

## ЗАДАНИЯ ДЛЯ КОНТРОЛЬНЫХ РАБОТ

Контрольная работа выполняется студентами **заочной формы обучения**. Необходимо выбрать один из вариантов в соответствии с порядковым номером в академическом журнале.

### **Требования к выполнению контрольной работы:**

Работа делается в тетради на 18 листов или на 10-15 листах формата А-4.

Для выполнения задания необходимо изучить литературу по теме и оформить ее в соответствии с планом. Изложение должно отличаться композиционной четкостью, логичностью, грамотностью.

### **Вариант 1**

Read and translate the text, analyze translation and correct it.

#### **History of Computing Hardware**

The first use of the word «computer» was recorded in 1613, referring to a person who carried out calculations, or computations, and the word continued to be used in that sense until the middle of the 20th century. From the end of the 19th century onwards though, the word began to take on its more familiar meaning, describing a machine that carries out computations. The history of the modern computer begins with two separate technologies— automated calculation and programmability—but no single device can be identified as the earliest computer, partly because of the inconsistent application of that term. Examples of early mechanical calculating devices include the abacus, the slide rule and arguably the astrolabe and the Antikythera mechanism (which dates from about 150–100 BC). Hero of Alexandria (c. 10–70 AD) built a mechanical theater which performed a play lasting 10 minutes and was operated by a complex system of ropes and drums that might be considered to be a means of deciding which parts of the mechanism performed which actions and when. This is the essence of programmability. The «castle clock», an astronomical clock invented by Al-Jazari in 1206, is considered to be the earliest programmable analog computer. It displayed the zodiac, the solar and lunar orbits, a crescent moon-shaped pointer travelling across a gateway causing automatic doors to open every hour, and five robotic musicians who played music when struck by levers operated by a camshaft attached to a water wheel. The length of day and night could be re-programmed to compensate for the changing lengths of day and night throughout the year. The Renaissance saw a re-invigoration of European mathematics and engineering. Wilhelm Schickard's 1623 device was the first of a number of mechanical calculators constructed by European engineers, but none fit the modern definition of a computer, because they could not be programmed. In 1801, Joseph Marie Jacquard made an improvement to the textile loom by introducing a series of punched paper cards as a template which allowed his loom to weave intricate patterns automatically. The resulting Jacquard loom was an important step in the development of computers because the use of punched cards to define woven patterns can be viewed as an early, albeit limited, form of programmability. It was the fusion of automatic calculation with programmability that produced the first recognizable computers. In 1837, Charles Babbage was the first to conceptualize and design a fully programmable mechanical computer, his analytical engine. Limited finances and Babbage's inability to resist tinkering with the design meant that the device was never completed.

In the late 1880s, Herman Hollerith invented the recording of data on a machine readable medium. Prior uses of machine readable media, above, had been for control, not data. After some initial trials with paper tape, he settled on punched cards. To process these punched cards he invented the tabulator, and the keypunch machines. These three inventions were the foundation

of the modern information processing industry. Large-scale automated data processing of punched cards was performed for the 1890 United States Census by Hollerith's company, which later became the core of IBM. By the end of the 19th century a number of technologies that would later prove useful in the realization of practical computers had begun to appear: the punched card, Boolean algebra, the vacuum tube (thermionic valve) and the teleprinter.

## **Вариант 2**

Read and translate the text, analyze translation and correct it.

### **Calories and Dieting**

The energy stored in food is measured in terms of calories. Technically, 1 calorie is the amount of energy required to raise the temperature of 1 gram of water 1 degree centigrade. The calorie measure used commonly to discuss the energy content of food is actually a kilocalorie or 1000 real calories. This is the amount of energy required to raise 1 kilogram of water (about 2.2 pounds) 1 degree centigrade. Different foods contain different amounts of energy – which is why a small piece of chocolate can have many more calories than a similarly sized piece of lettuce. However, since calories are a measure of energy, there cannot be, as some diet books claim, different types of calories. A fat calorie has the same amount of energy as a protein or carbohydrate calorie. A person's caloric need is determined using a variety of mathematical equations. Age, height, current weight, and desired weight are taken into account. Diet is what you eat. Dieting usually refers to eating fewer calories to lose weight. The amount of calories in a diet refers to how much energy the diet can provide for the body. A well-balanced diet is one that delivers an adequate amount of calories while providing the maximum amount of nutrients. The body breaks down food molecules to release the energy stored within them. This energy is needed for vital functions like movement, thought, growth – anything that you do requires the use of fuel. The body stores energy it does not need in the form of fat cells for future use. The process of breaking down food for use as energy is called metabolism. Increased activity results in increased metabolism as the body needs more fuel. The opposite is also true. With decreased activity the body continues to store energy in fat and does not use it up. Therefore, weight gain is the result of increased intake of food, decreased activity, or both. The nutrition labels on food packages indicate the number of calories contained in the food. Naturally, different foods provide different amounts of calories. Some foods, such as ice-cream, have many calories; while others, like leafy vegetables, have few. Diets that are excessively low in calories are considered dangerous and do not result in healthful weight loss. A more desirable method of weight reduction is one that is moderate in calories and that encourages routine exercise. Children and young adults should not limit calories below the Recommended Daily Allowance because they require a certain amount of calories for growth and development. Better eating habits for the entire family often accomplish the caloric decrease that is required for a child or young adult to reach a desirable weight.

## **Вариант 3**

Read and translate the text, analyze translation and correct it.

### **Celestial Mechanics**

The story of the mathematical representation of celestial motions starts in the antiquity and, notwithstanding the prevalent wrong ideas placing the Earth at the center of the universe,

the prediction of the planetary motions were very accurate allowing, for instance, to forecast eclipses and to keep calendars synchronized with the motion of the Earth around the Sun. The epicycles, introduced by Apollonius of Perga around 200 BC, allowed the observed motions to be represented by series of circular functions. They were used to predict celestial motions for almost 2 millennia. Their long life was certainly related to the stagnation that prevailed in the western world during the dark ages between the end of the Hellenic civilization and the Renaissance. In the 16th century, the Copernican revolution put the Sun in center of the Universe. However, the breakthrough in our knowledge of celestial motions was rather related to Tycho Brahe and Johannes Kepler. Tycho, in his Uraniborg observatory, accurately measured the position of the planets in the sky for more than 20 years. Kepler inherited the data gathered by Tycho and used them to discover the three laws that bear his name. First Law or Elliptical Orbits Law (1609): The planets move on ellipses with one focus in the Sun; Second Law or Law of Equal Areas (1609): The planets move with constant areal velocity (equal areas are swept in equal times); in modern words: with constant angular momentum; Third Law or Harmonic Law (1619): The ratio of the cube of the semi-major axes of the ellipses to the square of the periods of the planetary motions is constant and the same for all planets. The work of Kepler is a monument to the human genius. First of all, Tycho's data on Mars could not be fitted to a heliocentric uniform motion. With respect to a uniform motion, sometimes Mars was in advance, sometimes in retard. Kepler decided to tackle the problem from scratch! Remember that Mathematics also remained stagnant since antiquity and the tools inherited from the Greeks, Geometry and Arithmetic, were the only available. Kepler considered, as working hypotheses, that the Earth was uniformly moving on a circle and that the motion of Mars was periodic and coplanar with the motion of the Earth. Then, he used Tycho's observations to determine the orbit of Mars. Tycho's observations were apparent positions of the planet on the stars background. The resulting datum is a direction (only recently distances can be measured and, even though, only in a few cases). Kepler constructed triangles (Fig. 2). After having determined the period of the motion of Mars around the Sun, he looked for observations in dates separated by just one period. Then, he constructed triangles, each having as vertices one position of Mars in space (assumed to be the same – after one period Mars returns to the same position) and the position of the Earth in the two dates. The angles of the triangle were obtained from the measurements done by Tycho, and these triangles allowed the position of Mars relative to the Earth to be determined. He thus found that the orbit of Mars was not a circle but rather an ellipse with one focus in the Sun. After that, he inverted the process. He assumed that the real motion of Mars followed an ellipse with constant areal velocity, and started looking for observations separated by one year (in one year the Earth is back to the same place). The triangles now have two vertices on the orbit of Mars (assumed as known) and one vertex on the position of the Earth at those dates. The triangles thus obtained allowed to know the position of the Earth with respect to the orbit of Mars and, in this way, Kepler discovered that the Earth, also, was moving on an ellipse with constant areal velocity. The two first laws were thus discovered. The third law remained elusive for about one more decade, but was finally unraveled.

#### **Вариант 4**

Read and translate the text, analyze translation and correct it

#### **Acids and Bases**

Acids and bases, two related classes of chemicals; the members of each class have a number of common properties when dissolved in a solvent, usually water. Acids in water solutions exhibit the following common properties: they taste sour; turn litmus paper red; and react with certain metals, such as zinc, to yield hydrogen gas. Bases in water solutions exhibit these common properties: they taste bitter; turn litmus paper blue; and feel slippery. When a

water solution of acid is mixed with a water solution of base, water and a salt are formed; this process, called neutralization, is complete only if the resulting solution has neither acidic nor basic properties. Acids and bases can be classified as organic or inorganic. Some of the more common organic acids are: citric acid, carbonic acid, hydrogen cyanide, salicylic acid, lactic acid, and tartaric acid. Some examples of organic bases are: pyridine and ethylamine. Some of the common inorganic acids are: hydrogen sulfide, phosphoric acid, hydrogen chloride, and sulfuric acid. Some common inorganic bases are: sodium hydroxide, sodium carbonate, sodium bicarbonate, calcium hydroxide, and calcium carbonate. Acids, such as hydrochloric acid, and bases, such as potassium hydroxide, that have a great tendency to dissociate in water are completely ionized in solution; they are called strong acids or strong bases. Acids, such as acetic acid, and bases, such as ammonia, that are reluctant to dissociate in water are only partially ionized in solution; they are called weak acids or weak bases. Strong acids in solution produce a high concentration of hydrogen ions, and strong bases in solution produce a high concentration of hydroxide ions and a correspondingly low concentration of hydrogen ions. The hydrogen ion concentration is often expressed in terms of its negative logarithm, or pH (see separate article). Strong acids and strong bases make very good electrolytes (see electrolysis), i.e., their solutions readily conduct electricity. Weak acids and weak bases make poor electrolytes. There are three theories that identify a singular characteristic which defines an acid and a base: the Arrhenius theory, for which the Swedish chemist Svante Arrhenius was awarded the 1903 Nobel Prize in chemistry; the Brønsted-Lowry, or proton donor, theory, advanced in 1923; and the Lewis, or electron-pair, theory, which was also presented in 1923. Each of the three theories has its own advantages and disadvantages; each is useful under certain conditions. The Arrhenius Theory When an acid or base dissolves in water, a certain percentage of the acid or base particles will break up, or dissociate (see dissociation), into oppositely charged ions. The Arrhenius theory defines an acid as a compound that can dissociate in water to yield hydrogen ions,  $H^+$ , and a base as a compound that can dissociate in water to yield hydroxide ions,  $OH^-$ . For example, hydrochloric acid,  $HCl$ , dissociates in water to yield the required hydrogen ions,  $H^+$ , and also chloride ions,  $Cl^-$ . The base sodium hydroxide,  $NaOH$ , dissociates in water to yield the required hydroxide ions,  $OH^-$ , and also sodium ions,  $Na^+$ . The Brønsted-Lowry Theory Some substances act as acids or bases when they are dissolved in solvents other than water, such as liquid ammonia. The Brønsted-Lowry theory, named for the Danish chemist Johannes Brønsted and the British chemist Thomas Lowry, provides a more general definition of acids and bases that can be used to deal both with solutions that contain no water and solutions that contain water. It defines an acid as a proton donor and a base as a proton acceptor. In the Brønsted-Lowry theory, water,  $H_2O$ , can be considered an acid or a base since it can lose a proton to form a hydroxide ion,  $OH^-$ , or accept a proton to form a hydronium ion,  $H_3O^+$  (see amphoterism). When an acid loses a proton, the remaining species can be a proton acceptor and is called the conjugate base of the acid. Similarly when a base accepts a proton, the resulting species can be a proton donor and is called the conjugate acid of that base. For example, when a water molecule loses a proton to form a hydroxide ion, the hydroxide ion can be considered the conjugate base of the acid, water. When a water molecule accepts a proton to form a hydronium ion, the hydronium ion can be considered the conjugate acid of the base, water. The Lewis Theory Another theory that provides a very broad definition of acids and bases has been put forth by the American chemist Gilbert Lewis. The Lewis theory defines an acid as a compound that can accept a pair of electrons and a base as a compound that can donate a pair of electrons. Boron trifluoride,  $BF_3$ , can be considered a Lewis acid and ethyl alcohol can be considered a Lewis base.

## Вариант 5

Read and translate the text, analyze translation and correct it.

### **Translator's Creativity**

Translation is a sort of reproductive art, but especially in cases of the greater aesthetic value and pragmatic aspects of the text, particularly when translating literary texts, the creativity of the translator goes into action. However, it must not surpass the intention of the author of the source text. Respecting system differences between the source and target languages as well as mastering the technique and methodology of translation is considered a *conditio sine qua non*; more problematic is mastering the pragmatic aspect of the translation. That means respecting the different language and life experiences of the source and target addressees, different language situations and usages, different degrees of explicitness and explicativeness, different degrees of cohesion, different habits and means of expressing emotions and attitudes, different associations, images and different degrees of their use, different registers and clichés in parallel situations, different stylistic standards in the same genres, etc. In fact, it is more or less the matter of Nida's well-known "dynamic equivalence" in a broader sense of the term, or of our (i.e. Prague school) functional equivalence. Particularly in that field, creativity comes into play. Nevertheless, a translator's creativity must have its limits. Judging its right degree might lie within the scope of modern translatology, which approaches the translation from the holistic point of view and which can with advantage use the principles of text linguistics. These might be of some use just because translation should keep all the text parameters or textuality standards unchanged as far as possible (with adequate adaptation to the conventions of the target language). It should be added that, in general, all the well-known characteristics of textuality have been more or less respected intuitively by translators even before text linguistics gave systemic reasons for them, nevertheless, let us point them out with A. Neubert: 1. Basic is the intentionality of the message, which "is meant to sensitize us to the correlation between intentions (author's and translator's) and texts". 2. Acceptability of the text in the sense of Grice's maxims (quantity, quality, relation, manner) should be related to the tradition of the respective genres in the particular culture. 3. Very important is situationality (local and temporal setting), adapting the text to the target situation, to the target reader, but within certain limits again. 4. The scope of information which the translator communicates to the reader of the target language in the matter of events, states, processes, objects, persons, places and institutions of the source language community should correspond to the function and type of the text. 5. Coherence, the logical structure of the text must often be re-built on the basis of understanding the coherence of the source text. Its role may be quite decisive, especially in special purpose literature. 6. In close connection with coherence stands cohesion, which reflects coherence on the surface level of the text making it "visible". The proportion of the coherence reflected in the cohesive devices used in the translation depends on the usage in the respective genre of the text and in the individual style of the author. – It is a difficult task for the translator to convey the right degree of coherence / cohesion to match the author's intention. Sometimes it is better to keep the logical connection "invisible". 7. Intertextuality based on the previous experience with analogous texts may be of great help to the translator in the choice of other text parameters. The said text parameters follow Neubert's presentation, but their order does not quite correspond to their rank of importance they have from the translator's point of view. Even if Leech's politeness principle was later included in their repertoire, the text parameters are rather vague and their characteristics rather broad, so that trying to avoid overlapping is by no means easy. As is generally known, translation is not only a matter of routine, the translator has to make decisions. So far we are treating the introductory, preparatory phase of the process of translation, which leaves much to do in the following stage. Within the latter the translator has to fill systemic communicative factors with concrete language devices respecting the mentioned differences in typology, structure, denotation and connotation, tradition and convention. In other words, considering text parameters is essentially part and parcel of the phase which underlies so-called strategic decisions.

## Вариант 6

Read and translate the text, analyze translation and correct it.

### **English as an International Language**

Historically, applied linguistics has been linked to second language (L2) teaching; consequently, critical applied linguistics has also given considerable attention to the sociopolitical critique of L2 education, in particular the role and position of English as an international language. In mainstream applied linguistics, the global expansion of English tends to be seen as either beneficial or neutral. The English-as-beneficial position points to the advantages of having a worldwide lingua franca for international communication, while the English-as-neutral position considers it a utilitarian phenomenon resulting from events and processes that have been decades, if not centuries, in the making – and a phenomenon that may not survive long term, as has historically been the case with other languages of wider communication, e.g., Latin. For critical applied linguistics, English is the international language of communication not for historical and now commercial, scientific, technological, diplomatic, and travel reasons, but rather for ideological, imperialistic, hegemonic, capitalistic – in short, political – reasons. Viewing language as inextricably tied to power, class, and socioeconomic relations, critical applied linguists reject the idea that global English can be regarded as either beneficial or neutral. In response to the former, they ask, “Beneficial for whom?” and their answer is that only the powerful and privileged elites in the world are advantaged by international English, whereas the less powerful or powerless are increasingly marginalized by not having access to English. In response to the English-as-neutral point of view, critical applied linguists assert that there is no such thing as a neutral position, and that accepting the role of English in the world without a struggle is “an uncritical endorsement of capitalism, its science and technology, a modernization ideology, . . . the Americanization and homogenization of world culture, linguistic culture, and media imperialism” (Phillipson, 1999: 274). An extension of the charge of imperialism is that in attaining linguistic dominance, English has contributed to the diminishment and death of other languages, as globalization, mediated above all through English, swallows up local cultures and languages, while educational systems throughout the world require students to study English at the expense of their local, indigenous languages. Although English is currently the ascendant international language, indictments against the effects of its power can also be made against other major languages of the world. The dominance of Chinese (Mandarin Chinese), for example, has threatened the survival of at least 20 local languages in China. Spanish and Portuguese have contributed to the extinction or near-extinction of dozens of indigenous languages in Mexico and Central and South America. The power of Russian in Siberia has caused the disappearance of nearly all of the 40 local languages there. Moreover, Russian was so oppressively imposed on educational systems in the former Soviet Union that after its break-up one of the first acts of the newly independent eastern European countries was to replace Russian with English as a second language in the schools. And to this day France and Germany spend millions to promote French and German language and culture around the world. Whether through force of numbers, political and economic power, repressive measures, laissez-faire indifference, global competition, cultural marketing, or all combined, the pattern is unequivocal that the most widely spoken languages in the world have overwhelmed smaller languages in their spheres of power and influence. This pattern is not set in stone, however, and there are indications of efforts to slow or halt the trend. As the realities of language endangerment and extinction have been increasingly publicized (e.g., by UNESCO), governments or official bodies have attempted to intervene on behalf of threatened languages through language policy and planning. For example, the European Bureau for Lesser Used Languages was established by the European Parliament in 1984 to protect the language rights of the more than 50 million people in the European Union who speak one of the 40 identified minority languages. As mentioned earlier, Mozambique as well as other African nations have

worked to set up bilingual education programs in order to provide linguistic minority children with greater access to education in both their native language and the official language.

## **Вариант 7**

Read and translate the text, analyze translation and correct it.

### **Multilateral Diplomacy**

For me multilateral diplomacy is of particular interest and concern since I am involved in it on a daily basis. I would like to share with you some of these concerns and ideas on how multilateral diplomatic interaction can be improved. Multilateral diplomacy is often considered to be a type of superstructure over bilateral diplomacy. I think these are two sides of the same coin and none excludes the other. Interaction between bilateral and multilateral diplomacy creates a new pattern of political behaviour. A good example is the negotiation of a nuclear test ban. In the past test ban treaties were the result of bilateral Soviet-American negotiations. Only CTBT has been worked out at the Conference on Disarmament. Multilateralism has not excluded bilateralism or other types of negotiation. To use a modern technical analogy, I would say that bilateral negotiations are similar to using a mobile telephone, whilst multilateral negotiations resemble using the Internet. They can naturally complement each other. More than that, multilateral negotiations, despite their being time-consuming, are a very effective safeguard against hegemonistic and similar intentions. This has become more evident at the dawn of multilateral diplomacy. When the series of congresses which followed the treaty of Vienna of 1815 at last came to an end, the British Foreign Secretary, Canning, returning from conferences, was said to have praised a state of normal bilateral diplomacy which he summed up as «each for himself and God for us all.» Undoubtedly multilateral diplomacy drastically limits the egoistical aspirations of the states. Although multilateral negotiations are basically similar to bilateral, a number of sophisticated methods and techniques have been developed in multilateralism to cope with extensive diplomatic interactions. In the United Nations and other multilateral fora there is an official hierarchy of committees and sub-committees and a semiofficial system of groups of states formed on the basis of geographic or economic proximity. For example, there are the groups of African, Latin American and Arab States, the EU States or the Group of 77 developing countries which actually comprises more than one hundred states. Perhaps, the major peculiarity of the multilateral talks is the importance of the rules of procedure. When, as in the case of the United Nations, 185 delegations have to communicate with each other at the same time, there must be some rather clear and strict rules to maintain orderly interactions. As the well-known British historian, Harold Nicolson, once noted during a large international conference – the matters of organisation and procedure become no less important than the political issues. If poorly handled they can become a major disintegrating factor. The post-Cold War multilateralism is characterised by more complex agendas of conferences and negotiations with larger numbers of issues and the growing involvement of experts, citizens groups and NGOs. Multilateral diplomacy is trying to adapt to these new conditions. However, this process is painfully slow, Many aspects of multilateral diplomacy still need to be revised, starting with procedural and methodological issues. First of all there should be a clear line of distinction between negotiations and treaty-making. The process of multilateral negotiations consists of two stages: exploratory, as the initial stage, and treaty-making as the highest stage. The latter could be subdivided into the definition of parameters of a future agreement and the working out of it. Of course, the division is conditional. There is no Berlin Wall between the different stages. Bearing in mind this simple structure, it is not difficult to build the negotiations process in such a way that the result is achieved quickly and minimal resources are used. Unfortunately in some negotiation fora, the participants confuse the different stages and throw the whole process into disorder. Such negotiations may last for years and consist of endless positional statements. One of the favourite negotiation methods during the Cold War was the linkage of unrelated issues.

This was a rough way of forcing the counterpart to make concessions. Though the international environment has drastically changed, this method is still in use today. Modern diplomacy needs the opposite approach. Compromise requires what I call constructive parallelism in all areas of negotiation, which presupposes that progress in one area creates the opportunity for advancement in other directions. Compromise is neither a capitulation nor a sign of weakness. The art of compromise is a concession in secondary matters, not in principles. It should be noted, however, that not everything depends on the negotiators. If there is no political will even the best negotiator cannot do much.

## **Вариант 8**

Read and translate the text, analyze translation and correct it.

### **Adopted by the Security Council**

Adopted by the Security Council at its 3965th meeting, on 12 January 1999 The Security Council, Reaffirming its resolution 696 (1991) of 30 May 1991 and all subsequent relevant resolutions, in particular resolutions 1196 (1998) of 16 September 1998 and 1219 (1998) of 31 December 1998, Recalling the statement of its President of 23 December 1998, Expressing its outrage at the downing on 2 January 1999 of a second United Nations-chartered aircraft over territory controlled by the União Nacional para a Independência Total de Angola (UNITA), which brings to six the number of aircraft lost in this area in recent months, Expressing its deep concern regarding the fate of the passengers and crews of the above-mentioned aircraft, and its deep regret at the loss of life in these incidents, Stressing that attacks against personnel who act on behalf of the United Nations are unacceptable and unjustifiable by whomsoever committed, Deploring the lack of cooperation by UNITA in clarifying the circumstances of these tragic incidents which occurred over territory under its control and in permitting the prompt dispatch of the United Nations search and rescue mission, Acting under Chapter VII of the Charter of the United Nations, 1. Condemns the downing of the two aircraft chartered by the United Nations, deplores the loss under suspicious circumstances of other commercial aircraft, and demands that all such attacks cease immediately; 2. Reaffirms its resolve to establish the truth about the circumstances of and to determine the responsibility for the downing of the two aircraft chartered by the United Nations and the loss under suspicious circumstances of 99-00643 (E) /... S/RES/1221 (1999) other commercial aircraft over UNITA controlled territory through an immediate and objective international investigation of these tragic incidents, and reiterates its call upon all concerned, especially UNITA, to cooperate fully with and to facilitate such an investigation; 3. Concludes that the leader of UNITA, Mr. Jonas Savimbi, has not complied with the demands contained in its resolution 1219 (1998) of 31 December 1998; 4. Reiterates its demand that the leader of UNITA, Mr. Jonas Savimbi, cooperate immediately and in good faith in the search for and rescue of possible survivors of the above-mentioned incidents; 5. Welcomes the concrete actions undertaken by the Government of Angola to follow up the commitment made by the President of Angola to the Special Envoy of the Secretary-General on 5 January 1999 regarding the cooperation to be extended to the United Nations search and rescue efforts, and encourages it to continue to extend such cooperation; 6. Requests the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) to provide all possible support to the investigation of those incidents as soon as conditions on the ground permit, and urges Member States with investigative capability and expertise to assist the United Nations upon request in the investigation of those incidents; 7. Stresses the obligation of Member States to comply with the measures imposed against UNITA contained in resolutions 864 (1993) of 15 September 1993, 1127 (1997) of 28 August 1997 and 1173 (1998) of 12 June 1998; 8. Expresses its readiness to pursue reports of violations of the measures referred to in paragraph 7 above, to take steps to reinforce the implementation of these measures and to consider the imposition of additional measures, including in the area of telecommunications, on the basis of a report to be prepared by



the Committee established pursuant to resolution 864 (1993) by 15 February 1999 drawing on the expertise of relevant bodies and organizations, including the International Telecommunication Union; 9. Encourages the Chairman of the Committee referred to in paragraph 8 above to consult with the Organization of African Unity (OAU) and the Southern African Development Community (SADC) on ways to strengthen the implementation of the measures referred to in paragraph 7 above; 10. Decides to remain actively seized of the matter.

## **Вариант 9**

Read and translate the text, analyze translation and correct it.

### **Assault on Terrorism**

WASHINGTON – At first, the news from Yemen on May 25 sounded like a modest victory in the campaign against terrorists: an airstrike had hit a group suspected of being operatives for Al Qaeda in the remote desert of Marib Province, birthplace of the legendary queen of Sheba. But the strike, it turned out, had also killed the province’s deputy governor, a respected local leader who Yemeni officials said had been trying to talk Qaeda members into giving up their fight. Yemen’s president, Ali Abdullah Saleh, accepted responsibility for the death and paid blood money to the offended tribes. The strike, though, was not the work of Mr. Saleh’s decrepit Soviet-era air force. It was a secret mission by the United States military, according to American officials, at least the fourth such assault on Al Qaeda in the arid mountains and deserts of Yemen since December. The attack offered a glimpse of the Obama administration’s shadow war against Al Qaeda and its allies. In roughly a dozen countries – from the deserts of North Africa, to the mountains of Pakistan, to former Soviet republics crippled by ethnic and religious strife – the United States has significantly increased military and intelligence operations, pursuing the enemy using robotic drones and commando teams, paying contractors to spy and training local operatives to chase terrorists. The White House has intensified the Central Intelligence Agency’s drone missile campaign in Pakistan, approved raids against Qaeda operatives in Somalia and launched clandestine operations from Kenya. The administration has worked with European allies to dismantle terrorist groups in North Africa, efforts that include a recent French strike in Algeria. And the Pentagon tapped a network of private contractors to gather intelligence about things like militant hide-outs in Pakistan and the location of an American soldier currently in Taliban hands. While the stealth war began in the Bush administration, it has expanded under President Obama, who rose to prominence in part for his early opposition to the invasion of Iraq. Virtually none of the newly aggressive steps undertaken by the United States government have been publicly acknowledged. In contrast with the troop buildup in Afghanistan, which came after months of robust debate, for example, the American military campaign in Yemen began without notice in December and has never been officially confirmed. Obama administration officials point to the benefits of bringing the fight against Al Qaeda and other militants into the shadows. Afghanistan and Iraq, they said, have sobered American politicians and voters about the staggering costs of big wars that topple governments, require years of occupation and can be a catalyst for further radicalization throughout the Muslim world. Instead of “the hammer,” in the words of John O. Brennan, President Obama’s top counterterrorism adviser, America will rely on the “scalpel.” In a speech in May, Mr. Brennan, an architect of the White House strategy, used this analogy while pledging a “multigenerational” campaign against Al Qaeda and its extremist affiliates. Yet such wars come with many risks: the potential for botched operations that fuel anti-American rage; a blurring of the lines between soldiers and spies that could put troops at risk of being denied Geneva Convention protections; a weakening of the Congressional oversight system put in place to

prevent abuses by America's secret operatives; and a reliance on authoritarian foreign leaders and surrogates with sometimes murky loyalties.

### **Вариант 10**

Read and translate the text, analyze translation and correct it.

#### **The one evening**

One hot evening in Padua they carried him up onto the roof and he could look out over the top of the town. There were chimney swifts in the sky. After a while it got dark and the searchlights came out. The others went down and took the bottles with them. He and Luz could hear them below on the balcony. Luz sat on the bed. She was cool and fresh in the hot night. Luz stayed on night duty for three months. They were glad to let her. When they operated on him she prepared him for the operating table; and they had a joke about friend or enema. He went under the anaesthetic holding tight on to himself so he would not blab about anything during the silly, talky time. After he got on crutches he used to take the temperatures so Luz would not have to get up from the bed. There were only a few patients, and they all knew about it. They all liked Luz. As he walked back along the halls he thought of Luz in his bed. Before he went back to the front they went into the Duomo and prayed. It was dim and quiet, and there were other people praying. They wanted to get married, but there was not enough time for the banns, and neither of them had birth certificates. They felt as though they were married, but they wanted everyone to know about it, and to make it so they could not lose it. Luz wrote him many letters that he never got until after the armistice. Fifteen came in a bunch to the front and he sorted them by the dates and read them all straight through. They were all about the hospital, and how much she loved him and how it was impossible to get along without him and how terrible it was missing him at night. After the armistice they agreed he should go home to get a job so they might be married. Luz would not come home until he had a good job and could come to New York to meet her. It was understood he would not drink, and he did not want to see his friends or anyone in the States. Only to get a job and be married. On the train from Padua to Milan they quarreled about her not being willing to come home at once. When they had to say good-bye, in the station at Milan, they kissed good-bye, but were not finished with the quarrel. He felt sick about saying good-bye like that. He went to America on a boat from Genoa. Luz went back to Pordonone to open a hospital. It was lonely and rainy there, and there was a battalion of arditi quartered in the town. Living in the muddy, rainy town in the winter, the major of the battalion made love to Luz, and she had never known Italians before, and finally wrote to the States that theirs had only been a boy and girl affair. She was sorry, and she knew he would probably not be able to understand, but might some day forgive her, and be grateful to her, and she expected, absolutely unexpectedly, to be married in the spring. She loved him as always, but she realized now it was only a boy and girl love. She hoped he would have a great career, and believed in him absolutely. She knew it was for the best. The major did not marry her in the spring, or any other time. Luz never got an answer to the letter to Chicago about it. A short time after he contracted gonorrhea from a sales girl in a loop department store while riding in a taxicab through Lincoln Park.