Е.Э. Ляпунова

ОТ ЛИНГВИСТИКИ К ЛИНГВОДИДАКТИКЕ

Выпуск II

What is the core EAP we use in Economics?

Навигатор в области английского языка
для академических целей для бакалавров экономики
(1-й уровень высшего образования)

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Л97 **От лингвистики к лингводидактике:** Выпуск II: What is the core EAP we use in Economics? Навигатор в области английского языка для академических целей для бакалавров экономики (1-й уровень высшего образования). – М.: МАКС Пресс, 2014. – 84 с.
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Серия «От лингвистики к лингводидактике» является единым многоблоковым, с автономными и одновременно комплиментарными составляющими – выпусками, академическим комплексом для самостоятельной работы не-лингвистов высшей школы, в котором трактуется современная английская академическая речь, какой она представлена в своих лучших узуальных образцах.

Комплекс рассчитан на не-лингвистов, сделавших осознанный и мотивированный выбор в пользу начала академической работы на английском языке.

Выпуск II адресован преимущественно будущим экономистам, пользователям EEAP.

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A bad container can spoil its contents

Вместо предисловия

Серия «От лингвистики к лингводидактике» мыслится как единый многоблоковый, с автономными и одновременно комплиментарными составляющими – выпусками, академический комплекс для самостоятельной работы не-лингвистов высшей школы, в котором трактуется современная английская академическая речь, какой она представлена в своих лучших узуальных (узус = *usage*) образцах. Степень подробности рассмотрения материала является, по мнению автора, необходимой и достаточной, чтобы читатели/пользователи смогли приблизиться к практическому владению EAP в своей области гуманитарного знания. В этом заключается основополагающее, как принято говорить в лингвистике, содержание – намерение (*purpot*) автора.

Комплекс рассчитан на не-лингвистов, сделавших осознанный и мотивированный выбор в пользу начала академической работы на английском языке. Если вспомнить неутешительную статистику – не более 13% от общего числа библиотечных запросов в сфере науки в мире касаются не-англоязычных периодических изданий, а в общем объеме цитирования на долю не-англоязычных публикаций приходится около 10% – выбор читателей оправдан, целесообразен и своевременен.

Мы хорошо знаем, что мало кому удается сразу освоить академическую речь, будь то в устной или письменной форме, будь то на родном языке или (что сложнее) на иностранном. Помимо изначальной склонности к такой деятельности, требуются время, образцы для подражания, начитанность (лингвисты говорят, фоновые знания – *background knowledge*), непременные собственные практические усилия и понимание поступательности и многоступенчатости успешного движения к овладению EAP.

Исходя из лингвистических представлений, можно сказать, что академическая речь находится в оппозиции к речи не-академической, поскольку наиболее наглядно реализует основную функцию научного стиля в целом – нести интеллектуальную ин-

формацию в форме сообщения (*communication, message*), по контрасту с общением и воздействием.

Более того, в академической речи превалирует вполне определенный вид сообщения – повествовательный (*narrative*), а он, в свою очередь, предсказуемо строится на монологе, как в устном, так и в письменном проявлении. Следовательно, речевой платформой EAP является повествовательный монолог (*telling the story monologue*).

Безусловно, не-лингвисту придется учиться рассказывать свои академические истории в повествовательном монологе, и это не такая простая задача, так как подобный способ оформления речи имеет свои особенности.

Монолог повествовательный (монолог сообщающий) – это логическое и последовательно организованное сообщение, имеющее свою достаточно сложную синтаксическую (синтаксис – наука о построении речи на уровне в том числе предложений и составляющих их словосочетаний) структуру и более обширное по сравнению с диалогом – обменом репликами – тематическое содержание. Это содержание обычно передается общенаучной лексикой (*general scientific vocabulary*, далее *GSV*).

Если мы сумеем на достаточно большом и репрезентативном массиве речевых примеров EAP убедить читателей в обоснованности наших лингвистических суждений, то они, вероятно, самостоятельно спрогнозируют, какой отрезок академического маршрута к владению EAP они преодолеют, знакомясь с выпуском II.

Суть и цели книги сформулированы следующим образом:

1. На примере текстов EAP в области экономики, далее EEAP, показать справедливость всех утверждений, высказанных в Выпуске I, в частности, относительно лексического ядра EAP, общеакадемического интернационального AWL.

2. Перейти к рассмотрению более обширного пласта лексики междисциплинарного, уже внутриязыкового (английского, в нашем

случае) речеупотребления – *GSV*, где *vocabulary ≠ list* (список). *Vocabulary* = лексика, т.е. совокупность слов и словосочетаний, характерных для данного варианта речи, также в связи с данной сферой ее применения.

Поскольку EEAP<EAP, то GSV будет функционировать и в EEAP, и на нем мы сосредоточим свое особое внимание, предлагая читателям знакомство с реально существующими текстами EEAP, выписывая из них (лингвисты говорят, расписывая материал) и затем формируя запас слов и, главное, словосочетаний, т.к. «кирпичиками» любого научного текста является именно словосочетание, о чем мы говорили в Выпуске I. Пополнять этот запас – багаж целесообразно на протяжении всей академической жизни (не обязательно в письменном виде), прислушиваясь и запоминая, вчитываясь и впитывая, уважительно копируя, пытаясь имитировать *patterns to be followed*. А вот отличать лучшие образцы, модели, в которых есть, по словам Norman E. Steenrod, «*the excellence of an exposition»* от информативных, но обычных, это дело академического опыта, и самостоятельно поначалу без огрехов здесь не обойтись.

To be on the *safe side*, целесообразно научиться различать два аспекта любого словесного (*verbal*) высказывания (*utterance*) – план содержания (*content plane*) и план выражения (*expression plane*). Это поможет в дальнейшем избегать плагиата. Плагиат (от лат. *plagium* – похищение) недопустим и во всем мире наказуем. Языковое оформление как средство выражения экономического содержания может восприниматься (не всегда пониматься) всеми, кто владеет данным человеческим языком *judging from the surface,* рассматриваться узуальным или окказиональным (не соответствующим общепринятому употреблению) etc, т.е оцениваться. Экономический смысл же понимается, трактуется, толкуется, описывается, разъясняется, вводится etc внутри экономического сообщества. Мы сподвигаем читателей на *making EEAP their own*, не касаясь собственно плана содержания: идей, понятий, доказательств, поскольку это является исключительно полем экономистов.

В связи с GSV приглядимся к значению еще одного слова, входящего в аббревиатуру. *General ≠ spesific, professional*, т.е GSV, по определению, не включает термины отдельных научных дисциплин, в том числе и Economics. Заметим, что известные профессора-экономисты описывают иногда свою термино-систему как «*jargon, technical terms*». Мы вернемся к этой проблематике в Выпуске III. А пока, не вдаваясь в теоретические лингвистические рассуждения, просто будем исходить из того, что термины сейчас не входят в поле нашего рассмотрения.

3. Предъявлять примеры наиболее характерных, а, следовательно, частотно употребимых и продуктивных грамматико-синтаксических структур – Grammar for Economics – на уровне фраз и предложений, участвующих в построении EEAP текстов. Эта тема также будет продолжена в Выпуске III, на уровне более протяженных произведений речи.

4. Предложить читателям дополнительный языковой инструментарий для их собственных набросков в пределах учебных заданий на английском языке. С этой целью, помимо прочего, частично использовать языковой анализ и комментарий продвинутого пользователя EEAP д.э.н. Н.М. Розановой, а также в качестве демонстрационного материала привести живое студенческое эссе по курсу *Microeconomics* в ICEF (МИЭФ) (с разрешения авторов и в их редакции).

5. Сопроводить Выпуск II выборкой безупречно написанных и безукоризненно отредактированных небольших оригинальных отрывков из комплекса книг, которые сопровождают учебники *N. Gregory Mankiw, prof. of Economics, Harvard University,* по курсам *Economics* и *Macroeconomics* для *undergraduates*. Хорошо известно, что сегодня академические тексты *G. Mankiw* входят в *top three* в мире. Сам *Gregory Mankiw* будет опосредованно общаться с читателями в Вып. III, их ждут, в числе прочих, отрывки из его академического эссе, написанного для *Journal of Economic Perspectives*.

Теперь остановимся на особенностях издания.

Выпуск II, как уже должно стать понятным, адресован преимущественно будущим экономистам,. Однако преимущественно – не значит исключительно. Своими потенциальными читателями мы видим – для комфорта самих же пользователей – не-лингвистов высшей школы 1-го уровня высшего образования (*undergraduates*), имеющих:

1. уровень владения английским языком средний, чуть выше среднего (Intermediate), что приблизительно соответствует

сертификату ЕГЭ, не ниже 85 баллов из 100;

сертификату IELTS не ниже 6 баллов из 9;

2. объем экономических знаний

экономика 1-й итерации (от лат. *iteratio* – повторение) = *freshman – level Economics*.

Выпуски II и III данной серии мы называем EEAP Навигаторами (*navigate = find a path through a difficult place or way of dealing with a difficult situation, (fig) direct*) для, соответственно, бакалавров и магистров. Они не подменяют учебников и учебных пособий по курсу «Английский язык», не претендуют на *comprehensiveness.* Это авторское видение EEAP и один из вариантов обучения EEAP. В его фундаменте, в частности, лежат лингвистические представления о семиотической /семиологической текстологии научной речи и результаты исследований в этой области. Семиотика/семиология – наука об общих свойствах знаковых систем, включающая в себя лингвистику в той мере, в какой язык обладает этими свойствами.

Частично Навигаторы родились из не публиковавшихся нами ранее нескольких разноуровневых версий курса *English for Economics*, которые прошли многократную апробацию в рамках совместных международных программ MSU-UCME, MSU-GVI, а также фрагментарно читались в ICFF (МИЭФ) и NES (РЭШ). Текстовые материалы придирчиво и вдумчиво отбирались в *interdisciplinary*

teams с помощью и с одобрением видных экономистов, участников проектов. Мы постарались адаптировать существующие наработки к возможности самостоятельной работы с материалами, сделав дополнительный акцент на академической составляющей.

Согласно существующей лингвистической практике, все синтаксические примеры, включая протяженные, трактуются просто как речевые произведения, без указания на их источники. Все заимствования отражены в общем списке «*The cited books*».

Упоминание об истоках Навигаторов дает повод назвать ключевое для нас слово *option = smth that you can choose in a particular situation.* Поскольку педагогу даже в роли *adviser* трудно самоустраниться, мы резервируем себе место, где время от времени читатели будут находить наши *tips, guesses, remarks.* Они для пользователей также *optional = available or possible*, *if wanted,* поверх наших можно писать свои пометки и замечания. Главное сейчас, начать *doing the work not just thinking about doing it*.

В заключение используем лингвистический прием прямого цитирования (*direct quotation*). Поистине *everything has been said before, and better.* Так, например, говорил Софокл в 5-м веке до нашей эры: «*One must learn by doing the thing; for though you think you know it you have no certainty, until you try*».

Читатели должны помнить, что Выпуск I завершал общегуманитарный академический текст-эссе, в котором до 25% знаменательных слов принадлежало общеакадемическому интернациональному списку – AWL. Тексты EEAP дают еще более убедительные цифры: более 40% от общего числа знаменательных лексических единиц входят в состав AWL.

Sample EEAP Texts 1–2

WORLD BANKING AND **FINANCE PROGRAM**

INFORMAL FINANCE

(выделены слова из AWL)

Recent **research** has **indicated** the importance of **informal financial** markets throughout the world. This **course analyzis various types** of **informal financia**l arrangements and the services they provide in a number of different developing countries, so that **policy** makers and managers of **formal financial institutions** can take advantage of the lessons provided by their **modes** of **operation**. In addition, possibilities of linking **informal agents** with **formal institutions** to provide a broader array of **financial** services to a **wider range** of clients are examined.

Abel Jeuland

ADVANCED MARKETING **THEORY** (MARKETING **MODELS**)

(выделены слова из AWL)

This **course** is an advanced readings **seminar** on **contemporary** marketing **theories** for marketing **Ph**.D. students. It will be a small enrollment **course** but **motivated MBA students** who seek an in-depth exposure to marketing models and have a solid background in basic algebra will not be discouraged from attending. **Students evaluation**

will be **based** on **class participation** and a **research** paper. The **class** will meet once a week for a three hour **period**.

The **topics** to be covered include market segmentation (cluster **analysis**), product **differentiation** and **positioning** (**multidimensional** scaling), competitive **analyses**, new product diffusion, new product **design**, new product forecasting, advertising-sales relationships, **models** of price **promotions**, and **channel** of **distribution coordination**.

LANGUAGE INPUT 1

Лексическая платформа нейтральной EEAP речи

Базовые глаголы EEAP с синонимами и их русские эквиваленты

> В этом выпуске читатели могут абстрагироваться /или почти абстрагироваться/ от новой собственно экономической терминологии, однако активно пользоваться базовыми EEAP глаголами, знать их синонимы /синонимы = равнозначащие и равнозначные слова/ необходимо.

account for	give reasons for; explain	объяснять
give an account of	describe	описывать
analyse	divide; describe; discuss; examine; explain	анализировать
assess	decide the importance and give reasons	оценивать
calculate	estimate; determine; weigh reasons carefully	вычислять
characterise	describe	охарактеризовывать
classify	arrange into groups	классифицировать
comment on	explain the importance of	комментировать
compare	describe similarities	сравнивать
consider	think about carefully	рассматривать
contrast	describe differences	выявлять различия
criticise	discuss and point out faults	давать критическую оценку
deduce	conclude; infer	делать вывод
define	state precisely the meaning of; explain	определять

demonstrate	show clearly by giving proof or evidence	демонстрировать
describe	say what something is like	описывать
determine	find out something; calculate	устанавливать
differentiate between	show how something is different	давать различия
discuss	consider something from different points of view, and then give your own opinion	обсуждать
distinguish	describe the difference between	давать различия
elaborate	discuss in detail, with reasons and examples	обсуждать
elucidate	explain and make clear	объяснять
enumerate	name and list, and explain	ранжировать
estimate	calculate; judge; predict	оценивать
evaluate	assess and explain	оценивать
examine	look at carefully; consider	исследовать
explain	make clear; give reasons for	объяснять
express	show; describe	показывать
identify	point out and describe	определять
indicate	show; explain	указывать
infer	conclude something from facts or reasoning	делать вывод
illustrate	give examples that support your answer	иллюстрировать
justify	give good reasons for; explain satisfactorily	обосновывать

list	put in sequence; catalogue; mention	ранжировать
mention	describe briefly	упоминать
name	identify	называть
outline	give a short description of the main points	охарактеризовывать
prove	show that something is true or certain; provide strong evidence and examples for	доказывать
quantify	express or measure the amount or quantity of	давать количественную характеристику
relate	give an account of	связывать
show	indicate; give evidence of; make clear; demonstrate; illustrate	показывать
speculate	form an opinion without having complete knowledge	рассуждать
suggest	mention as a possibility; state as an idea for consideration; propose	предполагать
state	express carefully, fully and clearly	указывать, утверждать
summarize	give the main points of	суммировать
trace	outline and describe	выявлять
verify	make sure that something is accurate or true; check	проверять

Примеры орфоэпической дифференциации лексики EEAP

Любой литературный язык обладает своими нормами, которые охватывают все его стороны. Одни из этих норм относятся как к устной, так и письменной речи, другие – только к одной из них.

Совокупность правил/норм правописания – орфография – реализуется в письменной форме, в то время как совокупность норм произношения и ударения слов – орфоэпия – обычно не отражается в полной мере на письме и принадлежит исключительно речи устной.

Читатели видят краткий список омонимичных – омонимия = совпадение – однокоренных глаголов и существительных, различить которые можно только в устной форме, по ударению, тогда как написание у них одинаковое, они – омографичны. Общее замечание звучит так: у глаголов в подобных парах ударение обычно стремится к концу слова, у существительных, наоборот, к началу. В приведенном списке есть слова *produce /n/* и *produce /v/*, которые различаются и по значению. *Produce /noun/ = that which is produced, esp, by farming.*

(v) abstráct – (n) ábstract
(v) accéss – (n) áccess
(v) attríbute – (n) áttribute
(v) expórt – (n) éxport
(v) extráct – (n) éxtract
(v) impáct – (n) ímpact
(v) impórt – (n) ímport
(v) incréase – (n) íncrease
(v) procéss – (n) prócess
(v) produce – (n) próduce
(v) projéct – (n) próject
(v) survéy – (n) súrvey
(v) transpórt – (n) tránsport

(Список открыт для пополнения).

Предложные словосочетания с примерами их функционирования в EEAP текстах

В текстах EEAP много *specific* предлогов и устойчивых предложных сочетаний, что связано с необходимостью *exposition* – описанием таблиц, графиков, моделей etc. Вначале их правильное речеупотребление, скорее всего, будет представлять сложность. К примеру, *rise in prices, fall by 30%, fall to 30%, in the graph, on the curve etc*. Запоминать предложные сочетания целесообразно постоянно подчеркивая, выделяя их при работе с EEAP текстами, пополняя перечень наиболее часто встречаемых предлогов.

in the interval
in general
on the whole
in particular
data on, of smth.
typical of
in the sense
at some point in time
at some point on the line, curve
reason for
cause of
supply of
demand for
at some rate
at some level, stage
at the top of the list
at the bottom
by some year
compared to, with
in the field, branch, area
provision of
in details

relate to
correspondent to
at, on in the market
in the context of
lack of
access to
in practice
intervention in
in sectors
rely on
by definition
emphasis on
subjéct to
reference to
vary from… to (в интервале от… до)
increase in (увеличение)
increase by (на сколько-то)
increase to (до некоторой цифры)
in the graph, picture, diagram
on the line, diagram (на линии)
at one extreme
at the other extreme
on average
between this and that
identical to
equal to
at prices
during some period
shift in
solution to
depend on
drive for
advantage over, against
changes in, across
in the case

adjust to
adapt to
base on
basis of
relevant to
substitute for
replace by
on the assumption
from the table, chart, bar, graph, diagram…

(Список открыт для пополнения).

> На наш взгляд, допустимо не упорядочивать список строго по алфавиту. Заметим, что алфавитное следование непреложно в собственно лексикографических – лексикография = наука о составлении словарей – работах, мы же формируем необходимый запас предложных сочетаний, не более. Тренируя разные виды памяти, полезно регулярно просматривать весь перечень, произносить его вслух. Оглядываясь на образцы, готовить наброски своих описаний таблиц и моделей. И делать так до тех пор, пока употребление соответствующего предлога не станет привычным и естественным.

Why We Use Growth Rates

When an economic variable increase **through** time, it is often misleading simply to consider its absolute change. **For** example, an increase **in** GNP **from** $5 trillion **to** 5.1 trillion is surely very different **from** an increase **in** GNP **from,** say, $1 trillion, even though the increase **in** each case is $100 billion. **In** the first case, the $100 billion increase represents a 2 percent increase **in** the second case the same increase **in** dollar terms represents a 10 percent increase. As another example, when we analyze inflation, we are really interested **in** both the determination **of** the price level **at** a point **in** time, and **in** the determination

of the change **in** the price level **through** time – **in** other words, the inflation rate.

How Long Is the Long Run? Part One

The models **of** the economy presented **in** Part Two **of** the book are models **of** the long run, whereas the models **in** Part Three are short-run models. So how long is the long run? The answer is that it depends, both **on** the world and **on** the model. The key feature **of** the classical model that makes it a long-run model is that prices are flexible. **In** other words, prices are assumed to adjust **in** that model to ensure equality **of** supply and demand **in** all markets. **In** the short-run models **of** Part Three, **by** contrast, it is often assumed that prices are instead sticky, and so do not adjust equilibrate all markets. The most basic answer **to** the question is then that the long run is however long it takes **for** prices to be free to adjust **in** all markets **in** the economy. Whereas prices can move instantaneously **in** some markets, they may be fixed **for** months (or even years, **in** the case **of** labor contracts) **in** other markets. As a rule **of** thumb, most economists would probably think **about** price stickiness as being relevant **over** time horizon **of** a few months **up to** a couple **of** years, but not **over** large numbers **of** years.

How Long Is the Long Run? Part Two

In the Solow growth model the time horizon **of** the model is very different **from** the classical model. The classical model considers a snapshot **of** the economy **at** a point **in** time, but **under** the assumption that prices have adjust to clear markets. The Solow growth model **by** contrast, attempts to explain the behavior **of** economies **over** periods **of** many decades. **Of** particular note **in** that model is the behavior **of** the capital stock **through** time. The capital stock is slow-moving variable – changes **in** the capital stock entail building **of** new factories, new machines, new houses, and the like. A period **of** just a few years might well then be called the short run **in** the context **of** the Solow model, for it may take many, many years **for** the economy to adjust **to** its *steady-state equilibrium.* **In** fact, **in** discussions **of** the Solow growth model,

the term “long run” is usually reserved **for** the case when the economy has reached steady state. The long run might then be measured **in** decades, not years.

Real GNP versus Nominal GNP

Valuing goods **at** their market price allows us to add different goods **into** a composite measure, but also means we might be misled **into** thinking we were producing more if prices are rising. Thus, it is important to correct **for** changes **in** prices. To do this, economists often value goods **at** the prices **at** which they sold **at in** some given year. **For** example, we might measure GNP **at** 1982 prices (often referred **to** as measuring GNP **in** 1982 dollars). This is then known as *real GNP*. GNP measured **at** current prices (**in** current dollars) is known as *nominal GNP*. This distinction **between** real and nominal variables arises time and again **in** macroeconomics.

Real and Nominal Variables

One **of** the most important distinctions **in** macroeconomics, and one that recurs **throughout** the textbook, is that **between** real and nominal variables. The distinction is actually very simple; acquiring the habit **of** keeping this distinction clear is more difficult, yet crucial **to** a good understanding **of** the economy. A nominal variable is measured **in** dollar terms. A real variable is measured **in** terms **of** goods (units **of** GNP). The difference matters whenever there is inflation or deflation. **In** times **of** inflation or deflation, the general price level is changing. Since the price level represents the price **of** a typical unit **of** GNP, changes **in** the price level represent changes **in** the dollar value **of** GNP, or, equivalently, changes **in** the real value **of** a dollar.

Foreign trade indicators for developing countries (LDCs)

The table gives a broad overview **of** the international trade experience **of** the LDCs **in** the post-war period. There was an increase **in** the rate **of** growth **of** export volume **between** the 1950s and the 1960s, but a

marked fall **in** the rate **of** growth **in** the 1970s, largely **owing to** the reduction **in** the volume **of** oil imports following the rise **in** oil prices. **For** the non-oil LDCs, the 1970s witnessed an acceleration **in** the rate **of** growth **of** export volume, but there was a fall **in** the purchasing power **of** exports **owing to** the deterioration **in** the terms **of** trade. The contrast **between** the experience **of** the fast growing exporters **of** manufactures and the least developed LDCs is especially noteworthy.

The share of major economic groupings

The table gives data **on** the share of the major economic groupings **in** world trade. **Between** 1950 and 1972, there was a dramatic fall **in** the share **of** all LDCs **in** world trade, but this trend was reversed **in** 1973 **with** the increase **in** oil prices. The share **of** the least-developed LDCs continued to fall, however.

Of particular importance are the changes that have occurred **in** the structure **of** LDC exports **in** the post-war period. The data **in** the table clearly show the doubling **in** the share **in** total exports **of** fuels and the three-fold increase **in** the share **of** manufactured goods. The shares **of** food and agricultural raw materials **in** total exports have fallen significantly.

Microeconomic Models for Macroeconomics

The last four chapters **of** the textbook emphasized the *microfoundations* **of** macroeconomics. Much modern work **in** macroeconomics has just such an emphasis. Microeconomics and macroeconomics both help us understand the economy but differ **in** their scale or level **of** aggregation. We thus want our macroeconomic and microeconomic models **of** the economy to be compatible; work **on** the microfoundations **of** macroeconomics is designed to ensure that macroeconomic analysis is consistent **with** good microeconomics. Such work also helps us to refine and improve our understanding **of** the macroeconomy, and offers the potential **for** further progress **in** macroeconomics.

Logarithms

In the data plotter option **of** the software accompanying the textbook, various transformations **of** the data are possible. One **of** these is to take the logarithm **of** a series. This is included because economists often find it more convenient to use natural logarithms to discuss growth rates. Logarithms, written either as log or e_n, are transformations **of** variables. The definition **of** the natural logarithm **of** variable, $e_n\ (x)$, is the log **to** the base $e = 2.71828...$: **in** other words, $e_n\ (x) = b$ implies that $e^b = x$. There is nothing very mysterious **about** logarithms; they are simply a convenient way **of** rescaling data series. A logarithm is just a function, like others we use in economics, but **with** some very useful properties.

In particular, suppose we take the logarithm **of** our earlier price series.

GSV

Мы начинаем непосредственно расписывать тексты EEAP, извлекая «кирпичик за кирпичиком» составляющие их GSV *collocations*. Чтобы облегчить задачу, уточним определение GSV через словарные значения входящего в аббревиатуру слова *general* по словарям синонимов и антонимов (антонимы = слова с противоположенным значением).

Так в *Oxford Thesaurus* выделяются 4 основные синонима к слову *general: usual, common, mixed, broad.* В качестве антонимов упоминаются *unusual, detailed, specific*. Следовательно, как мы и предлагали, *general ≠ specific*, то есть GSV, по определению, не содержит *specific*, в нашем случае *economic, terms.* Заметим, что антонимы часто помогают понять и уточнить значение и смысл слов, возможности их речеупотребления даже лучше, чем их синонимы.

to present a brief introduction to smth
to explain the sort of question that…
to introduce the concept of some model
to illustrate smth with a simple model
to discuss the role of smth in the model
the amount of introduction depending on smth
previous exposure of smth in principles or in other courses
to stress the relevance of smth relating to the course of smth
the importance of basic literacy
to emphasize the importance of smth
a way of thinking about some sets of facts
to try to convince smb that…
to understand smth without doing smth
to use common sense in smth
to improve some means of smth
to show the use of some tools and ideas
to explain how smth differs from smth in its level of smth

to work by using different models
to respond to different questions
a key element of some analysis
to think about smth as taking place in smth
the idea of smth as an abstract representation of a real smth
to analyze smth by thinking about smth
to use symbols to express concepts
to express smth more compactly
to indicate relations between/among (больше 2-х) some elements
to know much (little) about the exact nature of some relations
to illustrate the relation ships on the diagram
to put smth in parentheses and in terms of smth
to make decisions with implications for smth
to abstract from reality
to focus on the importance of smth
to do a couple of things in order to try and understand smth
instead of worring about smth
to denote smth by some symbols
to measure smth in terms of smth
to be a matter of explaining smth over time
to consider the definition of smth more carefully
coherent thinking about some issues
the previous analysis of smth
to represent smth in a simple setting
to judge smth in constructing that model
to be important in understanding smth
to decide implicitly
to include smth in a model
to have an effect on smth at any given X
to shift smth to the right/left
to be typical of smth
the way smb uses the model
to take smth from outside the model
to explaine smth with the model
to make use of ways of the same tools

the distinction between this and that as somewhat artificial
to be at times explicit and at other times implicit
without going into details about smth behind smth
to integrate different models into a coherent view of smth
to have smth in common with other scientists such as…
to understand the behavior of smth
to make progress in smth by looking at the data
to be consistent with other aspects of the data
to consider some foundation of smth
to proceed by applying smth to different models
to include and exclude the "right" features of the world
to make progress in smth by building models and by comparing those models to other data
to agree about the appropriate model for a given problem
to resolve some disputes in a neat and orderly way
to be not simply good enough or abundant enough to settle many of the important issues beyond dispute
to function without some (smb's) intervention
to survive numerous refinements of models

P.S. "smth" stands for specific/economic terms.

(Список открыт для постоянного пополнения).

> Было расписано менее четырех страниц оригинального, хорошо отредактированного теста EEAP. Дальше дело за читателями...

GSV с синонимами

Перед читателями мини-словарь синонимов GSV. Его можно рассматривать, с одной стороны, как *point for departure* при работе над самостоятельными EEAP *drafts* (не суть важно, устными или письменными, так как GSV универсален), с другой стороны, и как средство обогащения словарного запаса за счет дополнительных вариантов нейтральной общенаучной лексики. Заметим, что синонимы, как и субституты в экономике, редко оказываются *complete and absolute*, ими надо всегда пользоваться с осторожностью, помня о проблеме стилистической дифференциации *(formal – neutral – informal),* которую мы уже частично рассматривали в Выпуске 1 и к которой вернемся в дальнейшем.

Итак, абсолютные синонимы – не-стилистические – встречаются крайне редко. Терминам же синонимия часто вообще противопоказана. Терминологические синонимы и дуплеты могут нести особую, экстралингвистическую, нагрузку. В то же время, сложившаяся, устойчивая, однозначно воспринимаемая в профессиональном сообществе термино-система является одной из важнейших характеристик любой научной школы теоретической мысли, в нашем случае Economics.

to achieve (attain, reach) one's purpose (aim, objective)
to attack (tackle) a problem
to attract (call, direct, draw) smb's attention
to bear (show) a resemblance
to bear (stand) the test
to come into beeing (existence)
to come (fall) into disuse
to come (go) into effect
to come (go) into operation
to come to (arrive at, draw, reach) a conclusion
to exert (exercise, have, produce) influence (impact, effect) on

to give (convey) an idea of
to make (fall into) a mistake (error)
to make (exert, put into) efforts
to meet the case (demand, requirements)
to pave (clear) the way (ground)
to place (lay) emphasis (stress) on
to take (adopt, arrive at, come to, make) a decision
to take into account (consideration)
to take the form (shape) of
to take the opportunity of (occasion to)

Трудно было решить, где поместить выборки текстов EEAP. Norman E. Steenrod в своем академическом эссе, обращенном к молодым математикам, говорит так: «...the effectiveness of an expository effort depends so heavily on the knowledge and experience of the reader. A clean and exquisitely precise demonstration to one reader is a bore to another who has seen the like elsewhere».

Пусть тексты EEAP для бакалавров останутся на выбранных страницах, читатели могут сами определить, когда и в каком объеме с ними работать.

Sample EEAP Text 3

How People Make Decisions

- *People face tradeoffs:* Economists often say, «There is no such thing as a free lunch». This means that there are always tradeoffs – to get more of something we like, we have to give up something else that we like. For example, if you spend money on dinner and a movie, you won't be able to spend it on new clothes. Socially, we face tradeoffs as a group. For example, there is the classic tradeoff between «guns and butter». That is, if we decide to spend more on national defense (guns), then we will have less to spend on social programs (butter). There is also a social tradeoff between efficiency (getting the most from our scarce resources) and equity (benefits being distributed fairly across society). Policies such as taxes and welfare make incomes more equal but these policies reduce returns to hard work, and thus, the economy doesn't produce as much. As a result, when the government tries to cut the pie into more equal pieces, the pie gets smaller.
- *The cost of something is what you give up to get it:* The *opportunity cost* of an item is what you give up to get that item. It is the true

cost of the item. The opportunity cost of going to college obviously includes your tuition payment. It also includes the value of your time that you could have spent working, valued at your potential wage. It would exclude your room and board payment because you have to eat and sleep whether you are in school or not.

- *Rational people think at the margin:* Marginal changes are incremental changes to an existing plan. Rational decision makers only proceed with an action if the marginal benefit exceeds the marginal cost. For example, you should only go to another year of school if the benefits from that year of schooling exceed the cost of attending that year. A farmer should produce another bushel of corn only if the benefit (price received) exceeds the cost of producing it.
- *People respond to incentives:* Since rational people weigh marginal costs and benefits of activities, they will respond when costs or benefits change. For example, when the price of automobiles rises, buyers have an incentive to buy fewer cars while automobile producers have an incentive to hire more workers and produce more autos. Public policy can alter the costs or benefits of activities. For example, a luxury tax on expensive boats raises the price and discourages purchases. Some policies have unintended consequences because they alter behavior in a manner that was not predicted.

Sample EEAP Text 4

How People Interact

- *Trade can make everyone better off:* Trade is not a contest where one wins and one loses. Trade can make each trader better off. Trade allows each trader to specialize in what they do best, whether it be farming, building, or manufacturing, and trade their output for the output of other efficient producers. This is as true for countries as it is for individuals.
- *Markets are usually a good way to organize economic activity:* In a market economy, the decisions about what goods and services to produce, how much to produce, and who gets to consume them, are made by millions of firms and households. Firms and households, guided by self-interest, interact in the marketplace, where prices and quantities are determined. While this may appear like chaos, Adam Smith made the famous observation in the *Wealth of Nations* in 1776 that self-interested households and firms interact in markets and behave as if guided by an «invisible hand» to create desirable social outcomes. The prices generated by their competitive activity signal the value of costs and benefits to producers and consumers, whose activities unknowingly maximize the welfare of society. Alternatively, the prices dictated by central planners contain no information on costs and benefits, and therefore, these prices fail to efficiently guide economic activity. Prices also fail to efficiently guide economic activity when governments distort prices with taxes or restrict price movements with price controls.
- *Governments can sometimes improve market outcomes:* Sometimes government intervenes in the market to improve efficiency or equity. When markets fail to allocate resources efficiently, there has been *market failure.* There are many different sources of market failure. An *externality* is when the actions of one person affect the well-being of a bystander. Pollution is a standard example. *Market power* is when a single person or group can influence the price. In

these cases, the government may be able to intervene and improve economic efficiency. The government may also intervene to improve equity with income taxes and welfare. Sometimes well-intentioned policy intervention has unintended consequences.

Sample EEAP Texts 5

How the Economy as a Whole Works

- *A country's standard of living depends on its ability to produce goods and services:* There is great variation in average incomes in different countries at a point in time and in the same country over time. These differences in incomes and standards of living are largely attributable to differences in *productivity.* Productivity is the amount of goods and services produced by each hour of a worker's time. As a result, public policy intended to improve standards of living should improve education, generate more and better tools, and improve access to current technology. Government deficits depress growth because they absorb private saving which reduces society's investment in human capital (education) and physical capital (factories).
- *Prices rise when the government prints too much money:* Inflation is an increase in the overall level of prices in the economy. High inflation is costly to the economy. Large and persistent inflation is caused by rapid growth in the quantity of money. Therefore, policymakers wishing to keep inflation low should maintain slow growth in the quantity of money.
- *Society faces a short-run tradeoff between inflation and unemployment:* A reduction in inflation tends to increase unemployment. The short-run tradeoff between inflation and unemployment is known as the *Phillips curve.* When the government decreases the quantity of money in order to lower prices, many prices are *sticky* and don't fall right away. The smaller quantity of money reduces spending on output, so sales fall, and firms lay off workers. This effect is thought to be temporary. In the short run, policymakers may be able to affect the mix of inflation and unemployment by changing government spending, taxes, and the quantity of money.

Sample EEAP Text 6

The Economist as Scientist

- While economists don't use test tubes or telescopes, they are scientists because they employ the *scientific method* – the dispassionate and objective development and testing of theories.
- *The scientific method: observation, theory, and more observation:* Just as in other sciences, an economist observes an event, develops a theory, and collects data to test the theory. An economist observes inflation, creates a theory that excessive growth in money causes inflation, and then collects data on money growth and inflation to see if there is a relationship. Collecting data to test economic theories is difficult, however, because economists usually cannot create data from experiments. That is, economists cannot manipulate the economy just to test a theory. Therefore, economists often use data gathered from recent economic events.
- *The role of assumptions:* Assumptions are made to make the world easier to understand. A physicist assumes an object is falling in a vacuum when measuring acceleration due to gravity. This assumption is reasonably accurate for a marble but not for a beachball. An economist may assume that prices are fixed (can't be changed) or may assume that prices are flexible (can move up or down in response to market pressures). Since prices often cannot be changed quickly (the menu in a restaurant is expensive to change) but can be changed easily over time, it is reasonable for economists to assume that prices are fixed in the short run but flexible in the long run. The art of scientific thinking is deciding which assumptions to make.
- *Economic models:* Biology teachers employ plastic models of the human body. They are simpler than the actual human body, but that is what makes them useful. Economists use economic models that are composed of diagrams and equations. Economic models are based on assumptions and are simplifications of economic reality.

- *Our first model: the circular-flow diagram:* The circular-flow diagram shows the flow of goods and services, factors of production, and monetary payments between households and firms. Households sell the factors of production such as land, labor and capital to firms, in the market for factors of production. In exchange, the households receive wages, rent, and profit. They use these dollars to buy goods and services from firms, in the market for goods and services. The firms use this revenue to pay for the factors of production, and so on. This is a simplified model of the entire economy. This version of the circular flow diagram has been simplified because it excludes international trade and the government.
- *Our second model: the production possibilities frontier. A production possibilities frontier is a* graph that shows the combinations of output the economy can possibly produce given the available factors of production and the available production technology. It is drawn assuming the economy produces only two goods. This model demonstrates the following economic principles:
  - ✓ If the economy is operating on the production possibilities frontier, it is operating *efficiently* because it is producing a mix of output that is the maximum possible from the resources available.
  - ✓ Points inside the curve are therefore *inefficient.* Points outside the curve are currently unattainable.
  - ✓ If the economy is operating on the production possibilities frontier, we can see the *tradeoffs* society faces. To produce more of one good, it must produce less of the other. The amount of one good given up when producing more of another good is the *opportunity cost* of the additional production.
  - ✓ The production possibilities frontier is bowed outward because the opportunity cost of producing more of a good increases as we near maximum production of that good. This is because we use resources better suited toward production of

the other good in order to continue to expand production of the first good.

- ✓ A technological advance in production shifts the production possibilities frontier outward. This is a demonstration of *economic growth.*

- *Microeconomics and macroeconomics:* Economics is studied on various levels. Microeconomics is the study of how households and firms make decisions and how they interact in specific markets. Macroeconomics is the study of economy-wide phenomena such as the federal deficit, the rate of unemployment, and policies to improve our standard of living. Microeconomics and macroeconomics are related because changes in the overall economy arise from decisions of millions of individuals. Although related, the methods employed in microeconomics and macroeconomics differ enough that they are often taught in separate courses.

Sample EEAP Text 7

The Economist as Policymaker

When economists attempt to explain the world as it is, they act as scientists. When economists attempt to improve the world, they act as policymakers. Correspondingly, *positive statements* describe the world as it is, while *normative statements* prescribe how the world ought to be. Positive statements can be confirmed or refuted with evidence. Normative statements involve values (ethics, religion, political philosophy) as well as facts.

For example, «Money growth causes inflation» is a positive statement (of a scientist). «The government ought to lower inflation» is a normative statement (of a policymaker). The two statements are related because evidence about whether money causes inflation might help us decide what tool the government should use if it chooses to lower inflation.

Economists act as policymakers to the government in many different areas. The president is advised by economists on the Council of Economic Advisers, the Department of Treasury, the Department of Labor, and the Department of Justice. Congress is advised by economists from the Congressional Budget Office and the Federal Reserve.

Sample EEAP Text 8

Why Economists Disagree

There are three reasons why economists have a reputation for giving conflicting advice to policymakers:

- Economists may have different scientific judgments. That is, economists may disagree about the validity of alternative positive theories about how the world works. For example, economists differ in their views of the sensitivity of household saving to changes in the after-tax return to saving.
- Economists may have different values. That is, economists may have different normative views about what policy should try to accomplish. For example, economists differ in their views of whether taxes should be used to redistribute income.
- Some economists are charlatans and cranks. Crazy economic theories and economic fads are promoted by incompetent, self-proclaimed «economists». Often these theories say what politicians and people want to hear – taxes can be lower, government spending can be higher, and so on. When these policies fail, the public thinks that the economics profession is inept. Yet qualified economists never supported these theories to begin with.

In reality, although there are legitimate disagreements among economists on many issues, there is tremendous agreement on many basic principles of economics.

Economic disagreement is interesting but economic consensus is more important. Economists have a reputation for disagreeing with one another because we tend to highlight our differences. While our disagreements are interesting to us, the matters on which we agree are more important to you. There are a great number of economic principles for which there is near unanimous support from the economics profession. The aim of this text is to concentrate on the areas of agreement within the profession as opposed to the areas of disagreement.

Sample EEAP Text 9

Thinking Like an Economist

Our purpose is to familiarize you with how economists approach economic problems. With practice, you will learn how to approach similar problems in this dispassionate systematic way. You will see how economists employ the scientific method, the role of assumptions in model building, and the application of two specific economic models. You will also learn the important distinction between two roles economists can play: as scientists when we try to explain the economic world and as policymakers when we try to improve it.

Using Policy to Stabilize the Economy

Keynes (and his followers) argued that the government should actively use monetary and fiscal policies to stabilize aggregate demand and, as a result, output and employment.

The Employment Act of 1946 holds the Federal Government responsible for promoting full employment and production. The act has two implications: (1) The government should not be the cause of fluctuations; so it should avoid sudden changes in fiscal and monetary policy, and (2) the government should respond to changes in the private economy in order to stabilize it. For example, if consumer pessimism reduces aggregate demand, the proper amount of expansionary monetary or fiscal policy could stimulate aggregate demand to its original level, thereby avoiding a recession. Alternatively, if excessive optimism increases aggregate demand, contractionary monetary or fiscal policy could dampen aggregate demand to its original level, thereby avoiding inflationary pressures. Failure to actively stabilize the economy may allow for unnecessary fluctuations in output and employment.

Some economists argue that the government should not use monetary and fiscal policy to try to stabilize short-run fluctuations in the economy. While they agree that, in theory, activist policy can stabilize the economy, they feel that, in practice, monetary and fiscal policy affect

the economy with a substantial lag. The lag for monetary policy is at least six months so it may be hard for the Fed to "fine tune" the economy. Fiscal policy has a long political lag because it takes months or years to pass spending and taxation legislation. These lags mean that activist policy could be destabilizing because expansionary policy could accidentally increase aggregate demand during periods of excessive private aggregate demand, and contractionary policy could accidentally decrease aggregate demand during periods of deficient private aggregate demand.

Automatic stabilizers are changes in fiscal policy that automatically stimulate aggregate demand in a recession so that policymakers do not have to take deliberate action. The tax system automatically lowers tax collections during a recession when incomes and profits fall. Government spending automatically rises during a recession because unemployment benefits and welfare payments rise. Hence, both the tax and government spending systems increase aggregate demand during a recession. A strict balanced budget rule would eliminate automatic stabilizers because the government would have to raise taxes or lower expenditures during a recession.

If there is to be activist monetary policy, most economists believe that the Federal Reserve will make better decisions if it continues to be politically independent. This is because it is politically difficult to increase interest rates and reduce aggregate demand when the economy is overheating (temporarily operating above the natural rate) but it may be necessary in order to avoid future inflation.

LANGUAGE INPUT 2

Грамматико-синтаксическая платформа нейтральной EEAP речи

Мы подошли к следующему «фокусу» нашего Навигатора для бакалавров Economics – грамматико-синтатиксической организации нейтральной EEAP речи – и готовы сделать возможно несколько неожиданное для читателей предварительное утверждение. Оно оправдано лингвистическое теорией и многократно подкреплено имеющейся языковой практикой.

Для текстов EEAP не столь существенна полная система времен личных форм английского глагола. Изменение по временам, безусловно, есть, но ограниченное и предсказуемое. Можно говорить, что это *irrelevant characteristic of EEAP*. Всему виной (спасибо ему!) повествовательный монолог. Он, *other things constant,* тяготеет к повествовательному настоящему *(narrative present)*, четко соотнося прошедшие времена с ретроспективой, а будущие – с прогнозом. В Выпуске III читатели смогут убедиться в этом на большом показательном массиве образцовых произведений EEAP речи самых именитых англоязычных экономистов, пишущих для самых авторитетных экономических изданий.

Пока же, на данном отрезке академического маршрута, для читателей вывод должен быть предсказуем. Больше времени и усилий /если это еще не пройденный для них этап/ стоит потратить на все нижеперечисленное в Grammar for EEAP, а именно: неличные формы глагола, сложные случаи употребления пассивных, модальных, сослагательных конструкций, разные виды сложноподчиненного предложения etc.

Прежде чем пугаться и бежать за учебниками грамматики, начитайтесь экономических примеров. Не пытаясь дословно переводить, пробуйте пересказывать суть, уяснять экономический смысл прочитанного. А вот в том случае, если пересказ, интерпретация *doesn't make sense* даже на собственный взгляд, тогда – за грамматические учебники-справочники, желательно написанные на английском языке.

Grammar for EEAP с примерами

Passive Voice
Infinitive
Complex Subject
Complex Object
Participle
Gerund
Modal verbs
Conditionals
Complex sentence

PASSIVE VOICE

The government decides production and consumption. In practice it decides what **will be produced**, how it **will be produced** and also for whom it **will be produced**.

The state also decides how goods **should be produced** and how much people should work.

The entire demand curve has shifted to the right, and this is because a higher **quantity is demanded** at each price.

INFINITIVE

Again, of course, economists use the term excess supply **to mean** excess in the quantity supplied at this price.

Now, there is one more thing **to be said** at this stage.

The government has set up an official committee **to decide** national economic policy.

The employers have prepared a special scheme to **be approved** by the government.

COMPLEX SUBJECT

The recommendation **is reported to have been adopted** by the overwhelming majority.

Since the possibility of raising export prices **is thought to be very limited** industrialists fear that there will be a sharp drop in the trade between these countries.

We seem **to be agreed** on everything.

The firm **is reported to have been subject** to intensive "speed-up" methods.

COMPLEX OBJECT

In this example, I **want you to note down** this term.

Now **I want you to try** to draw up your own figure from information I've given you on this sheet.

The country **expects its citizens to share** in governing the country.

Hence when the price level doubles, other things equal we **expect the demand for nominal money balances to double.**

PARTICIPLE I

Now look at the **corresponding** change in the quantity of tickets demanded, in the next column.

Using our model, our theoretical model, we could predict that the reason our crosses lie to the left of the line depends on real taxi fare.

When deciding production targets, a government must establish its priorities very clearly.

Having mentioned the effect of government tax policy on the income distribution, we now examine in greater detail the role of the government in society.

PARTICIPLE II

Gross National Product (GNP) is the value of all goods and services **produced** in the economy.

Britain has an economic system **based** on private enterprise and private supplies of capital, which csn be defined as surplus income available for investment in new business activities.

Transfer payments are payments **made** to individuals without requiring the provision of any service in return.

GERUND

The government controls a share of the output through taxation, transfer payments and **providing** services such as the police.

Well, producers must get their money back, the money they've spent **on producing** these 100 million chocolate bars.

By considering the effects of price cuts of two pounds fifty we can calculate the price elasticity of demand at each price.

In studing economics it is important to distinguish two branches of the subject.

By moving on to the production possibility frontier, society could have more of some good **without having** less of any other good.

Before dismissing changes that shift supply curves, we discuss in greater detail why changes in price increase the quntity supplied, **holding** constant all other factors.

Holding money is not the same as spending money when we buy a meal or go to the cinema.

Levying a tariff will reduce the world price of the good by moving foreign suppliers down their supply curve as their output falls

MODEL VERBS

As you **must have noticed**, some goods go up in price more sharply their offers.

We **might be able to** show that failure to subsidize the medical bills leads middle-aged people to seek a lot of unnecessary medical check-ups.

Society **might have to devote** a great deal of resources to providing check-up facilities.

However, we **need not classify** branches of economics according to the area of economic life.

Without writing down a model, we **might have forgotten** about the influence of bus fares on tube journeys.

A fuller understanding of economics **should** enable you both to understand and to evaluate our economy.

If so, the effect of regulation **will be to shift** the supply curve to the left, reducing quantity supplied at each price.

By now you **may be asking** yourself, «Why should I study economics?»

You **may be wondering** if it is a coincidence that we have drawn any indifference curves that cross each other.

CONDITIONALS

If the Bank **sells** securities directly to the banking system, banks cash resourses **are immediatly reduced**.

If employees **anticipated** new and better working conditions, they **might increase** their productivity.

Without making these payments, farmers **would not have been able** to attract temporary student labour resourses.

If all transaction **were** perfectly synchronized, we **would earn** revenue from sales of goods and income from sales of factor services.

If we **had foreseen** the configency **we would have had** plenty of time to cash in interest - earning bonds to have money available.

If we **did not have** to take advantage of the transactions opportunity immediately, it **would not matter** that it was inforseen: we could still cash in our bonds.

I **would do** the same if I **were** in your shoes.

COMPLEX SENTENCE

Once we've reached this point, we can sketch how the chocolate market makes this transition from the old equilibrium at E to the new equilibrium.

Whereas the previous two methods of monetary control operate by altering the value of the money multiplier, open market operations alter the monetary base.

Since banks lose cash reserves, they have to reduce deposit lending and the money supply falls.

Given that people like good society should want to produce efficiently.

Once people have discovered a better production method they are unlikely subsequently to forget it.

Whenever government regulation prevent producers from selecting the production methods they would otherwise have chosen, the effect of these regulation is to shift the supply curve to the left.

Since consumers prefer more to less, an additional meal tends to increase utility.

Since every international transaction has both a buyer and a seller, one country's imports must be another country's exports.

What I mean by that is that if the initial price below the equilibrium price, say twenty pence, the quantity demanded is 120 millions less.

Whether on balance high taxes make people work more or (less remains an open question.

Whatever our political persuasien, **whatever** our view about what we would regard as 'a good thing', in the first instance we have to be concerned with how the world actually works.

> У читателей помимо данных несложных примеров и небольших текстов на страницах 18–22, будут в распоряжении еще несколько ситуаций на странице 64, которые можно рекомендовать для более серьезной проработки Grammar for EEAP. Наглядно увидеть ее функционирование можно также, читая и анализируя с этой точки зрения тексты Samples. Они все достойны внимания пользователей как в плане экономического содержания, так и по форме языкового выражения и степени отредактированности. На подобных образцах EEAP речи можно учиться – легко и эффективно.

Sample EEAP Text 10

This *Study Guide* was written to accompany N. Gregory Mankiw's *Principles of Economics.* It was written with only one audience in mind – you, the student. We recognize that your time is scarce, and you wish to use your time productively. Therefore, to utilize your time most efficiently, this *Study Guide* focuses strictly on the material presented in Mankiw's *Principles of Economics* and avoids the introduction of new material.

Objectives of the *Study Guide*

There are three broad objectives to the *Study Guide.* First, the *Study Guide* reinforces the text and improves your understanding of the material presented in the text. Second, it provides you with experience in using economic theories and tools to solve actual economic problems. That is, this *Study Guide* bridges the gap between economic concepts and economic problem solving. This may be the most important objective of the *Study Guide* because those students who find economics inherently logical often think that they are prepared for exams just by reading the text or attending lectures. However, it is one thing to watch an economist solve a problem in class and another thing altogether to solve a problem alone. There is simply no substitute for hands-on experience. Third, the *Study Guide* includes a self-test to validate areas of successful learning and to highlight areas needing improvement.

It is unlikely that you will truly enjoy any area of study if you fail to understand the material, or if you lack confidence when taking tests over the material. It is our hope that this *Study Guide* improves your understanding of economics and improves your test performance so that you are able to enjoy economics as much as we do.

Use of the *Study Guide*

We hesitate to suggest a method for using this *Study Guide* because how one best uses a study guide is largely a personal matter. It depends

on your preferences and talents and on your instructor's approach to the material. We will, however, discuss a few possible approaches, and trial and error may help you sort out an approach that best suits you.

Some students prefer to read an entire chapter in the text prior to reading the *Study Guide.* Others prefer to read a section in the text and then read the corresponding section in the Chapter Overview portion of the *Study Guide.* This second method may help you focus your attention on the most important aspects of each section in the text. Some students who feel particularly confident after reading the text may choose to take the Self-Test immediately. We do not generally support this approach. We suggest that you complete all of the practice problems and short-answer questions before you attempt the Self-Test. You will receive more accurate feedback from the Self-Test if you are well prepared prior to taking it.

A study guide is not a substitute for a text any more than *Cliff Notes* are a substitute for a classic novel. Use this *Study Guide* in conjunction with Mankiw's *Principles of Economics,* not in place of it.

Sample EEAP Text 11

Advanced Critical Thinking (a)

Before World War II, the corporate income tax was the second largest revenue source for the federal government, behind only the individual income tax. In recent decades it has fallen in importance to a distant third behind federal payroll taxes. In spite of the movement away from this tax, the general public continues to support the corporate income tax under the belief that rich corporations should pay their share of the tax burden. On the other hand, some critics argue that the corporate income tax could be integrated into the individual income tax by eliminating the corporate tax and raising individual income tax rates to make up for the lost tax revenue. They argue that equity and efficiency could be improved and the tax system streamlined by combining both income taxes into a single individual income tax.

What do you think? Would corporations get away without paying their fair share of taxes if the two income taxes were combined? Who really pays business taxes? The corporations themselves. Write a critique of the corporate income tax, addressing the issues raised by both the critics and the supporters. Be sure to include the following issues: vertical and/or horizontal equity, administrative costs, and deadweight losses. Conclude with a summary evaluation of the prospects for integrating the corporate and individual income taxes.

Advanced Critical Thinking (b)

The corporate income tax is an inefficient way to raise revenue for the federal government. As the revenues decline, the administrative costs for the government and the taxpayers continue. In some cases, the administrative cost to the taxpayers is actually greater than the tax payment itself. This is not efficient. Integrating the corporate tax into the individual income tax with the same revenue yield would eliminate an entire layer of bureaucracy and administrative cost. Generating the same revenue from the individual income tax would reduce the distor-

tion caused by taxing some businesses (corporations), but not others. This additional taxation of corporations distorts their behavior. Eliminating the corporate tax would end a distortion of behavior caused by treating incorporated and unincorporated businesses differently. On equity grounds, the corporate income tax is ambiguous, mainly because we cannot agree entirely on who pays it. We do know, however, that it is not rich corporations that pay the tax. Corporations are neither rich nor poor. Only people pay taxes. When a corporation is taxed, the tax may be shifted to consumers in the form of higher prices, or workers in the form of lower wages, or owners (stockholders) in the form of lower profits leading to lower dividends and lower value of their shares of stock. Under the individual income tax, the degree of progressivity is controlled by society in setting tax rates. Under the corporate tax, the market controls tax incidence, which makes it harder for policymakers to achieve vertical and horizontal equity goals.

Sample EEAP Text 12

Why Study Macroeconomics?

Economics is the study of the economy and the behavior of people in the economy. Traditionally, economics is divided into microeconomics, which studies the behavior of individuals and organizations (consumers, firms, and the like) at a disaggregated level, and macroeconomics, which studies the overall or aggregate behavior of the economy. Since our concern here is with macroeconomics, we seek to explain phenomena such as inflation, unemployment, and economic growth and we are not concerned with, say, the demand for or supply of peanuts.

In macroeconomics, we try to do two things. First, we want to understand the economic functioning of the world we live in; and, second, we want to see if we can do anything to improve the performance of the economy. That is, we are concerned with both analysis and explanation, as well as with policy prescriptions.

Explanation involves an attempt to understand the behavior of economic variables, both at a moment in time and as time passes. Modern macroeconomics recognizes that it is important to focus on more than just short periods of time, and so has an explicitly dynamic focus. We thus try to explain the behavior of economic variables over time. This means that we wish to explain the behavior of the economy both in the *long run* and in the *short run.*

Sample EEAP Text 13

The Science of Macroeconomics (Comments)

The amount of introduction that is required naturally depends upon the students' previous exposure to macroeconomics in principles or in other courses. I try to stress the relevance of macroeconomics and the importance of basic macroeconomic literacy. I emphasize that macroeconomics teaches a way of thinking about and understanding the economy rather than a set of facts. I also try to convince the students that it is impossible to understand the economy without using models (one way to do this is to show how common sense can sometimes lead us astray – an example from the textbook is that protectionist policies don't improve the trade balance).

The supply-demand model provides a vehicle to explain the role of microeconomics in macroeconomics, and to show how macroeconomics uses many tools and ideas from microeconomics. The lecture notes emphasize this and also explain how macroeconomics differs from microeconomics in its level of aggregation and in that it has more of a general-equilibrium focus. The textbook works as do economists, by using different models to answer different questions, but I reassure students that I also emphasize how different models fit together.

Sample EEAP Text 14

Gregory Mankiw's *Macroeconomics* is an exciting new textbook, in which you will learn how to apply a variety of economic models to some fascinating macroeconomic questions. Although these models are not complicated, it is easy initially to become confused about the relationships they represent, and consequently not to fully appreciate their power and usefulness. I have found that students understand the underlying concepts much better if they actively take part in constructing economic models and applying them. This Student Guide provides a variety of ways to engage you in this type of active learning.

The bulk of the Student Guide consists of a series of **Exercises** for each chapter. These exercises contain step-by-step presentations and applications of the models discussed in the textbook. You will be asked to complete tables of data, plot graphs, and illustrate shifts in curves. The exercises can be answered entirely in the Student Guide. When you are given a choice of two or more underlined alternatives, circle the correct one. The only mathematics required in this section is simple algebra and an understanding of the slopes of lines.

The **Problems** ask you to apply the models on your own. I have made a concerted effort to include problems on policy-oriented questions from both the United States and abroad. These problems are similar to the questions you might expect to be asked on an examination.

Most chapters include one or two **Data Questions,** in which you are required to find actual economic data to answer a specific economic questions.

Questions to Think About often go beyond the material presented in the textbook and ask you to think critically about the model itself or some application of the model. This material will probably not be covered in class and it will almost never appear on an examination, but your professor would be thrilled if you told him or her that you were interested in discussing it (and he or she believed you!). I should warn you, however, that good economists disagree about the correct answers to some of these questions. Consequently, no answers are provided.

However, developing your ability to think critically will enhance your education in macroeconomics, so I encourage you to undertake some of these questions.

Although you may want to complete all the questions for each chapter, you may be limited by time constraints. The Exercises have been especially helpful for most of my students, but you should decide which questions are most helpful for you. I can assure you, however, that your understanding of macroeconomics will be substantially deeper and longer-lasting if you complete most of the Student Guide.

Most chapters include one or two **Data Questions,** in which students are required to obtain actual economic data to answer a specific economic question. I think it is important to have economic students capable of making reasonable estimates of the current inflation rate, unemployment rate, and gross national product. The data for all of these questions are contained in *The Economic Report of the President.* Although many students will have access to computerized data bases, I will be satisfied if my students know how to use this valuable reference book five years after graduation. Answers are provided for only part of each question. This lets your student know whether he or she is looking at the right table but doesn't eliminate the need to find the correct data.

In the last section, several *Questions to Think About* go beyond the material presented in the textbook. By including this section, I hope to motivate the talented and industrious students to think more deeply about the models themselves and their applications. Although I rarely have enough time to cover this material in class, I have a number of special lunches each term and invite any students who wish to discuss these questions. You may want to cover some of them if time permits.

I hope you and your students find the Student Guide to be useful in developing their knowledge and skills.

Sample EEAP Text 15

The Use of Economic Models

A key element of economic analysis – both microeconomic and macroeconomic – is the study of *markets* and *prices.* In an economy, goods are traded and exchanged. We think about this as taking place in markets. The economist's idea of a market is an abstract representation of a real market, where, for example, farmers might bring their produce for sale. Economists analyze markets by thinking about suppliers and demanders of goods. As an example, consider the market for bread. Thinking first about the supply of bread, an economist might posit that the amount of bread that bakers will put up for sale depends upon the price of bread – the higher the price, the more bread bakers will supply. Also, an economist might think that the supply of bread depends upon the cost of the materials the baker uses – most importantly, flour. The higher the cost of flour, the less bread bakers will supply. Turning to the demand for bread, an economist might think that the amount of bread that consumers will want to buy will depend upon the price of bread and on consumers' aggregate income.

How do we put all this together? Economists use mathematics – particularly graphs and algebra – to help understand the economy. For example, we have thus far said two things:

1. The supply of bread depends upon the price of bread and the price of flour.

2. The demand for bread depends upon the price of bread and aggregate income. A mathematician uses symbols to express concepts such as these more compactly:

$$1.\ Q^{s} = S(P_b, P_f);$$

$$2.\ Q^{d} = Z>(P_b, Y).$$

Here S() and *D()* are *functions:* they indicate relationships among variables. Q^{a}, Q^{d}, P_b, P_f and Y are *variables,* denoting the quantity of bread supplied, the quantity of bread demanded, the price of bread, the price

of flour, and aggregate income, respectively. An example of a supply function is

$$Q^S = 15P_b - 2P_f$$

Another example is

$$Q^S > = 13(P_b/P_f).$$

Very often in economics, we do not know very much about the exact nature of the relationships among variables, and so we prefer the general functional notation used earlier.

We can illustrate these relationships on a diagram. This diagram shows that the supply of bread increases with the price of bread, and the demand for bread decreases with the price of bread. To remind us that the quantity of bread supplied also depends upon the price of flour, P_f is sometimes put in parentheses when we label the supply curve. Similarly, we sometimes put Y in parentheses when we label the demand curve to remind us that demand also depends upon income.

If we suppose that the price of bread adjusts so that demand equals supply, we add an *equilibrium condition* to our representation of the bread market:

In terms of the graph, this is equivalent to looking for the point where the supply and demand curves meet. We return to this example shortly.

The economy is a complicated system. Every day, millions of people make economic decisions. They buy their morning coffee, they buy lunch, they withdraw money from their checking accounts, they go to movies, they buy clothes, and they sell old textbooks. All of these are economic decisions with implications for the economy. If someone buys a Molson beer from Canada instead of a Budweiser, that makes a difference to the trade deficit. In macroeconomics, we are trying to understand the way that the whole economy works. But obviously we cannot consider every individual transaction in every market in the economy. Instead, we have to simplify; we have to abstract from reality; we have to focus on what is important and discard what is unimportant.

In order to try and understand the economy and focus on what is important, we do a couple of things. First, we *aggregate.* Instead of wor-

rying about individual goods – bread, pizza, automobiles, peanuts, and the like – we think about some aggregate of them all. We call this good *real GNP,* and denote it by the symbol *Y.* GNP stands for *Gross National Product.* It is a measure of the total production in the economy; indeed, explaining the behavior of the economy is largely a matter of explaining the behavior of real GNP over time. We consider the definition of GNP more carefully later.

The second thing we do is to build *models.* Models are abstractions from reality that serve as frameworks of analysis. Just as aerospace engineers build model planes to put in a wind tunnel and judge that these models need not be equipped with "fasten seat belt" signs, but should be equipped with wings, so economists construct representations of the economy that include important variables and exclude unimportant variables. Many different sciences, such as meteorology, physics, and biology use models. In economics, as in many other sciences, the models with which we work are usually mathematical. We develop mathematical explanations of the economy and use algebra and graphs to help us understand how the economy works. The aim of macroeconomics and this textbook is not so much to provide facts about macroeconomics as to give a framework of analysis for coherent thinking about macroeconomic issues.

The previous analysis of the bread market is an example of a model. This model represents the determination of the equilibrium price and quantity traded in a simple setting. In constructing that model, we judged that the price of bread, the price of flour, and aggregate income are all important in understanding the demand for and supply of bread; we implicitly decided that all other variables were less important and could be left out. Knowing what to include and what not to include in a model is the art of the economist; it requires judgment and skill.

We can use the model of the bread market to answer certain questions. For example, we might wonder what effect an increase in consumers' incomes might have on the price of bread. An increase in income would imply that at any given P_b, consumers would demand more bread. The demand curve would shift to the right. Thus we see that price and quantity both rise. Similarly an increase in the price of flour

would cause the supply curve to shift in, raising the equilibrium price of bread and lowering the quantity traded.

This experiment is typical of the way economists use a model. They change one variable, taken as given, and look at the effect on other variables that the model explains. Variables taken as given from outside the model are known as *exogenous* variables; variables explained within the model are known as *endogenous* variables. A typical experiment with an economic model thus involves changing an exogenous variable and looking at the effect on endogenous variables. This is known as a *comparative static* experiment.

Sample EEAP Text 16

The Role of Microeconomics in Macroeconomics

Although microeconomics and macroeconomics are separate aspects of economic inquiry, they make use of many of the same tools. Indeed, the distinction between macroeconomics and microeconomics, though useful, is also somewhat artificial. Modern macroeconomics recognizes that good macroeconomic analysis is usually based on sound microeconomics and thus emphasizes the *microfoundations* of macroeconomic behavior. At times in the textbook the use of microeconomic tools is explicit; at other times it is implicit. For example, we often suppose that individuals' consumption depends upon their income (as in the bread example) without going into details about the microeconomics behind the choices they make.

Macroeconomists use many different models because different models are appropriate for different questions. If we want to understand the effects of government deficits on interest rates, for example, we would not want to use a model that included the price of flour. An important aim of the textbook is to demonstrate economists' methods of analysis and use of models, and so the textbook works as economists do, by using different models to answer different questions. Part of the skill of being an economist is learning how to integrate these different models into a coherent view of the economy.

Sample EEAP Text 17

Flexible Versus Sticky

We noted earlier that macroeconomics is concerned with both explanation and policy recommendations. Not surprisingly, much of the debate among macroeconomists has to do with their different views on policy. Essentially, these debates often come down to whether or not the economy, left on its own, does a good job of allocating resources, or if government intervention can improve upon the performance of the economy. This theme recurs throughout our analysis.

In trying to understand the role of policy in macroeconomics, our conclusions depend crucially on what we believe about the behavior of prices. In our example of the bread market, we supposed that the price of bread adjusted to equate supply and demand – we supposed that the market *cleared.* In this case, the market does a good job of matching up suppliers and demanders, and no mutually beneficial trades fail to occur. In some markets, prices are indeed very flexible, but in other markets, we have much less confidence that market clearing occurs at all times. Instead, we think that some prices are *sticky* – slow to adjust. For example, labor contracts often set wages for a number of years in advance, and mail-order catalogs post prices that are set for a number of months.

Economists thus usually think that, for macroeconomics, it is reasonable to suppose that prices are completely flexible in the long run only. In the short run, we often make an assumption of price stickiness to help us explain the behavior of the economy.

One other difference between microeconomics and macroeconomics is worth some discussion. In microeconomics, we usually focus on a single market. In macroeconomics, we pay attention to how outcomes in one market affect what goes on in another market. For example, we often think about both the market for goods – real GNP – and the market for labor. Firms hire workers in order to produce goods. The more goods firms want to produce, the more workers they will want to hire. So an increase in the demand for goods may translate into an increased

demand for workers. Similarly, the wages that workers are paid are used to buy goods, so outcomes in the labor market can affect the demand for goods. All of these things are going on at once, so we need to be able to think about a lot of markets at once. Macroeconomics develops a way of putting markets together. In economists' terminology, much of macroeconomics has a *general-equilibrium* focus, in contrast to microeconomics which tends to have a *partial-equilibrium* focus.

Macroeconomists face difficulties as scientists, because they cannot run experiments. (They have this in common with some other scientists, such as paleontologists or astronomers.) But our aim as macroeconomists is to understand the behavior of the economy, which means understanding the behavior of economic data. We make progress in macroeconomics by looking at the data, observing certain patterns, building models that may help explain those patterns, and then seeing if those models are consistent with other aspects of the data or new data when it comes in. A first task, therefore, is to examine the data of macroeconomics. We then proceed to develop models that explain the behavior of the economy in the long run, when prices are flexible. Following this, we consider models of the economy in the short run, when prices are sticky. Finally, we consider the microeconomic foundations of macroeconomics in greater detail.

LANGUAGE INPUT 3

Лексико-синтаксическая вариантность нейтральной EEAP речи

Sentence adverbs с EEAP примерами

Some adverbs used at the beginning of a sentence refer to the whole sentence. They show how the sentence which follows relates to the rest of the text. Using these sentence adverbs and adverbials makes your writing easier to read because you show the reader the connections between one part of your text and another. Here are some of the most important expressions which do this:

Accordingly,
Admittedly,
All in all,
All things considered,
Alternatively,
Anyway,
Apparently,
As a (general) rule,
As a result,
As far as we know,
Astonishingly,
At the same time,

Basically,
Briefly,
Broadly,
By and large,
By contrast,

Characteristically,
Clearly,
Coincidentally,
Conveniently,
Conversely,
Curiously,

Disappointingly,

Equally,
Essentially,
Even so,
Eventually,
Explicitly,

Finally,
Firstly,
Fortunately,
Fundamentally,
Funnily enough,
Furthermore,

Generally speaking,

Hopefully,
However,

Incredibly,
Interestingly,
Ironically,
In addition,
In conclusion,
In consequence,
In contrast,
In that case,
In essence,
In fairness,
In general,
In many/some cases,
In other words,
In a nutshell,
In particular,
In practice,
In reality,
In retrospect,
In short,
In spite of this/that,
In theory,
In the same way,
In these circumstances,
In view of this,

Luckily,
Lastly,

Meanwhile,
Moreover,
More interest-
ingly/seriously/specifically,

Naturally,
Nevertheless,
Nonetheless,

Obviously,
Officially,
On average,
On balance,
On reflection,
On the contrary,
On the one hand,
On the other hand,
On the whole,
Overall,

Paradoxically,
Personally,
Potentially,
Predictably,
Presumably,
Primarily,
Probably,
Put simply,

Remarkably,

Sadly,
Secondly,
Seemingly,
Significantly,
Similarly,
Subsequently,
Surprisingly,

Theoretically,
Therefore,

Thus,
To all intents and purposes,
To put it briefly,
To put it bluntly,
To put it crudely,
To put it in a nutshell,
To summaries (the situation),
To sum up,
Typically,

Ultimately,
Unbelievably,
Understandably,
Undoubtedly,
Unfortunately,

With hindsight,

Admittedly, naming each assumption in a way that suggests its content is not always possible, especially in technical fields.
Alternatively, it may be motivated by fairness considerations: the household should derive some benefit from an increase in the resources it has earned.
Conversely, it may be precisely because they are covered by your theory that certain proofs can go through.
Moreover, if you use numerical examples instead of algebraic notation, you may lose track of units of measurements, making it harder to check the correctness of expressions.
On the other hand, you probably will want to assume continuity of preferences because specifying a noncontinuous example would take too much space or time and would distract readers from the heart of definition.
Similarly, illustrating a general phenomenon with a perhaps incomplete specified geometric example is more informative than using a complete argument based on a particular numerical example.
Similarly, when you introduce a requirement on an allocation rule, think about whether it would make sense if it were imposed on its own, or whether it mainly justified in the presence of other requirements.
Unfortunately, what you call x is what your reader has been calling m since graduate school.

Text adverbs

> In academic English, we sometimes indicate the field to which the following text applies by using adverbs such as the following:

commercially
ecologically
financially
logically
numerically
psychologically
socially
technically
culturally
economically
ideologically
morally
politically
scientifically
statistically
traditionally

Transitions: Single Words and Phrases

a. To show an «and» relation

additionally
again
along with this / that
also
alternatively
as a matter of fact
besides
finally
first
for example
for instance
furthermore
in addition
incidentally
indeed
in fact
in other words
in the same way
likewise
that is

b. To show a «but» relation

actually
anyhow
anyway
as a matter of fact
at any rate
despite this / that
even so
however
in any case
in either case
in spite of this /that
instead of this/that
nevertheless
nonetheless
on the contrary
on the other hand
rather
still

c. To show a «why / because» relation

accordingly
arising out of this / that
as a result
because of this / that
consequently
for this / that reason
hence
in consequence
in such an event
in this / that case
on account of this / that
otherwise
then
therefore
this / that being so
thus
to this end

d. To show a «time / sequence» relation

at last
at the same time
before this / that
briefly
first(ly)
from now on
henceforth
hitherto
in conclusion
in short
in sum
in summary
in the end
in the meantime
just then
meanwhile
next
on another occasion
previously
second(ly)
then
third(ly) fourth(ly), etc
fourthly, etc.) to resume
to return to the point
to summarize under the circumstances until then up to now

Анализ экономического текста в терминах EEAP

(Комментарий д.э.н. Н.М. Розановой)

Мы принимаем и поддерживаем академические усилия тех университетских наставников, представителей *economic community,* которые, сами обладая как *competence in Economics,* так и *command of the English language,* стремятся поделиться с подопечными не только специальным экономическим знанием, но и своими практическими наблюдениями и опытом использования EEAP. Безусловно, трактовки, акценты, комментарии экономиста и лингвиста могут быть особыми, но всегда усилия *interdisciplinary teams* в итоге благотворны для слушателей. *(Печатается в авторской редакции)*

Для выражения сходства *(similarities)* экономических явлений при сравнении используются словосочетания: оба *(both X and Y have...)*, схожие *(X and Y are similar, are alike)*, подобно *(like, very much the same)*, более-менее одни и те же (X is more or less the same as Y), практически, почти такие же *(X is virtually, practically, almost, nearly, approximately, about, quite the same as Y)*, в точности такие же *(X is exactly, precisely, just, entirely the same as Y)*.

Несхожесть экономических явлений подчеркивается выражениями: *dissimilar in that, different*. Или целым предложением: *X is totally (completely, entirely, quite) different from Y; X is not the same as Y*.

Количественные сопоставления между феноменами экономической сферы могут быть охарактеризованы с помощью словсравнений: больше *(bigger, larger than)* – меньше *(smaller than)* и дополнительных наречий усиления-ослабления: значительно *(considerably, a great deal, very much, quite a lot)*, в определенной сте-

пени *(rather, somewhat)*, незначительно *(a little, slightly, scarcely, hardly, only just)*.

Слова, указывающие на приблизительный характер статистической информации: около *(over, under, a little, about, approximately)*, главным образом *(predominantly, mainly, the majority of, most of the)*, в общем *(generally)*. Степень уверенности может распределяться от безусловности, 100-процентной надежности *(certainly, definitely, undoubtedly, clearly, presumably)* к средней вероятности *(probably, likely, conceivably, possibly, perhaps, maybe)* до невозможности *(uncertain, unlikely)*.

Ссылки на чужие авторитеты: говорят *(it is said that)*; предположили, что *(it has been suggested that)*; общепринято *(it is generally agreed that; it is widely accepted that; it is generally recognised that)*.

Экономические тексты по преимуществу имеют дело с разного рода взаимосвязями. Определение связи между двумя величинами или концепциями может быть охарактеризовано таким образом: *X is concerned with (deals with, relates to, involves) Y*. Если одно явление является причиной другого, то это подчеркивается либо как: *X causes (results in, leads to, produces) Y – X* ведет к *Y;* либо так: *the cause of Y, the reason for Y is X*.

Когда внимание уделяется автору сообщения, целесообразно дать соответствующую конструкцию непосредственно: автор *(the author)* представляет *(gives; provides; presents)*; изучает *(studies; examines; analyses; investigates)*; рассматривает *(considers; discusses; outlines; tackles; describes)* причину и характер проблемы *(the nature and origins of the problem)*; взаимосвязь между *(the relationship between)*; тщательный анализ *(a refined analysis)*; новые тенденции *(the new trends in)*. Помимо этого, автор может делать следующее: *the author advances a hypothesis of; makes uses of the theory; uses information regarding; furthers the theory of; gives analysis to show how; does not give details of the method; gives data sources used for; provides complete (convincing, adequate, satisfactory) explanation; pays little regard for; attaches considerable significance to; adopts the empirical method because; takes the standard*

view; intends to present the material on; offers an argument stating that; calls attention to the fact that; summarizes the results of.

Для отражения классификации явлений и предметов экономической жизни используются слова: критерий *(criterion)*, базис *(basis)*, черты *(features)*, характеристики *(characteristics)*. Заметим, что первые два слова в английском языке ведут свое происхождение из латинского языка и сохранили во множественном числе латинскую структуру: критерии *(criteria)*, базисы *(bases)*. Любого рода группировки и подразделения на классы, виды и подвиды могут быть сделаны при помощи соответствующих английских глаголов: *to classify, to categorise, to group, to divide into, to arrange in, to put into, to fall into, to place in, to distinguish between, to differentiate between/ from, to sub-classify, to sub-categorise, to sub-group, to sub-divide*; соответствующих английских прилагательных: *several, a number of, various, the following, main, general, broad*; и соответствующих английских существительных: *categories, classes, groups, types, kinds, sorts, species, breeds, orders, divisions, families, members, sub-categories, sub-classes, sub-groups, suborders, sub-divisions*.

Количественный анализ *(quantitative analysis)* экономических текстов требует описания информационных компонентов *(information)* экономических явлений и статистических данных *(data)*. К характеристикам информационных материалов можно отнести такие слова, как: *available; mentioned; quantitative; detailed; accumulated; provided; valuable; experimental; further; the above presented*. Действия, совершаемые с данными, будут описываться выражениями: *data\datum – were/was obtained through experiment; has been gathered for; concerning; regarding; is presented; is embodied in; should be carefully handled; were presented in; were advanced; to support; were obtained in the present study; are of great value for; are available for; are inadequate to; indicate that; show; suggest; have been examined by; are based on; are used in; are recorded in; are estimated as; are evaluated as; are calculated from; are computed from*.

Частота появления события ранжируется от 100-процентного появления всегда до нулевого появления никогда: *always, usually, normally, generally, on the whole, regularly, often, frequently, sometimes, occasionally, rarely, seldom, hardly ever, scarcely ever, never*. Число элементов, охватываемых экономическим явлением, может включать в себя: все *(all, every, each)* компоненты, большинство *(most, a majority of)* элементов, много *(many/much a lot of)*, достаточно *(enough)*, некоторые *(some, a number of, several, a few/a little)*, мало *(a minority of, few, little)* и ни одного *(no, none, not any)* компонента. Глубина изменения *(fluctuation)* показателя, его рост *(rise, increase)* или падение *(decrease, decline, reduction, fall, drop)* может составлять минимальную, незначительную *(minimal, slight, small)* величину, быть постепенной *(slow, gradual, steady)* в динамике или резкой и значительной *(marked, large, dramatic, steep, sharp, rapid, drastic)*, а также неожиданной *(sudden)*.

Интерпретация данных (*data* – мн. число и *datum* – ед. число) предполагает такие высказывания, как: *as can be seen from*; *according to; as is shown in; it can be seen*, базирующиеся на графических *(charts, diagrams, tables, graphs, figures)* или аналитических *(statistics, formulas, models, theories)* представлениях.

Особенности проводимого исследования *(study, research, work, investigation)* отмечаются как: детальное *(detailed)*, схожее *(similar)*, всестороннее *(comprehensive, thorough, careful)*, краткое *(brief, short)*, первоначальное *(initial, preliminary, pioneer)*, теоретическое *(theoretical)*. Выдвигаемая теория может быть: существующей в настоящее время *(present)*, полной *(complete)*, специфической *(specific)*, хорошо известной *(well-known)*, принятой *(accepted)* или новой *(new)*. Акцентирование внимания на отдельных положениях теории, выдвигаемой автором, достигается за счет таких выражений, как: *theory was carefully worked out; has been put forward; has been proposed; has been advanced; has been developed; has been elaborated on the basis of; has been recently improved*.

Выпуск II, Навигатор для бакалавров Economics, естественно завершить живым учебным академическим эссе. Оно написано студентами III курса ICEF как письменное домашнее задание по одному из основных экономических курсов – Microeconomics. Безусловно, данное эссе еще нельзя рассматривать в качестве образца для подражания, но это достойный опыт, *draft* учебной академической работы на английском языке. В Выпуске III мы планируем дать небольшие отрывки из уже магистерской диссертации одного из авторов, чтобы читатели могли убедиться в динамике владения EEAP по мере накопления знаний и собственного практического опыта в этой области. *(Печатается в авторской редакции)*

Sample EEAP Text 18

State University - Higher School of Economics.
International College of Economics and Finance

Microeconomics

Essay

Completed by:
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The nature of price discrimination concerning museum tickets can be described using the basic tools of microeconomic theory. Each museum offers unique services. For example, you will not be able to see Diego Velasquez' *'The Breakfast'* in a place other than the Hermitage

museum in Saint Petersburg. In this sense every museum has monopolistic power. The essence of such power is that the firm is able to raise its output price since there are no other suppliers to whom the consumers can turn to when it acts like this.

A monopolistic firm sets such price where the profit is maximized. However, there are more sophisticated ways to use market situation. Different consumers have different willingness to pay for the good. Obviously, it would not be unreasonable to charge the consumers differently. Such behaviour is called price discrimination.

Suppose there is no price discrimination and the monopoly's single price is P_1. Then the consumers have a surplus ABP_1 since they are asked to pay P_1 instead of the maximum they are willing to pay for any quantity of good $<Q_1$. Now suppose we can distinguish Warren Buffet's willingness to pay for seeing the painting, the electrician Surkov's and all the others who desire to visit the museum and make up the market demand i.e. we know the maximum price each consumer is ready to pay for 1 ticket. So the first is bought by Mr. Buflet for his maximum price Pg, the second unit is purchased by Mr. Potanin (we assume he is ready to pay a lot for the chance to see the great painting but not as much as Mr. Buflet after the crisis) for Pa until finally it is Surkov's turn to buy for P_1 (assuming initial price P_1 is exactly what Surkov is willing to pay). This means that the museum receives the consumer surplus and total revenue becomes $OABQ_1$ instead of $OPIBQ_1$. Since the costs remain the same, the profit of the museum has increased. This is known as perfect price discrimination.

Certainly the knowledge of each individual's willingness to pay cannot be acquired in reality. Rather we can divide all consumers into several categories and charge each category a different price. This is third degree price discrimination. Such pricing schemes are the most common Museums are probably one of the best examples of this pricing policy.

The market for museum tickets can be presented as a composition of several submarkets. Usually museums offer differently priced tickets for the following categories of customers (in price order): foreigners, adults and children with foreigners' tickets being the most expensive.

Let's see how this form of price discrimination works. For the sake of simplicity suppose there are 2 submarkets: foreigners, who come to Russia to see the paintings and nationals (adults and children). Foreigners' demand is inelastic and has a higher P-intercept. This is because it is very likely that it is their опту visit to Russia and hence a unique chance to see the crown. Nationals' demand is more elastic and has a lower P-intercept. Russians can always visit the Hermitage and see the painting. The combined demand and marginal revenue curves are constructed by horizontal summation of foreigners' and nationals' demand and marginal revenue curves respectively.

If the museum does not price discriminate, the single price for tickets is determined by MR(combined)=MC i.e. P*. $MR_f<MR_n$. Thus, it would not be unreasonable to sell more to nationals and less to foreigners in order to increase total revenue. To do this we need to charge foreigners a higher price and nationals a lower price than P*. The optimal prices are those where $MR_f=MR_n=MC$ ie. P_f and P_n. There is no incentive to deviate from q_f and q_n since both markets' MR are equal. With such price discrimination total revenue and profit will be maximal. The same analysis can be applied to any number of submarkets.

A monopolist does not have always the opportunity to discriminate. It depends on what the good is and whether it is possible to keep members of different price groups separate in using the good. Otherwise, members of the lower price group may resell the good to the members of the higher price group. In case of museums each customer is checked whether he/she bought the appropriate ticket, i.e. an adult will not be able to use a children's ticket for example simply because children and adults look differently. To distinguish foreigners is more difficult and as a result there can be violations, however, foreigners usually do not break the rules due to the risk of being fined or just getting into an awkward situation. Therefore, with museum tickets there is virtually no opportunity to engage in arbitrage.

We may conclude therefore that for the price discrimination to exist the following requirements should be satisfied (Katz, Rosen):

1. The firm should be a price maker. The exhibition of the painting is a unique service, hence museums of Hermitage can set the price for it.

2. The firm must be able to identify which consumer is which. This concerns the correct identification of the willingness to pay of each individual consumer (or group of consumers). This condition is the most difficult one. Acquiring perfect information is impossible and the firm has to use approximations considering, for example, the average income of such group of consumers. An incorrect assumption on willingness to pay may significantly decrease profit from price discrimination.

3. Consumers must not be able to engage in arbitrage. In the museum example the differences between children and adults entering the museum are obvious. Hence arbitrage is impossible. However, this condition can be violated when we consider public transport in the absence of conductor. The inability to distinguish consumer types makes price discrimination inapplicable.

Although the original idea of perfect price discrimination cannot be observed in practice, an approximation of it by setting different prices for different groups of consumers is widely used in many industries: transport, natural monopolies, cinema, education, healthcare services. The profitability of such pricing policies is easily explained at microeconomic level.

Nearly in all museums of our country price of tickets for citizens of Russian Federation and foreigners varies a lot. For instances, average price of museum ticket for Russians is 150 RUB, while citizens of other countries have to pay about 100 RUB, the more everyday example: the price for a student in Pushkin Museum in Moscow is 30 RUB, for a citizen of Russian Federation- 100 RUB, for a foreigner – 300 RUB.

Pricing strategy in museums is quite difficult topic, as issues beyond cost recovery and surplus, such as social responsibilities, need to be considered.

But is it fair to charge different prices according to nationality? Opinions on this problem have divided. Foreigners, as well as most of tour-

istic companies, argue that this is absolutely unfair and in none of European countries you cannot find such practice. For instance, in hotels and restaurants prices are the same for Russians and guests of the country, why then prices in museums should be different. It is argued that such is anachronism, which has negative influence on the image of our country.

On the other hand, museums' representatives and Russians, of course, think that price for foreigners is approximately equal to European standards, while Russians buy discounted tickets, firstly because world prices are too high for them and as Russians have very elastic demand for visiting museums, higher prices will result in sharp fall in number of domestic visitors. Furthermore, Russians already pay taxes, part of which is spent on museums.

On the same time, this kind of price discrimination results in another important problem.

The museum sector generally obtains its revenue from three sources: audiences, government and foundations. In the beginning of 90th museums in Russia were on complete state's provision, while now they receive from government only 40% of revenue. Furthermore, revenue from government as well as foundations are vulnerable to being cut, hence, museums are trying to earn revenue on their own. This leads to a situation when museums prefer foreign visitors as they pay higher prices. This fact of course, helps handle the problem of too much visitors in some museums of our country (recently the number of foreign tourists visited Saint Petersburg has increased from 3.8 millions in 2007 to 4.3 millions in 2008 and it is forecasted to increase further by 10–12% this year, but at the same time this is seen as absolutely non-ethic discrimination of Russians.

Вместо заключения

План-проспект Выпуска II реализован. Можно выключить Навигатор. На время. Оно, возможно, понадобится читателям, только пролиставшим книгу, чтобы самостоятельно в тиши поработать с ней. Попробовать свои силы в собственных *drafts* академических историй (безразлично, устных или письменных). Пусть пока с предсказуемыми *gaps* и *imperfections*. Мы ведь не ставим точку. У нас многоточие. А пробовать и показываться на академической публике необходимо. Пусть там, где не достает пока *command of the language*, выручает имеющаяся *competence in the subject*. Если уже есть, что сказать академическому сообществу, – говорите…

В завершение, как всегда, прямая, значимая для нас цитата. Так говорил профессор экономики William Tomson.

«To explain something really well, you need a good deal more than that limited set of facts. The more you know in addition to what you explain, the better your explanation will be. Using the image of an iceberg, which, in the popular-science cliché, is nine-tenth submerged, what you show should only be a small part of what you know. Some of the questions your audience asks will probably pertain to aspects of your problem you did not bring up. You have to be ready to talk about them. The more thoroughly you are able to discuss issues peripheral to your paper, the more you will impress your audience. And the more interested they are, the more feedback you will get and the more stimulating you presentation will be for everyone, including you.

When they leave the seminar room, all members of the audience should be able to state your main message. Can they? If the answer is yes, your talk has already achieved an important objective».

И далее:

«Be realistic. Very few readers can take the time to understand everything in your paper, and a large fraction of your seminar audience will have only a vague idea of what you are talking about when you are half-way through your presentation. Every bit you do to improve your text or seminar paper will keep the attention of a few people a little longer».

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для академических целей для бакалавров экономики
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