ДОНСКОЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ ТЕХНИЧЕСКИЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ

УПРАВЛЕНИЕ ДИСТАНЦИОННОГО ОБУЧЕНИЯ И ПОВЫШЕНИЯ КВАЛИФИКАЦИИ

Кафедра «Лингвистика и иностранные языки»

Методические указания и контрольные задания

по дисциплине

«Языковая коммуникация в профессиональной сфере на иностранном языке»

Для магистрантов заочной формы обучения по направлению 37.04.01

Автор

Невольникова С.В.

Ростов-на-Дону, 2018

Аннотация

Методические указания и контрольные задания по дисциплине «Языковая коммуникация в профессиональной сфере на иностранном языке» предназначены для студентов заочной формы обучения направления 37.04.01. «Психология»

Автор

к.фил.н., доцент Невольникова С.В.

Оглавление

ТРЕБОВАНИЯ К ЗАЧЕТУ ДЛЯ МАГИСТРАНТОВ ПО ДИСЦИПЛИНЕ

«ЯЗЫКОВАЯ КОММУНИКАЦИЯ В ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОЙ СФЕРЕ НА ИНОСТРАННОМ ЯЗЫКЕ»

В рамках самостоятельной работы магистрантам необходимо подготовить к зачету:

1. Чтение и переводаутентичных текстов (3 текста) по направлению подготовки. Общий объем –15000 печатных знаков. Составить словарь терминов (100-120 единиц). Написать 3 аннотации к прочитанным текстам. Преподаватель проверяет чтение вслух и устный перевод с листа.
2. Письменный перевод аутентичных текстов (статей, монографий) по выбранной магистрантом теме или проблеме научно-профессиональной направленности объемом 5000 печатных знаков.
3. Сообщение-презентация на иностранном языке по выбранной магистрантом теме или проблеме научно-профессиональной направленности. Оценивается содержательность, адекватная реализация коммуникативного намерения, логичность, связность, смысловая и структурная завершенность.

Общие требования к выполнению контрольной работы

Памятка магистранту

Контрольное задание предлагается в четырех вариантах. Номер варианта определяется по последней цифре номера зачетной книжки студента:

1, 2 , 3 – 1-й вариант;
4, 5 , 6 – 2-й вариант;
7 , 8 – 3-й вариант;
9 , 0 – 4-й вариант.

Контрольная работа должна быть выполнена в отдельной тетради. На обложке тетради необходимо указать следующие данные: факультет, курс, номер группы, фамилию, имя и отчество, дату, номер контрольного задания и вариант.

Первую страницу необходимо оставить чистой для замечаний и рецензии преподавателя.

Все предлагаемые к выполнению задания (включая текст заданий на английском языке) переписываются на левой стороне разворота тетради, а выполняются на правой.

Контрольная работа должна быть написана четким подчерком, для замечаний преподавателя следует оставить поля.

Контрольная работа, выполненная не полностью или не отвечающая вышеприведенным требованиям, не проверяется и не засчитывается.

Проверенная контрольная работа должна быть переработана студентом (та часть ее, где содержатся ошибки и неточности перевода или неправильное выполнение заданий) в соответствии с замечаниями и методическими указаниями преподавателя. В той же тетради следует выполнить «Работу над ошибками», представив ее на защите контрольной работы.

Четыре варианта контрольной работы имеют одинаковую структуру. Все задания должны быть выполнены в письменной форме.

ВАРИАНТ 1

I. Translate 1, 3, 4, 9 paragraphs into Russian.

The first smile

1. About four thousand years ago, somewhere in the Middle East — we don't know where or when, exactly — a scribe drew a picture of an ox head. The picture was rather simple: just a face with two horns on top. It was used as part of an *abjad*, a set of characters that represent the consonants in a language. Over thousands of years, that ox-head icon gradually changed as it found its way into many different abjads and alphabets. It became more angular, then rotated to its side. Finally it turned upside down entirely, so that it was resting on its horns. Today it no longer represents an ox head or even a consonant. We know it as the capital letter A.

2. The moral of this story is that symbols evolve.

Long before written symbols, even before spoken language, our ancestors communicated by gesture. Even now, a lot of what we communicate to each other is non-verbal, partly hidden beneath the surface of awareness. We smile, laugh, cry, cringe, stand tall, shrug. These behaviours are natural, but they are also symbolic. Some of them, indeed, are pretty bizarre when you think about them. Why do we expose our teeth to express friendliness? Why do we leak lubricant from our eyes to communicate a need for help? Why do we laugh?

3. One of the first scientists to think about these questions was Charles Darwin. In his 1872 book, *The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals*, Darwin observed that all people express their feelings in more or less the same ways. He argued that we probably evolved these gestures from precursor actions in ancestral animals. A modern champion of the same idea is Paul Ekman, the American psychologist. Ekman categorised a basic set of human facial expressions — happy, frightened, disgusted, and so on — and found that they were the same across widely different cultures. People from tribal Papua New Guinea make the same smiles and frowns as people from the industrialised USA.

4. Our emotional expressions seem to be inborn, in other words: they are part of our evolutionary heritage. And yet their etymology, if I can put it that way, remains a mystery. Can we trace these social signals back to their evolutionary root, to some original behaviour of our ancestors? To explain them fully, we would have to follow the trail back until we left the symbolic realm altogether, until

we came face to face with something that had nothing to do with communication. We would have to find the ox head in the letter A.

5. I think we can do that.

About 10 years ago I was walking down the central corridor in my lab at Princeton University when something wet smacked me from behind. I gave a most undignified squawk and ducked with my hands thrown up around my head. Turning around, I saw not one but two of my students — one with a squirt gun, the other with a video camera.

The lab was a hazardous place in those days. We were studying how the brain monitors a safety zone around the body and controls the ducking, cringing, squinting actions that protect us from impact. Whacking people from behind was not part of a formal experiment, but it was endlessly entertaining and, in its own way, revealing.

6. Our experiments focused on a specific set of areas in the brains of humans and monkeys. These parts of the brain seemed to process the space immediately around the body, taking in sensory information and transforming it into movement. We tracked the activity of individual neurons in those areas, trying to understand their function. A typical neuron might become active, clicking like a Geiger counter when an object loomed towards the left cheek. The same neuron would respond to a touch on the left cheek, or to a sound made near it. When we ran tests in the dark, the neuron would become furiously active if the head moved in a way to take the left cheek towards the remembered location of an object: the neuron was 'warning' the rest of the brain that a collision was about to occur at a particular spot on the body.

7. Other neurons scoped out the space near other parts of the body. It was as though the entire skin was covered with invisible bubbles, each one monitored by a neuron. Some of the bubbles were small, reaching only a few centimetres from the surface. Others were large, extending metres. Collectively, they created a virtual safety zone, like a massive layer of bubble-wrap around the body.

<u>8. Without that mechanism, you couldn't brush an insect off your skin, duck from an impending impact nor fend off an attack. You couldn't even walk through a doorway without bashing your shoulder</u>

The bubble-wrap neurons did more than monitor. They also fed directly into a set of reflexes. When they were subtly active they biased movement away from nearby objects. When they were highly active, such as when we gave them some vigorous electrical stimulation, the result was a rapid and complete defensive movement. When we zapped a cluster of neurons that protected the left cheek, for ex-

ample, a lot of things happened very quickly. The eyes closed. The skin around the left eye pursed. The upper lip pulled up hard, causing wrinkles of skin to protect the eyes from below. The head ducked and turned towards the right. The left shoulder rose. The torso hunched, and the left hand lifted and flapped to the side as if to block a threat to the cheek. This whole sequence of movements was fast, automatic, reflexive.

It was clear that we had tapped into a system that controls one of the oldest and most important behavioural repertoires. Objects loom towards, or brush against, the skin, and a coordinated reaction protects the threatened part of the body. A gentle stimulus will evoke a subtle avoidance. Strong stimuli trigger a full-blown defensive flinch. Without that mechanism, you couldn't brush an insect off your skin, duck from an impending impact nor fend off an attack. You couldn't even walk through a doorway without bashing your shoulder.

9. After many scientific papers, we thought we had wrapped up an important project on sensory-guided movement. But something about those defensive actions kept bothering us. As we stepped frame by frame through our videos, I couldn't help but notice a spooky similarity: defensive movements looked an awful lot like the standard set of human social signals. When you puff air on a monkey's face, why is its expression so uncannily like a human smile? Why does laughter involve the same components as a defensive stance? For a while this lurking similarity nagged at us. A deeper relationship must be hiding in the data.

10. As it turned out, we were not the first to seek connections between defensive movements and social behaviour. One early insight came from a zoo curator, Heini Hediger, who managed the Zurich zoo in the 1950s. Because he tried to envision zoo enclosures from the point of view of the animals, taking their natural habitats and behaviour into account, he is sometimes called the father of zoo biology. He was fascinated by the ways in which animals process the spaces around them.

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zone with respect to one another, though of course it is much smaller. In a crowd, they usually don't go skin to skin. They step and shift to maintain an orderly minimum spacing.

11. In the 1960s, the American psychologist Edward Hall adapted the same idea to human behaviour. Hall pointed out that each person has a protected zone two or three feet wide, swelling around the head and narrowing towards the feet. This zone is not fixed in size: if you're nervous, it grows; if you're relaxed, it shrinks. It also depends on your cultural upbringing. Personal space is small in Japan and large in Australia. Put a Japanese man and an Australian man together and a strange little dance ensues. The Japanese man steps forward, the Australian man steps back, and thus they chase one another around the room. They might not even notice what they are doing. In this way, the safety zone provides an invisible spatial scaffold that frames our social interactions.

II. Make the summary of the text. Use the following phrase

1. The article (text) is head-lined …
The head-line of the article (text) is …
2. The author of the article (text) is …
The article is written by …
3. It was published (printed) in …
4. The main idea of the article (text) is …
The article is about …
The article is devoted to …
The article deals with …
The article touches upon …
5. The purpose of the article is to give the reader some information on …
The aim of the article is to provide the reader with some material on …
6. The author starts by telling the readers (about, that) …
The author writes (states, stresses, thinks, points out) that …
The article describes …
According to the article (text) …
Further the author goes on to say that …
7. The article is (can be) divided into 4(5-7) parts.
The first part deals with (is about, touches upon) …
8. In conclusion the article tells …
The author comes to the conclusion that …
9. I found the article interesting (important, dull, of no value,

easy, too hard to understand).

III. Make the abstract of the text.

IV Write 10 key words of the text and translate them into Russian.

ВАРИАНТ 2

I. Translate 1,2, 5,8 paragraphs into Russian.

The first smile

1. About four thousand years ago, somewhere in the Middle East — we don't know where or when, exactly — a scribe drew a picture of an ox head. The picture was rather simple: just a face with two horns on top. It was used as part of an *abjad*, a set of characters that represent the consonants in a language. Over thousands of years, that ox-head icon gradually changed as it found its way into many different abjads and alphabets. It became more angular, then rotated to its side. Finally it turned upside down entirely, so that it was resting on its horns. Today it no longer represents an ox head or even a consonant. We know it as the capital letter A.

2. The moral of this story is that symbols evolve.

Long before written symbols, even before spoken language, our ancestors communicated by gesture. Even now, a lot of what we communicate to each other is non-verbal, partly hidden beneath the surface of awareness. We smile, laugh, cry, cringe, stand tall, shrug. These behaviours are natural, but they are also symbolic. Some of them, indeed, are pretty bizarre when you think about them. Why do we expose our teeth to express friendliness? Why do we leak lubricant from our eyes to communicate a need for help? Why do we laugh?

3. One of the first scientists to think about these questions was Charles Darwin. In his 1872 book, *The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals*, Darwin observed that all people express their feelings in more or less the same ways. He argued that we probably evolved these gestures from precursor actions in ancestral animals. A modern champion of the same idea is Paul Ekman, the American psychologist. Ekman categorised a basic set of human facial expressions — happy, frightened, disgusted, and so on — and found that they were the same across widely different cultures. People from tribal Papua New Guinea make the same smiles and frowns as people from the industrialised USA.

4. Our emotional expressions seem to be inborn, in other words: they are part of our evolutionary heritage. And yet their etymology, if I can put it that way, remains a mystery. Can we trace these social signals back to their evolutionary root, to some original behaviour of our ancestors? To explain them fully, we would have to follow the trail back until we left the symbolic realm altogether, until

we came face to face with something that had nothing to do with communication. We would have to find the ox head in the letter A.

5. I think we can do that.

About 10 years ago I was walking down the central corridor in my lab at Princeton University when something wet smacked me from behind. I gave a most undignified squawk and ducked with my hands thrown up around my head. Turning around, I saw not one but two of my students — one with a squirt gun, the other with a video camera.

The lab was a hazardous place in those days. We were studying how the brain monitors a safety zone around the body and controls the ducking, cringing, squinting actions that protect us from impact. Whacking people from behind was not part of a formal experiment, but it was endlessly entertaining and, in its own way, revealing.

6. Our experiments focused on a specific set of areas in the brains of humans and monkeys. These parts of the brain seemed to process the space immediately around the body, taking in sensory information and transforming it into movement. We tracked the activity of individual neurons in those areas, trying to understand their function. A typical neuron might become active, clicking like a Geiger counter when an object loomed towards the left cheek. The same neuron would respond to a touch on the left cheek, or to a sound made near it. When we ran tests in the dark, the neuron would become furiously active if the head moved in a way to take the left cheek towards the remembered location of an object: the neuron was 'warning' the rest of the brain that a collision was about to occur at a particular spot on the body.

7. Other neurons scoped out the space near other parts of the body. It was as though the entire skin was covered with invisible bubbles, each one monitored by a neuron. Some of the bubbles were small, reaching only a few centimetres from the surface. Others were large, extending metres. Collectively, they created a virtual safety zone, like a massive layer of bubble-wrap around the body.

<u>8. Without that mechanism, you couldn't brush an insect off your skin, duck from an impending impact nor fend off an attack. You couldn't even walk through a doorway without bashing your shoulder</u>

The bubble-wrap neurons did more than monitor. They also fed directly into a set of reflexes. When they were subtly active they biased movement away from nearby objects. When they were highly active, such as when we gave them some vigorous electrical stimulation, the result was a rapid and complete defensive movement. When we zapped a cluster of neurons that protected the left cheek, for ex-

ample, a lot of things happened very quickly. The eyes closed. The skin around the left eye pursed. The upper lip pulled up hard, causing wrinkles of skin to protect the eyes from below. The head ducked and turned towards the right. The left shoulder rose. The torso hunched, and the left hand lifted and flapped to the side as if to block a threat to the cheek. This whole sequence of movements was fast, automatic, reflexive.

It was clear that we had tapped into a system that controls one of the oldest and most important behavioural repertoires. Objects loom towards, or brush against, the skin, and a coordinated reaction protects the threatened part of the body. A gentle stimulus will evoke a subtle avoidance. Strong stimuli trigger a full-blown defensive flinch. Without that mechanism, you couldn't brush an insect off your skin, duck from an impending impact nor fend off an attack. You couldn't even walk through a doorway without bashing your shoulder.

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10. As it turned out, we were not the first to seek connections between defensive movements and social behaviour. One early insight came from a zoo curator, Heini Hediger, who managed the Zurich zoo in the 1950s. Because he tried to envision zoo enclosures from the point of view of the animals, taking their natural habitats and behaviour into account, he is sometimes called the father of zoo biology. He was fascinated by the ways in which animals process the spaces around them.

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zone with respect to one another, though of course it is much smaller. In a crowd, they usually don't go skin to skin. They step and shift to maintain an orderly minimum spacing.

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II. Make the summary of the text. Use the following phrase

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8. In conclusion the article tells …
The author comes to the conclusion that …

9. I found the article interesting (important, dull, of no value, easy, too hard to understand).

III. Make the abstract of the text.

IV Write 10 key words of the text and translate them into Russian.

ВАРИАНТ 3

I. Translate 1,6, 7,10 paragraphs into Russian.

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The article describes …
According to the article (text) …
Further the author goes on to say that …
7. The article is (can be) divided into 4(5-7) parts.
The first part deals with (is about, touches upon) …
8. In conclusion the article tells …
The author comes to the conclusion that …
9. I found the article interesting (important, dull, of no value,

easy, too hard to understand).

III. Make the abstract of the text.

IV Write 10 key words of the text and translate them into Russian.

ВАРИАНТ 4

I. Translate 2,8, 9, 11 paragraphs into Russian.

The first smile

1. About four thousand years ago, somewhere in the Middle East — we don't know where or when, exactly — a scribe drew a picture of an ox head. The picture was rather simple: just a face with two horns on top. It was used as part of an *abjad*, a set of characters that represent the consonants in a language. Over thousands of years, that ox-head icon gradually changed as it found its way into many different abjads and alphabets. It became more angular, then rotated to its side. Finally it turned upside down entirely, so that it was resting on its horns. Today it no longer represents an ox head or even a consonant. We know it as the capital letter A.

2. The moral of this story is that symbols evolve.

Long before written symbols, even before spoken language, our ancestors communicated by gesture. Even now, a lot of what we communicate to each other is non-verbal, partly hidden beneath the surface of awareness. We smile, laugh, cry, cringe, stand tall, shrug. These behaviours are natural, but they are also symbolic. Some of them, indeed, are pretty bizarre when you think about them. Why do we expose our teeth to express friendliness? Why do we leak lubricant from our eyes to communicate a need for help? Why do we laugh?

3. One of the first scientists to think about these questions was Charles Darwin. In his 1872 book, *The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals*, Darwin observed that all people express their feelings in more or less the same ways. He argued that we probably evolved these gestures from precursor actions in ancestral animals. A modern champion of the same idea is Paul Ekman, the American psychologist. Ekman categorised a basic set of human facial expressions — happy, frightened, disgusted, and so on — and found that they were the same across widely different cultures. People from tribal Papua New Guinea make the same smiles and frowns as people from the industrialised USA.

4. Our emotional expressions seem to be inborn, in other words: they are part of our evolutionary heritage. And yet their etymology, if I can put it that way, remains a mystery. Can we trace these social signals back to their evolutionary root, to some original behaviour of our ancestors? To explain them fully, we would have to follow the trail back until we left the symbolic realm altogether, until

we came face to face with something that had nothing to do with communication. We would have to find the ox head in the letter A.

5. I think we can do that.

About 10 years ago I was walking down the central corridor in my lab at Princeton University when something wet smacked me from behind. I gave a most undignified squawk and ducked with my hands thrown up around my head. Turning around, I saw not one but two of my students — one with a squirt gun, the other with a video camera.

The lab was a hazardous place in those days. We were studying how the brain monitors a safety zone around the body and controls the ducking, cringing, squinting actions that protect us from impact. Whacking people from behind was not part of a formal experiment, but it was endlessly entertaining and, in its own way, revealing.

6. Our experiments focused on a specific set of areas in the brains of humans and monkeys. These parts of the brain seemed to process the space immediately around the body, taking in sensory information and transforming it into movement. We tracked the activity of individual neurons in those areas, trying to understand their function. A typical neuron might become active, clicking like a Geiger counter when an object loomed towards the left cheek. The same neuron would respond to a touch on the left cheek, or to a sound made near it. When we ran tests in the dark, the neuron would become furiously active if the head moved in a way to take the left cheek towards the remembered location of an object: the neuron was 'warning' the rest of the brain that a collision was about to occur at a particular spot on the body.

7. Other neurons scoped out the space near other parts of the body. It was as though the entire skin was covered with invisible bubbles, each one monitored by a neuron. Some of the bubbles were small, reaching only a few centimetres from the surface. Others were large, extending metres. Collectively, they created a virtual safety zone, like a massive layer of bubble-wrap around the body.

<u>8. Without that mechanism, you couldn't brush an insect off your skin, duck from an impending impact nor fend off an attack. You couldn't even walk through a doorway without bashing your shoulder</u>

The bubble-wrap neurons did more than monitor. They also fed directly into a set of reflexes. When they were subtly active they biased movement away from nearby objects. When they were highly active, such as when we gave them some vigorous electrical stimulation, the result was a rapid and complete defensive movement. When we zapped a cluster of neurons that protected the left cheek, for ex-

ample, a lot of things happened very quickly. The eyes closed. The skin around the left eye pursed. The upper lip pulled up hard, causing wrinkles of skin to protect the eyes from below. The head ducked and turned towards the right. The left shoulder rose. The torso hunched, and the left hand lifted and flapped to the side as if to block a threat to the cheek. This whole sequence of movements was fast, automatic, reflexive.

It was clear that we had tapped into a system that controls one of the oldest and most important behavioural repertoires. Objects loom towards, or brush against, the skin, and a coordinated reaction protects the threatened part of the body. A gentle stimulus will evoke a subtle avoidance. Strong stimuli trigger a full-blown defensive flinch. Without that mechanism, you couldn't brush an insect off your skin, duck from an impending impact nor fend off an attack. You couldn't even walk through a doorway without bashing your shoulder.

9. After many scientific papers, we thought we had wrapped up an important project on sensory-guided movement. But something about those defensive actions kept bothering us. As we stepped frame by frame through our videos, I couldn't help but notice a spooky similarity: defensive movements looked an awful lot like the standard set of human social signals. When you puff air on a monkey's face, why is its expression so uncannily like a human smile? Why does laughter involve the same components as a defensive stance? For a while this lurking similarity nagged at us. A deeper relationship must be hiding in the data.

10. As it turned out, we were not the first to seek connections between defensive movements and social behaviour. One early insight came from a zoo curator, Heini Hediger, who managed the Zurich zoo in the 1950s. Because he tried to envision zoo enclosures from the point of view of the animals, taking their natural habitats and behaviour into account, he is sometimes called the father of zoo biology. He was fascinated by the ways in which animals process the spaces around them.

On his expeditions to Africa to capture specimens, Hediger noticed a consistent pattern among the prey animals on the veld. A zebra, for example, does not simply run at the sight of a lion. Instead, it seems to project an invisible perimeter about itself. As long as the lion is outside the perimeter, the zebra is nonchalant. As soon as the lion crosses that border, the zebra casually moves away and reinstates the safety zone. If the lion enters a smaller perimeter, a more heavily defended zone, then the zebra runs. Zebras have a similar protected

zone with respect to one another, though of course it is much smaller. In a crowd, they usually don't go skin to skin. They step and shift to maintain an orderly minimum spacing.

11. In the 1960s, the American psychologist Edward Hall adapted the same idea to human behaviour. Hall pointed out that each person has a protected zone two or three feet wide, swelling around the head and narrowing towards the feet. This zone is not fixed in size: if you're nervous, it grows; if you're relaxed, it shrinks. It also depends on your cultural upbringing. Personal space is small in Japan and large in Australia. Put a Japanese man and an Australian man together and a strange little dance ensues. The Japanese man steps forward, the Australian man steps back, and thus they chase one another around the room. They might not even notice what they are doing. In this way, the safety zone provides an invisible spatial scaffold that frames our social interactions.

II. Make the summary of the text. Use the following phrase

1. The article (text) is head-lined …
The head-line of the article (text) is …
2. The author of the article (text) is …
The article is written by …
3. It was published (printed) in …
4. The main idea of the article (text) is …
The article is about …
The article is devoted to …
The article deals with …
The article touches upon …
5. The purpose of the article is to give the reader some information on …
The aim of the article is to provide the reader with some material on …
6. The author starts by telling the readers (about, that) …
The author writes (states, stresses, thinks, points out) that …
The article describes …
According to the article (text) …
Further the author goes on to say that …
7. The article is (can be) divided into 4(5-7) parts.
The first part deals with (is about, touches upon) …
8. In conclusion the article tells …
The author comes to the conclusion that …
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