into the causes

sets out to prove that

casts doubt on the previous research

According to X,

In X's opinion,

In X's view,

argues

asserts

believes

claims

concludes

confirms

hypothesizes

insists

maintains

observes

notes

points out
questions
says

states [Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners 2002; McCarthy, O'Dell 2008].

Еще раз напомним, что обязательным требованием к аннотации является объективность передачи содержания первоисточника, поэтому следует с осторожностью относиться к использованию прилагательных, выражающих оценку. Рекомендуется по возможности избегать употребления следующих прилагательных: positive, good, strong, conservative, hard, easy, interesting / negative, bad, weak, liberal, difficult, funny, well-supported [<http://writing.colostate.edu/guides/documents/standsum/pop2a.cfm>].

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<http://www.writeanygenre.com/how-to-write-a-summary.html>

<http://writing.colostate.edu/guides/documents/standsum/pop2a.cfm>

<http://darwin.bio.uci.edu/~sustain/Abstract.html>

<http://www.scur.uci.edu/sampleabstracts.html>

<http://writingcenter.unc.edu/resources/handouts-demos/specific-writing-assignments/abstracts>

Appendix 2. «Glossary of Political Terms»

A

abolish – отменять

abstain – воздержаться

Academy of Political Science – академия политических наук

acquire (power) – захватывать (власть), приходить к власти

administer – управлять

advise – давать рекомендации

affiliate with a political party – входить в состав, быть членом политической партии

affiliation – принятие, прием в члены партии

agencies of governments – подразделения, ведомства правительства

allegiance – приверженность, преданность

alternatives – (зд.) варианты

ambassador – посол

amend – вносить поправки

American Political Science Association – американская ассоциация политических наук

announce – объявлять

appoint – назначать

approve – одобрять

approved by – утвержденный, одобренный

ask for resignation – попросить уйти с должности

Associate Justices – Член Верховного Суда

at-large – представляющий весь штат или округ, а не какую-то партию

attorney general – генеральный прокурор

B

backbenchers – «заднескамеечник», член парламента

ballot – избирательный бюллетень

be appointed by – назначаться (кем-л.)

be composed of smth – состоять из чего-л.

be elected by the people – избираться народом

be elected from the constituencies – избираться от избирательного округа

be exercised by – осуществляться (чем-л.)

be in charge of – быть ответственным за что-либо

be independent of smth – не зависеть от чего-либо

be in office – занимать пост

be supported by the majority – поддерживаться большинством

bicameral – двухпалатный

bill – билль, законопроект

breakup – распад

bylaw – постановление, распоряжение органов

C

cabinet member – член кабинета (министров)

Cabinet– кабинет

cast a ballot – подавать избирательный бюллетень, опускать бюллетень

caucus – совещание лидеров политической партии для назначения кандидатов

chancellor of the exchequer министр финансов (в Великобритании), канцлер казначейства

charge – обвинить в каком-либо преступлении

charter – хартия, грамота, устав

checks and balances – «система сдержек и противовесов»

Chief Justice – Главный Судья

choose a team of ministers – создавать команду министров

citizen – гражданин

citizenship – гражданство

city-state – город-государство

civil right – гражданское право

civil war – гражданская война

collapse – распадаться

commissioner – представитель, специальный уполномоченный

community – общество, сообщество

compete – конкурировать, соревноваться

compulsory – обязательный

constituency – избирательный округ

constitutional monarchy – конституционная монархия

contend for office – бороться за пост

contradict – противоречить

Council of the European Union – совет европейского союза

county – округ

Court of Auditors – счетная палата

Court of Justice – судебная палата

court system – система судов

crossbencher – член независимой партии в парламенте

current issues – текущие проблемы

D

deadlock – тупик, безвыходное положение

debate – обсуждать, дискутировать

debates – дебаты

deciding factor – решающий фактор

declare war – объявить войну

decline – спад, упадок

defense – оборона

Department of Agriculture – министерство сельского хозяйства

Department of Commerce and Labor – министерство торговли
Department of Defense – министерство обороны
Department of Education – министерство образования
Department of Energy – министерство энергетики
Department of Health and Human Services – министерство здравоохранения и социального обеспечения
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare – министерство здравоохранения, образования и социального обеспечения
Department of Homeland Security – министерство национальной (внутренней) безопасности
Department of Justice – министерство юстиции
Department of the Air Force – министерство военно-воздушных сил
Department of the Army – министерство сухопутных сил
Department of the Navy – министерство военно-морского флота
Department of Veterans Affairs – военно-морское министерство
Departments of Housing and Urban Development and of Transportation – департамент жилищного строительства и реконструкции городских районов
Departments of State, of the Treasury, and of War министерство иностранных дел (госдепартамент США)
dependency – зависимость
deputy – заместитель
determine common law – определять общее право
direct democarcy – непосредственная демократия
disagreement – разногласие
dismiss – увольнять
dissolve (Parliament) – распускать (Парламент)
district – район
dominion – владения, земли

Е

elderly– пожилые люди
elect – выбирать. избирать
election – выборы
election campaign – предвыборная кампания
electoral – избирательный, выборный
eligible – могущий быть избранным
eliminate – не считаться, упразднить. уничтожить
emerge – появляться, возникать
emissary – эмиссар, агент
emperor – император
empire – империя
enforce laws – проводить законы в жизнь
Environmental Protection Agency – агентство охраны окружающей среды
Equality – равенство, равноправие
establish social programs – проводить социальные программы

European Atomic Energy Community (Euratom) – Европейское сообщество по атомной энергии

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

European Commission – комиссия европейского союза

European Economic Area – европейское экономическое пространство

European Economic Community (EEC) = европейское экономическое сообщество

European Free Trade Association – европейская ассоциация свободной торговли

executive power – исполнительная власть

extensive power – неограниченная власть

F

faction – фракция

federal – федеральный

file (a declaration) – подать (декларацию, заявку)

fiscal matters – налоговые вопросы

foreign policy – внешняя политика

foreign affairs – международные отношения

Foreign and Commonwealth Office – Министерство иностранных дел и по делам Содружества

Franchise – право голоса

freedom of speech – свобода слова

gain power – прийти к власти

G

General Elections – Всеобщие выборы

give assent – одобрять, принимать

govern – править, руководить

governing bodies – руководство, правление

H

handle debates – вести дебаты

Head of Government Conference – совещание глав правительств

Head of State – глава государства

Headquarter – штаб-квартира

Hereditary – передаваемый по наследству, наследуемый

hereditary and life peers – наследственные и пожизненные лорды и пэры

hold office – занимать пост (должность), исполнять обязанности

House of Commons – палата общин

House of Lords – палата лордов

House of Representatives – Палата представителей

Houses of Parliament – парламент

I

impartiality – беспристрастность

impeach the President – подвергнуть президента импичменту

in office – на посту

independent – независимый

influential – влиятельный

inherit – унаследовать

initiative – законодательная инициатива

international – международный

International Association of Political Science – Международная ассоциация политических наук

international cooperation – международное сотрудничество

J

judiciary branch of the government – судебная власть

L

launch an election campaign – начать избирательную кампанию

law enforcement – исполнение законов, контроль за соблюдением законов

Law Lords (the highest judges) – лорды-судьи, судебные лорды

lawmaking – законодательный

legislative – законодательный

legislative assembly – законодательный орган

legislative branch of the government – законодательная власть

legislative power – законодательная власть

legislature – законодательный орган

limit the power – ограничить власть

lobbying – лоббирование, оказание воздействия с целью повлиять на результат голосования

local – местный

local official – служащий местного органа самоуправления

London School of Economics and Political Science – Лондонский институт экономики и политологии

lord chancellor – лорд-канцлер

Lords Spiritual (highest clergy in the Church of England) – «духовные лорды» (архиепископы и епископы в палате лордов)

Lords Temporal (members of the nobility) – светские члены палаты лордов

lose an election – проиграть на выборах

M

major parties – крупнейшие партии

majority / minority – большинство / меньшинство

majority system – мажоритарная система

make any changes вносить изменения

make decisions – принимать решения

make laws – создавать законы
manage its local affairs – заниматься, решать вопросы местного значения
mass support – массовая поддержка
member of – член (чего-л.)
members of ethnic minorities – представители этнических меньшинств
military might – военная мощь
military ruler – военный диктатор
minority party – партия меньшинства
multiparty system – многопартийная система

N

no matter how – как бы ... не
notable work – заметная работа

O

obligatory – обязательный
official – должностное лицо, чиновник, представитель власти
one-party system – однопартийная система
optional – дополнительный
outlawed – вне закона
overall majority – абсолютное большинство

P

parliamentary form – парламентская форма
party affiliation – принадлежность к партии
pass (acts) – принимать (законы)
peeresses – пэреса
policy – политика
political affairs – политические вопросы
political arrangement – политическая договоренность
political instability – политическая нестабильность
political science – политология
political supporter – политический сторонник
politics – политика
polling place – избирательный участок
population – население
populous – густонаселенный
Post Office Department – Почтовое ведомство
postmaster general – министр связи
power – власть
predecessor – предок, предшественник
preside – быть председателем
presidency – президентская должность
president's term of office – срок полномочий президента
presiding officer – председатель (чего-л.)

primaries – праймериз (выборы кандидатов для баллотирования на всеобщих выборах)

Prime Minister – премьер-министр

proponent – сторонник

public affairs – общественная деятельность

public approval – общественное одобрение, поддержка общественности

public issues – общественные вопросы

public life – общественная жизнь

public office – правительственный пост

public reading – публичные чтения

punch-card voting – перфокарты для голосования

Q

Queen – королева

R

ratification – ратификация, подписание

real governing body – реальный правящий орган

realignment – реорганизация

recall – право отзыва путем референдума

reject – отвергать

represent – представлять

representative – представитель

representative democracy – представительная демократия

resident – постоянный житель

resign – отказываться от должности

reunified – воссоединенный

rule – управлять, править

run for office – претендовать на должность

S

salaries of departmental employees – зарплата ведомственных сотрудников

Secretary of Defense – министр обороны

Secretary of State – государственный секретарь

secretary of ... – министр

Secretary of the Treasury – министр финансов

select – выбирать, избирать

semipresidential – «полупрезидентский»

Senate – Сенат

sentence – приговаривать к ...

separation of powers – разделение властей

serve – состоять на службе

session (за Parliament) – сессия парламента

settles disputes – решать спорные вопросы

Shadow Cabinet – теневой кабинет

sign – подписывать, ставить подпись
sitting – заседание
slates of candidates – предварительный список кандидатов
slavery – рабство
social security – социальное обеспечение
sound – зд. точный, глубокий
sovereign – суверен, монарх, правитель
splintering – распад
stand – стать кандидатом
standing committee – постоянно действующий комитет
state – 1) государство 2) штат
statewide – в масштабе штата
suffrage – право голоса
summon Parliament – созывать парламент
sway (voters) перевес голосов

T

term – срок полномочий
term of office – срок полномочий (президента)
The Cabinet – кабинет
the right to vote – право голоса
treaty – соглашение, договор
turn in (a petition) – подавать (прошение)

U

unemployed the – безработные
unemployment – безработица
unicameral (one-house) – однопалатный
United Nations – ООН (Организация Объединенных Наций)

V

validity – правомерность, срок действия
veto a bill – наложить вето на законопроект
vice president – вице президент
viewpoint – точка зрения
vote – голосовать; право голоса
voter – избиратель, участник голосования
voting booth – кабина для голосования
voting rights – избирательные права

W

War Department – военное ведомство, министерство
Whip – парламентский партийный организатор
win (an election) – победить на выборах
win by a considerable margin – победить со значительным перевесом

winning party – партия, победившая на выборах
witenagemot – витенагемот (совет старейшин при короле)
withhold – удерживать, останавливать
world trade – международная торговля

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