

**O‘ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI
OLYI VA O‘RTA MAXSUS TA‘LIM VAZIRLIGI**

SAMARQAND IQTISODIYOT VA SERVIS INSTITUTI

“TILLARNI O‘QITISH” KAFEDRASI

«Tasdiqlayman»

o‘quv va tarbiyaviy ishlari bo‘yicha

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**Xorijiy til
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1.1 -modul	New Uzbekistan. Text :Gram: Adjective position, Adjective order
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Uzbekistan is a country of Central Asia, located north of Turkmenistan and Afghanistan. With an area of 447,000 square kilometers (approximately the size of Spain or California), Uzbekistan stretches 1,425 km (885 mi) from west to east and 930 km (580 mi) from north to south. It borders Turkmenistan to the southwest, Kazakhstan to the north, and Tajikistan and Kyrgyzstan to the south and east.

Uzbekistan is not only one of the larger Central Asian states but also the only Central Asian state to border all of the other four. Uzbekistan also shares a short border with Afghanistan to the south. As the Caspian Sea is an inland sea with no direct link to the oceans, Uzbekistan is one of only two "doubly landlocked" countries—countries completely surrounded by other landlocked countries. The other is Liechtenstein.

Uzbekistan's climate is classified as continental, with hot summers and cool winters. Summer temperatures often surpass 40 °C (104 °F); winter temperatures average about −2 °C (28 °F), [citation needed] but may fall as low as −40 °C (−40 °F). Most of the country also is quite arid, with average annual rainfall amounting to between 100 and 200 millimeters (3.9 and 7.9 in) and occurring mostly in winter and spring. Between July and September, little precipitation falls, essentially stopping the growth of vegetation during that period of time.

Despite Uzbekistan's rich and varied natural environment, decades of environmental neglect in the Soviet Union have combined with skewed economic policies in the Soviet south to make Uzbekistan one of the gravest of the CIS's many environmental crises. The heavy use of agrochemicals, diversion of huge amounts of irrigation water from the two rivers that feed the region, and the chronic lack of water treatment plants are among the factors that have caused health and environmental problems on an enormous scale.

Environmental devastation in Uzbekistan is best exemplified by the catastrophe of the Aral Sea. Because of diversion of the Amu Darya and Syr Darya for cotton cultivation and other purposes, what once was the world's fourth largest inland sea has shrunk in the past thirty years to only about one-third of its 1960 volume and less than half its 1960 geographical size. The desiccation and salinization of the lake have caused extensive storms of salt and dust from the sea's dried bottom, wreaking havoc on the region's agriculture and ecosystems and on the population's health. Desertification has led to the large-scale loss of plant and animal life, loss of arable land, changed climatic conditions, depleted yields on the cultivated land that remains, and destruction of historical and cultural monuments. Every year, many tons of salts reportedly are carried as far as 800 kilometers away. Regional experts assert that salt and dust storms from the Aral Sea have raised the level of particulate matter in the Earth's atmosphere by more than 5%, seriously affecting global climate change.

The Aral Sea disaster is only the most visible indicator of environmental decay, however. The Soviet approach to environmental management brought decades of poor water management and lack of water or sewage treatment facilities; inordinately heavy use of pesticides, herbicides, defoliants, and fertilizers in the fields; and construction of industrial enterprises without regard to human or environmental impact. Those policies present enormous environmental challenges throughout Uzbekistan.

VOCABULARY

Environment – atrof-muhit

Impact – ta'sir

Fertilizer- ug'it

Industrial Enterprises- sanoat korxonalari

Historical and cultural monuments- tarixiy va madaniy yodgorliklar

Economic policy- iqtisodiy siyosat

Population's health- aholi salomatligi

Rainfall- yog'ingarchilik

Desertification- sahroga aylanish, cho'lga aylanish

Questions

1. What do you think about current reforms in our country?
2. Are there typical features in the environment of Uzbekistan?
3. How many citizens are there in Uzbekistan?
4. What do you think about the heavy industry of Uzbekistan?

B1 Adjective position

Adjectives usually go before nouns:

I bought a white T-shirt. (not a T-shirt white)

▲ Adjectives don't change. (not some whites T-shirts)

Adjectives go after some verbs (e.g. *be, get, become, look, seem, appear, sound, taste, smell, feel*):

They're comfortable and they'll look good with the skirt.

The material felt really soft.

▲ A few adjectives (e.g. *afraid, alone, asleep, awake*) cannot go before a noun:

The cat was asleep on the bed. (not The asleep cat was on the bed.)

-C1

B2 Adjective order

When there are two or more adjectives, they go in this order:

	opinion	size/age/shape	colour	materials	
a	lovely	short	black	wool	skirt
a	beautiful		grey	leather	bag
my	favourite	long	black		boots
some		old	blue		jeans

We put *and*

- ◆ between two colour adjectives: *a black and white belt*
- ◆ between two adjectives after a verb: *Clothes shops are always boring and crowded.*
- ▲ We don't say *my favourite and long and black boots*

Exercises for grammar

1. Anna likes Joanna, but Maria doesn't like _____.
A) her B) them C) your D) their
2. Kate is _____ than any other actress on TV.
A) as pretty B) not pretty C) prettier D) the prettiest
3. Some people think that life was _____ a hundred years ago.
A) badly B) worst C) well D) better
4. A bee is _____ than a bird.
A) smaller B) smallest C) the smallest D) small
5. A bicycle moves _____ than a car.
A) slowly B) fast C) very slow D) more slowly
6. Concorde is _____ other planes.
A) the safest B) safest C) as safe as D) safer
7. Other planes are not so _____ Concorde.
A) more expensive B) expensive
C) expensive as D) as expensive
8. It was a very _____ journey.
A) interesting B) more interested
C) interested D) interestingly
9. What are the _____ sports in Turkey?
A) interested B) as interesting C) better than D) most popular
10. This team is bad. It plays _____.
A) badly B) bad C) not good D) well

1.2 -modul	My future profession.
	Gram: Adjectives ending in -ing and -ed, Nouns used as adjectives.

My future profession (Economist)

Plans for future is a problem that worries not only me, but my friends, classmates, parents and teachers. The reason is that at the age of 17 we have to make a very important choice in our life – the choice of a profession. On the one hand, I'm adult enough to have an opinion of my own about what I'm interested in and what I'm

good at. On the other hand, at this age we lack life experience and our desires sometimes don't coincide with our possibilities. That's why it's very important to have somebody to give us a piece of advice. Such people are our parents, teachers and friends.

As for me, I want to be an economist. I like to read books of economics, research articles and analyze them. Nowadays this profession has become one of the most useful, modern and interesting. Also, I want to study economics as I'm very interested in current economic processes both in our country and in other countries. It's not a secret that our country (Russia, Ukraine, Belorussia, Kazakhstan) is now through a difficult periods of times. That's why it's very important for our country to have efficient economists to raise our economy at a high level.

I hope that I'll be a good economist. Like many other people I would like to spend a year abroad working as an economist. It would give me an opportunity to borrow the experience and to see the world.

So, I'll do everything to become a good economist and I'm sure I'll never regret my decision to follow this career.

There are plenty of different professions. Some of my friends want to be doctors, others want to be lawyers or journalists, some want to become designers, IT workers.

But I've always had a particular interest to advertising. So, I've already decided what I want to do, when I grow up. I want to have a job where I can apply my creative skills. I'd like to have a job of a creative director in an advertising agency.

If you want to be a good art director, you need to be creative. The way advertisement motivates people to do something what they actually didn't plan to do is fascinating. I also strongly believe that work of creative director can be compared with art. A good advertisement is really an art object.

I strongly believe that if I am persistent and ambitious, everything becomes possible. However, I'm absolutely convinced that without good grades at school the success in one's future career is out of the question.

A child usually dreams to be a doctor, a teacher, a firefighter or even an astronaut in the future. These professions are very important, so it is wonderful when child's dream comes true and he or she becomes an expert in the particular field, for example, in medicine.

I think that everyone should work. It may be easy or difficult work, well-paid or low-paid. However, what is even more important is that the work must bring the joy. Of course, the salary is important nowadays but if you are not happy with your job, the salary will mean almost nothing. In this case you should find something else, something that will make you smile. This work even may become just a little addition to the main job.

My dream is to become an interpreter in the future. Why have I chosen this particular profession? The answer is quite simple. I like studying foreign languages and cultures. When I study a new foreign language, a new world seems to be opened to me. I can find something unusual, unique, fascinating or even strange there but it is the wonderful experience.

The profession of an interpreter gives you an opportunity to meet new people from different countries or social groups. It teaches you to make decisions right here and

right now. It is the experience that you cannot get even being a translator, for example. This is the main reason why I want to be an interpreter. I will do my best to become an interpreter in the future because this is the work that can make me happy.

VOCABULARY

Translator- tarjimon

Firefighter- o't o'chiruvchi

Convince- ko'ndirmoq, ishontirmoq

Lawyer - huquqshunos

Journalist – journalist

Economist- iqtisodchi

Classmate – sinfdosh

Interpreter- tarjimon

Questions.

1. What is your future profession?
2. What do you think about particular superiorities of certain professions?
3. What should you do to become a good specialist?
4. Why have You chosen this particular profession?

B3 Adjectives ending in *-ing* and *-ed*

Some adjectives have two forms: *-ing* and *-ed*. The adjectives have different meanings:

<i>-ing</i> adjectives describe people and things	<i>-ed</i> adjectives describe feelings
<i>Clothes shops are boring.</i>	<i>I'm bored.</i>
<i>That's surprising news.</i>	<i>We're surprised.</i>
<i>Computer shops are interesting.</i>	<i>You're not interested in clothes.</i>

Exercises for grammar

1. What are the _____ sports in Turkey?
A) interested B) as interesting C) better than D) most popular
2. It was a very _____ journey.
A) interesting B) more interested
C) interested D) interestingly
3. He has a lot of friends. He is _____ than Tony.
A) much less friendly B) less friendly
C) the most friendly D) more friendly
4. The Boeing 747 makes _____ noise than Concorde.
A) much B) less C) most D) least
5. Who sings the _____ in your class?
A) happy B) more happily C) happily D) most happily
6. Which student in the class works _____ ?
A) more careful B) less careful

- C) the most carefully D) the least careful
7. I think my answer on the test was _____.
- A) the best possible choice B) best beyond all the choices
C) the better of all choices D) the possible best choice
8. It was a _____.
- A) thirty-minute show B) TV show thirty minute
C) thirty minutes TV show D) TV show of thirty minute
9. We saw _____ last week.
- A) award winning of French film
B) A French film award winning
C) an award winning French film
D) a film of French winning award
10. The nurse is very _____. She spoke _____.
- A) politely / politely C) polite / politely
B) politely / polite D) polite / polite

1.3 -modul	The role of foreign language in our lives. Gram: Using adverbs, Forming adverbs, Irregular adverbs.
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Learning a foreign language is not an easy thing. It is a long and slow process that takes a lot of time and efforts. Nowadays it is especially important to know foreign languages. Some people learn languages because they need them for their work, others travel abroad, for the third studying languages is a hobby. Everyone, who knows foreign languages can speak to people from other countries, read foreign writers in the original, which makes your outlook wider.

It is not surprising that many intellectuals and well-educated people are polyglots. I study English. Nowadays English has become the world's most important language in politics, science, trade and cultural relations. Over 300 million people speak it as a mother tongue. The native speakers of English live in Great Britain, the United States of America, Australia and New Zealand. English is one of the official languages in the Irish Republic, Canada, the South Africa Republic. English is one of the official languages of the United Nations Organization and other political organizations. Half of the world's scientific literature is in English. It is the language of computer technology.

To know English today is absolutely necessary for every educated person, for every good specialist. The English language is a wonderful language. It is the language of the great literature. It is the language of William Shakespeare, Jonathan Swift, Walter Scott, Charles Dickens. The great German poet Goethe once said, "He, who knows no foreign language, does not know his own one". That is why in order to understand oneself and environment one has to study foreign languages.

Language is an essential form of communication. So, the more languages you speak, the more friends you have. My parents have always wanted me to know several languages. I started learning English and French at the age of 6. By that time I already knew Russian and Georgian languages.

When I was a child, I didn't understand how important it is to learn at least one foreign language. Now I know that learning languages helps you in many ways. First of all, I started paying more attention to grammar and overall structure of my native language. Secondly, I'm going to pass an English language exam next year. I'm pretty sure that it will be fine, as I've been a diligent student. Besides, my parents and teachers say I'm capable of learning several languages. I have a good memory and good linguistic ability. Thirdly, I'm sure that the knowledge of foreign languages will be beneficial for my future career.

Moreover, it is a good way to find new penfriends from different countries and to keep in touch with them. That's how I learned some peculiarities of English and French culture. On top of that, last year I participated in an international exchange program, which was a good way to practice my speaking skills. We went to London and stayed there for a week with our English friends. Then, we hosted them in our town.

After I graduate from school, I want to enter a linguistic university to become an interpreter. But that's not all. After the university, I'd like to continue my studies abroad in the English or French speaking environment. In my opinion, it is the best way to improve the language skills and to make new friends.

VOCABULARY

Specialist- mutaxassis

French speaking environment- fransuz tili muhiti

Linguistic- tilga oid

Cultural relations- madaniy aloqalar

Beneficial- firdali

Native- mahalliy

Polyglot- ko'p tili

Questions

1. What benefits can learning foreign languages bring to us?
2. When did you start learning foreign languages(at what age) ?
3. Why is it important to be bilingual or polyglot?
4. Is it easy to learn foreign languages?

B1 Using adverbs

Adjectives tell us about a noun:

He's a careful cyclist.

Adverbs tell us about a verb:

He cycles carefully.

Adverbs say how often, where, how much, how and when:

	how often?	verb	how?	where?	when?
<i>I</i>	<i>often</i>	<i>come</i>		<i>here</i>	<i>on Friday lunchtimes.</i>
<i>She</i>		<i>is waiting</i>	<i>patiently</i>	<i>at her friend's house.</i>	

Adverbs can be one word or a phrase:

I'm getting on my bike now.

I'm outside my office.

▲ Some verbs are followed by adjectives not adverbs. (See Unit 1 Grammar B1.):

You sound miserable. That's unfair. I feel happy.

B2 Forming adverbs

Adjective + *-ly* → adverb

perfect + *-ly* → *perfectly*

usual + *-ly* → *usually*

B3 Irregular adverbs

Well is the adverb for *good*:

He's a good boss. He treats us well.

▲ *Well* is also an adjective (= not ill):

I had stomach-ache last week but I'm well this week.

C2 Look at each word in *italics* and decide whether it is correct. If not, write the correct word.

- 1 They listened *careful* when the instructor told them what to do. *carefully*
- 2 The weather today is *well*.
- 3 We trained *hardly* because we had an important match.
- 4 We have a *weekly* spelling test in English.
- 5 I slept *bad* because there was a thunderstorm.
- 6 He answered the question *correctly*.
- 7 I arrived at school *lately* and missed the beginning of the lesson.
- 8 Cara's cousin gave her a *friendly* wave as he left.
- 9 I could understand quite *good* because the teacher spoke *clear*.
- 10 We worked *fast* and finished *early*.

1.4 -modul	How to improve competence. Gram: Comparative and superlative adjectives, Comparing nouns
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What are competencies?

Before we can say anything useful about competence development, it is important to agree on a clear definition of competencies. They are often conflated with skills while the two are clearly distinct concepts.

The main difference between a competency and a skill is that competencies make up a much broader category than skills.

Competencies are the sum of:

-The specific knowledge someone has on a certain topic or within a certain field.

One or multiple skills. Skills mainly refer to physical and mental actions and tasks that someone has mastered.

-The attitudes and character traits of an individual. Such as someone's attitude towards colleagues, someone's sense of duty, or their temperament.

In this blog you will read all about the difference between competencies and skills. You will also find practical examples of both terms.

What is competence development?

Today's labor market is a dynamic environment. Digitization continuously demands new competencies and skills while a lot of traditional jobs are disappearing or losing ground. In addition, an increasing proportion of companies and government institutions needs highly qualified employees who are eager to learn and prepared to grow along with the organization.

On the flip side, today's professionals are demanding as well. A lot of millennials don't just work to pay the bills but are also looking for a meaningful position that offers growth opportunities and satisfaction. In a recent study, almost two-thirds of participating employees preferred a job with a moderate income and a lot of growth opportunities over something unchallenging and monotonous yet royally paid.

This means that employers and employees both benefit from competence development. But what exactly does the term mean? Competence development is the practice of developing one or several competencies in a specific way and in a particular direction..

'Development' refers to:

Improving existing competencies. Ways of accomplishing this include targeted exercise, gaining additional knowledge and changing your attitude.

Adding new competencies to your professional arsenal. This involves continuous learning and openness to new challenges.

From an organizational perspective, competence development serves two main purposes:

To improve the alignment between the competencies of employees and the strategic goals of the organization.

To stimulate and develop employee involvement in the organization. The result? Content staff and less attrition.

Benefits

Good competence development offers many benefits, both for organizations and individual employees. These are the main benefits:

1. Improved competitiveness

Competence development improves the match between the strategic goals of an organization and the competencies of its employees. This strengthens your competitive position and makes the organization more future-proof.

2. Improved decision-making

Competence development facilitates careful mapping of all the strengths and weaknesses of your workforce. This information allows you to increase the efficiency of your business processes and avoid over or understaffing any specialized projects.

3. Recruitment and retention become easier

No organization wants to be a revolving door. In view of business continuity, it is important to attract the right people and commit them to the organization for an extended period of time. Competence development makes this easier. You gain an understanding of what competencies you need, while employees who get to develop themselves at your organization consider you an appealing employer.

4. Improved service

Does your workforce have the right competencies? Delivering top-notch service will be easier. The quality of your services and products gets a boost, which improves results and strengthens the bond with your clients. Very important in an era where personalization and high service levels act as driving forces behind added value and customer loyalty.

5. Improved safety, fewer risks Once all employees have a clear understanding of competencies and skills, production lines and production processes can be organized safely from start to finish. The benefit: improved safety and fewer occupational accidents.

6. Prepared for the future

Is one of your employees approaching retirement age? Or has someone left your organization unexpectedly? Competence development allows you to prepare high-potential staff for their future role, ensuring you've got the right successor on board at all times.

7. Employee growth

Competence development is an effective tool for facilitating personal and professional growth. The method offers employees a better understanding of their own potential, allowing them to sharpen existing and develop new competencies in a more targeted way.

VOCABULARY

Specific – maxsus

Traits – xususiyatlar

Duty – majburiyat

Workforce – ishchi kuchi

Satisfaction – qoniqish

Recruitment – jalb qilish

Accomplish – amalga oshirmoq

Questions

1. What are competencies?
2. What is competence development?
3. Why do people leave their organizations unexpectedly?
4. Do the majority of workforce in your region have the right competencies?

adjective	comparative	superlative
one syllable:		
<i>long</i>	+ -er → <i>longer</i>	+ -est → <i>the longest</i>
ending in -e <i>nice</i>	+ -r → <i>nicer</i>	+ -st → <i>the nicest</i>
ending in one vowel + -b, -d, -g, -n, -p or -t <i>big</i>	double the last letter + -er → <i>bigger</i>	double the last letter + -est → <i>the biggest</i>
two syllables:		
<i>famous</i>	+ more → <i>more famous</i>	+ the most → <i>the most famous</i>
ending in -y <i>dirty</i>	-y and + -ier → <i>dirtier</i>	-y and + -iest → <i>the dirtiest</i>
three syllables:		
<i>popular</i>	+ more → <i>more popular</i>	+ the most → <i>the most popular</i>

⚠ Some adjectives are irregular:

good → *better* → *the best*, *bad* → *worse* → *the worst*, *far* → *further* → *the furthest*

*His latest song is **better** than his last one. He's **the best** singer in the band.*

*This magazine is **worse** than that one. It's **the worst** magazine I've ever read.*

Exercises for grammar

1. The food looked perfectly _____ to me.
A) well B) nicely C) deliciously D) good
2. A bicycle moves _____ than a car.
A) slowly B) fast C) very slow D) more slowly
3. Concorde is _____ other planes.
A) the safest B) safest C) as safe as D) safer

4. Other planes are not so _____ Concorde.
 A) more expensive B) expensive
 C) expensive as D) as expensive
5. It was a very _____ journey.
 A) interesting B) more interested
 C) interested D) interestingly
6. What are the _____ sports in Turkey?
 A) interested B) as interesting C) better than D) most popular
7. The Taylors have three sons. They are all clever, but Bill is outstanding.
 He is _____ of all.
 A) a lot clever B) the least cleverest
 C) the cleverest D) far much cleverer
8. She went _____ a sheet when she heard the news.
 A) as white as B) as light as C) as mute as D) as deaf as
9. The _____ the problem _____ it is to find a solution.
 A) more complicated / hardly
 B) most complicated / the hardest
 C) more complicated / the harder
 D) more complicated / the hardest
10. Although we hear about terrible air crashes, flying is still the _____
 way to travel. It is much _____ than walking down the road!
 A) safer / a lot safe B) safest / safer
 C) less safer / safer D) least / a lot safer

1.5 -modul	Globalization. Gram: –resent simple
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Globalization is a controversial issue for business and governments throughout the world. We recognize globalization mainly through its effects. It's a bit like electricity — we can not see it, but we certainly observe what it does.

Globalization can be described as a process by which the people of the world are unified into a single society and function together. This process is a combination of economic, technological, sociocultural and political forces. It's a movement of people, goods, capital and ideas due to increased economic integration.

Globalization is a controversial issue mainly because different groups interpret it in different ways. For its opponents globalization is a threatening word. It prompts visions of large multinationals dominating the world in pursuit of ever-higher profits. Many pressure groups fear that globalization threatens the environment as well as national cultures — they predict that it will make the rich nations richer and the developing countries even poorer than they are. But its supporters have another point of view. They believe that increasing and freer trade between nations will offer prosperity and economic growth for all countries and businesses.

So globalization is likely to be a hot potato for the twenty-first century. As far as the benefits are concerned there it's possible to name next statements:

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So globalization is likely to be a hot potato for the twenty-first century. As far as the benefits are concerned there it's possible to name next statements:

1. An opportunity to get acquainted with cultures of different nations;
2. A variety of choice for consumers: when they can buy in their local stores and supermarkets not only home-produced goods but also foreign ones;
3. Transnational corporations create additional work places for local people, at the same it is convenient for these large corporations as well: they may locate the labour-intensive part of their production process in countries with a relative abundance of labour in order to minimize their costs;
4. Another point is risk-sharing. It's more reasonable to invest money not in one company but to create an international company with great amount of subsidiaries in various countries, so it won't have so serious consequences if one of them will not stand cut-throat competition;
5. This cut-throat competition in the local markets between domestic and foreign producers leads to production of high-quality goods.

The disadvantages of globalization are:

1. Pollution of the environment (and there one peculiarity should be admitted — developed countries try to locate their harmful for the environment factories and works not in their own countries but in developing countries);
2. Globalization destroys cultural identity, for example Europeans usually try to impose their customs and traditions on Asian people;

VOCABULARY

Cultural identity – madaniy o'zlik

Custom – urf-odat

Sociocultural – ijtimoiy-madaniy

Unified – birlashgan

Transnational – transnatsional

Reasonable – maqbul

To get acquainted – tanishmoq

Abundance- mo'llik, serobgarchilik

Questions

1. What is the globalization?
2. What benefits can the process of globalization bring?
3. What is a hot potato for twenty first century?
4. Why globalization is similar with electricity?

B1 Present simple

+	<i>I/you/we/they + verb</i> <i>he/she/it + verb + -s</i>	<i>I live in Durrington.</i> <i>She lives in Durrington.</i>
-	<i>I/you/we/they don't + verb</i> <i>he/she/it doesn't + verb</i>	<i>He doesn't live in Durrington.</i>
?	<i>Do I/you/we/they + verb</i> <i>Does he/she/it + verb</i>	<i>Do you live in Durrington?</i>

▲ We use *do* to make questions and negatives for all verbs except *to be*.

+	<i>I am ('m)</i> <i>you/we/they are ('re)</i> <i>he/she/it is ('s)</i>	<i>I'm here.</i>
-	<i>I am not ('m not)</i> <i>you/we/they are not (aren't)</i> <i>he/she/it is not (isn't)</i>	<i>They aren't here.</i>
?	<i>Am I ...?</i> <i>Are you/we/they ...?</i> <i>Is he/she/it ...?</i>	<i>Is she here?</i>

We use the present simple:

- ◆ for habits and things which happen regularly:
I go there most weekends.
especially with *always, never, usually, often,* and *sometimes*:
The tour usually lasts about one hour.
- ◆ for permanent situations:
I live in Durrington.
We don't see animals in the city centre.
- ◆ for general truths:
Many tourists enjoy coach tours.

-C1, C2

Exercises for grammar

1. The weather is awful, it ___ all day.
A) rains B) is raining C) rained
D) has rained E) has been raining
2. Who goes sightseeing?
A) Nina does. B) We shall. C) We did.
D) I did. E) She has.
3. Look! The cat ___ your cutlet.
A) is eating B) was eating C) eats
D) has been eating E) had eaten
4. You don't like horror films, do you?
- ____ . They are so terrifying.
A) Yes, I can. B) No, I can't. C) No, I don't.
D) Yes, I do. E) No, we didn't.
5. She ___ a journalist nowadays.

A) are B) was C) is

D) were E) am

6. What place ___ the youth of our country occupy in all branches now?

A) did B) shall C) is

D) does E) will

7. Look! There ___ a man sitting at the first table near the door. He ___ at us.

A) was/looks B) had been/looked

C) were/had looked D) is/is looking

E) is/was looking

8. Let me show the picture that I ___ this week.

A) am drawing B) shall be drawing C) have drawn

D) drew E) will be drawing

9. Paul ___ a student of Cambridge University.

A) were B) are C) am

D) be E) is

10. This is the 7th year Ann and Mary ___ this school.

A) has attended B) have been attending

C) had been attending D) are attending

E) were attending

1.6 -modul	Education in Uzbekistan. Text :Gram: Present continuous
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The Ministry of Higher and Specialized Secondary Education is responsible for the higher education system and its restructuring. During the transition period, higher education was hindered by a shortage of laboratories, libraries, computers, data banks, and publishing facilities to disseminate research findings; however, progress can also be seen. There are 62 higher education institutions, including 2 academies (in Uzbekistan, as it was in the Soviet system, the word academia means the top-level research and educational institutions), 16 universities (universitet), and 44 institutes (institut). In 1999 to 2000 the system provided education to about 200000 students.

In Samarkand, the institute of tourism and economy and now the silk road tourism university are functioning.

Finally, there is the Uzbek State Institute for Physical Training, the Tashkent Institute of Railway Engineers, the Institute for Civil Aviation, and the University of World Economics and

Diplomacy. The latter comes under the auspices of the President and prepares students majoring in journalism, world diplomacy, and economics.

The Soviet-style higher education system differed greatly from the western model. A five-year education was equal to the Master's degree level in the West, for example. Today this causes confusion in recalculating the degrees. Educational authorities therefore decided to adopt the western system and reduce higher education programs to four years. According to some sources, the transition from five-years of higher education to the international system with Bachelor's (four years) and Master's degrees (two years) has been completed. However, according to American Council for Collaboration in Education and Language Study (ACCELS) administering the American Educational Advising Center (EAC) in Tashkent, only some of the accredited higher education institutions have changed. One example is the University of World Economics and Diplomacy that offers Bachelor's degrees after four years of study and Master's degrees after two additional years of study. Medical institutes have five to six year programs depending on specialty.

In Uzbekistan, all universities and institutes are public. Private institutions of higher education are not yet available. To be admitted to university-level studies, an individual must complete any form of secondary school and have either a Certificate of Complete Secondary Education or a Diploma equal to this certificate. Because higher education in the Soviet system was free and the government provided assistance in the form of stipends, the demand for the university seats was always very high. Thousands of people competed for the limited slots (sometimes over 10 candidates per slot). This system allowed universities and institutes to select the best individuals by giving entrance exams, but caused millions to be deprived of the opportunity for higher education. Additionally, admission occurred only once a year for the same program. Unfortunately, results of these examinations and selections were too often influenced by high-ranking officials and senior leaders trying to help their youngsters. This was the area where nepotism, clannishness, and even corruption were normal. This caused even the most talented and gifted school graduates to be rejected.

Since 1993, entrance exams have been changed to tests. All entrance tests take place step by step through out the republic. Admission to higher educational institutions is based primarily on merit. However, in some institutions, authorities require an interview to determine the student's aptitude and motivation in a given field. Universities and institutes also require a basic medical check to ensure that students are free from all types of infections and fit to pursue their studies.

Traditionally, universities and institutes were divided into faculties. Faculties are like schools (of business or of education, for example) in American universities. They are structural units reflecting major fields of specialization. Faculty is further divided into specific chairs (departments) dedicated to narrower specialties. As an example, it may be the German language chair and French language chair within the faculty of Foreign languages. Since 1995, due to the processes of

democratization, many institutions introduced admission on a contractual basis with tuition charges paid by the student.

Classes generally last five to six hours a day every day of the week. Students often study on Saturdays and usually have 30 to 36 hours of studying a week. Semester courses have exams twice a year. Semester requirements allow no more than five examinations.

In 1998, almost 300 educational and research institutions employed over 25,000 scientists and researchers. Most talented graduates from the university or institute enter aspirantura (postgraduate training—first level). After three years of study, two to three exams, and the writing and Defending of a dissertation, a Candidate Nauk degree (Candidate of Sciences, which is equivalent to a Ph.D.) is conferred by the Cabinet of Ministers. Candidate Nauk (unlike the Ph.D. in the United States) is not a terminal degree. The highest scientific level is the Doktor Nauk (Doctor of Sciences) degree, which is approximately equal to the postdoctoral level in the United States. Because this degree is highly honored and influential, the government places significant requirements on those pursuing it. To apply for this degree and/or to enter doktorantura, an individual must:

- become a distinguished researcher in their chosen field
- provide a very broad generalization for the field of study,
- patent and implement a very important (revolutionary) invention
- discover or establish a new field of research or new science.

VOCABULARY

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS- Ta'lim Institutlari

Silk road- Ipak yo'li

Education system- Ta'lim tizimi

Bachelor degree- Bakalavr darajasi

Specialization- Mutaxassislik

Research- Tadqiqod

Requirements- Talablar

Scientific- Ilmiy

Chairs (Departments)- Bo'lim

Compulsory- Majburiy

Secondary school- O'rta maktab

Questions:

1. How many institutions are there in Uzbekistan?
2. What do you think about the advantages and disadvantages of the education system in our republic?
3. Can you describe the educational system of Uzbekistan?
4. At what age do Uzbek children start attending to school?

B2 Present continuous

+	I am ('m) + -ing you/we/they are ('re) + -ing he/she/it is ('s) + -ing	<i>We're visiting Durrington this week.</i>
-	I am not ('m not) + -ing you/we/they are not (aren't) + -ing he/she/it is not (isn't) + -ing	<i>I'm not visiting Durrington this week.</i>
?	Am I + -ing ...? Are you/we/they + -ing ...? Is he/she/it + -ing ...?	<i>Are you visiting Durrington this week?</i>

We use the present continuous

◆ for the present moment:

*The bus **is** now **turning** into Queens Road.*

*What **are** you **doing**? I'm **listening** to you.*

◆ for temporary situations:

*This week our tours **are taking** a little longer.*

*An international company **is using** that building for a conference. (= They don't use it all the time.)*

Exercises for grammar

1, We _____ watching a good documentary _____ BBC World now.

A) are / in B) am / on C) are / on D) is / in

2, I always _____ credit card.

A) pay / by B) am paying / with

C) 'm paying / by D) pay / with

3, A: What _____ you _____?

B: I'm a lecturer.

A) do / do B) are / do C) is / do D) do / doing

4, Is my English _____ better.

A) gets B) get C) getting D) to get

5, He _____ as a clerk in a bank.

A) working B) work C) works D) to work

6, I _____ going to wash it tonight.

A) do B) am C) are D) do

7, We _____ having dinner at the moment.

A) do B) is C) are D) did

8, What _____ your parents going to do when they retire?

A) is B) do C) are D) did

9, What time _____ Maria usually arrive at school?

A) does B) is C) do D) did

10, I'm looking _____ Jane. Do you know where she is?

A) about B) for C) at D) in

1.7 -modul	Education in the USA. Gram: The Present Continuous Tense. <i>State verbs, Have got and have.</i>
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There are three main levels of higher education: undergraduate studies (bachelor's degree), graduate studies (master's degree) and postgraduate studies (doctor's degree).

The minimum age for enrolment at university is usually 17 or 18, and some 40 percent of college students are 25 or over, many of them completing advanced degrees.

Degree level courses are offered by over 4000 accredited colleges and universities, with a wide variety of admission requirements and programs. Of the total college population of 19 million students (14 million in public colleges and 5 million in private), around 1 million are international students, roughly half of which are working on graduate level degrees. Hundreds of American colleges recruit students from countries such as China, the UK, India and South Korea. Although the terms 'college' and 'university' are often used interchangeably, a college may be independent or part of a university (both colleges and universities are also referred to simply as schools).

An American university typically offers a blend of natural and social sciences, technical, and humanistic studies. IN undergraduate programmes, students are usually 18 to 22 years old and attend college for four years to earn a bachelor's degree in arts or science (BA or BS). On the other hand, a university is usually composed of an undergraduate college of arts and sciences, plus graduate and professional schools and facilities. The four years of undergraduate study for a bachelor's degree are referred to as 'freshman', 'sophomore', 'junior' and 'senior' year (also used in high schools).

One of the most surprising and unique aspects of the US education system is that many of the most prestigious universities are private foundations and receive no federal or state funds (their main source of income, in addition to fees, is endowments). The most famous universities include the Ivy League universities (called as such because they're old enough for ivy to have grown on the walls): Brown, Columbia, Cornell, Dartmouth, Harvard, Pennsylvania, Princeton and Yale. The Ivy League, together with the 'heavenly seven' or 'seven sisters' (Barnard, Bryn Mawr, Mount Holyoke, Radcliffe, Smith, Vassar and Wellesley) of once all-female colleges, are some of the most prestigious American universities.

The academic standards of American colleges and universities vary greatly, and some institutions are better known for the quality of their social life or sports teams than for their academic achievements. Establishments range from vast educational 'plants' (with as many as 50,000 students) offering the most advanced training available, to small private academies emphasising personal instruction and a preference for the humanities or experimentation. Major universities are like small cities with their own shops, banks, police and fire departments, and are

usually renowned for the excellence of their teaching, research facilities, libraries and sports facilities.

The main difference between higher education in the US and that in many other countries is that in the US, the system is designed to keep people in education rather than screen them out. Some 70 percent of American high school graduates (57 percent of whom are female) go on to some sort of higher education (a total of over 19 million). Many Americans see a bachelor's or master's degree, rather than high school graduation, as the natural completion of school life. With certain exceptions, American colleges and universities are geared to the average rather than the brighter student.

The academic standards required to earn a bachelor's degree in the US are lower than in many other countries. Some colleges accept almost any high school graduate and are disparagingly referred to as 'diploma mills' (which has diminished the value of degrees). It's at the graduate level (where students study for a master's degree) that American universities are seen at their best and where students receive an education rivalling that of any country.

VOCABULARY

Educational Institutions- Ta'lim Institutlari

Education system- Ta'lim tizimi

Bachelor degree- Bakalavr darajasi

Research- Tadqiqod

Secondary school- O'rta maktab

Master degree – magistr darajasi

Academic achievements- ilmiy muvaffaqiyatlar

Questions.

1. What age is the minimum age for enrolment at university in USA?
2. Which universities are the most famous in USA?
3. What percentage of graduates are female in USA?
4. What features of American education system are similar with the education in our country?

B2 Present continuous

+	<p>I am ('m) + -ing you/we/they are ('re) + -ing he/she/it is ('s) + -ing</p>	<p><i>We're visiting Durrington this week.</i></p>
-	<p>I am not ('m not) + -ing you/we/they are not (aren't) + -ing he/she/it is not (isn't) + -ing</p>	<p><i>I'm not visiting Durrington this week.</i></p>
?	<p>Am I + -ing ...? Are you/we/they + -ing ...? Is he/she/it + -ing ...?</p>	<p><i>Are you visiting Durrington this week?</i></p>

We use the present continuous

◆ for the present moment:

*The bus **is now turning** into Queens Road.*

*What **are you doing**? I'm **listening** to you.*

◆ for temporary situations:

*This week our tours **are taking** a little longer.*

*An international company **is using** that building for a conference. (= They don't use it all the time.)*

(We also use the present continuous for the future, see Unit 12.)

→C3

B3 State verbs

Some verbs almost always use simple tenses not continuous tenses:

*Most people **prefer** the new theatre. (~~not Most people **are preferring** the new theatre.~~)*

*I **like** chocolate ice cream. (~~not I'm **liking** chocolate ice cream.~~)*

Here are some important state verbs:

belong, hate, have/have got (= possess, see below), hear, know, like, love, mean, prefer, realise, recognise, remember, see, understand, want, wish

→C4

B4 Have got and have

+	<p>I/you/we/they have got ('ve got) } he/she/it has got ('s got)</p>	<p><i>I've got a new car.</i></p>
-	<p>I/you/we/they have not got (haven't got) he/she/it has not got (hasn't got)</p>	<p><i>She hasn't got a new car.</i></p>
?	<p>Have I/you/we/they got ...? Has he/she/it got ...?</p>	<p><i>Have they got a new car?</i></p>

+	<p>I/you/we/they have he/she/it has</p>	<p><i>I have a new car.</i></p>
-	<p>I/you/we/they don't have he/she/it doesn't have</p>	<p><i>She doesn't have a new car.</i></p>
?	<p>Do I/you/we/they have ...? Does he/she/it have ...?</p>	<p><i>Do they have a new car?</i></p>

Exercises for grammar

1. We _____ having dinner at the moment.
A) do B) is C) are D) did
2. Are you _____ a good time?"
"Yes, we _____."
A) having / are B) have / is
C) having / do D) have / aren't
3. We're going to Paris _____ a holiday.
A) to have B) have C) having D) had
4. I _____ tennis this afternoon.
A) 'm playing B) play C) playing D) plays
5. Sally _____ a breakfast at the moment.
A) has B) having C) is having D) had
6. We _____ watching a good documentary _____ BBC World now.
A) are / in B) am / on C) are / on D) is / in
7. A: _____ are you doing under the trees?
B: I'm _____ my keys.
A) What / looking off B) Whom / looking in
C) When / looking up D) What / looking for
8. _____ she got a dress _____ white?
A) Does / in B) Has / on C) Have / in D) Has / in
9. She's _____ jeans.
A) wearing B) wear C) to wear D) wore
10. We are not _____ outside.
A) go B) went C) going D) to go

1.8 -modul	The environment. Gram: Past simple – forms. Past simple – use.
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Our planet Earth is only a tiny part of the universe, but nowadays it's the only place where we can live. People have lived on our planet for many years. They lived and live on different continents, in different countries. People depend on their planet, the sun, animals and plants around them. Environment is everything in the world around us that surround and affects all life on earth, including the air, food, water, plants, animals and other.

Environment is the place where we live. Since ancient time nature has served man, being the source of his life. For thousands of years people lived in harmony with environment and it seemed to them that natural riches were unlimited. But man's interference in nature began to increase with the development of civilization. Our ecology becomes worse and worse with every new day. Many species of animals and birds are disappearing nowadays. People destruct wildlife, cut down trees to make

furniture. They forget that people can't live without trees and plants, because they fill air with oxygen.

There are a lot of ecological problems. The most serious ecological problems are: noise from cars and buses; destruction of wildlife and countryside beauty; shortage of natural resources; the growth of population; pollution in its many forms. Water is everywhere, but there is no ocean or sea which is not used as a dump. Many rivers and lakes are poisoned too. Fish and reptiles can't live in them. People can't drink this water. So we have to clean the water environment. Another problem is air pollution. Air pollution influences the health of people. For example: ultraviolet radiation from the sun can cause skin cancer. Normally the ozone layer in the atmosphere protects us from such radiation, but if there are holes in the ozone layer ultraviolet radiation can get to the earth. Many scientists think that these holes are the result of air pollution. Also we have problem with nuclear pollution. Nuclear pollution cannot be seen but its effect can be terrible. To make air clear clean again we need good filters at nuclear power stations, at factories, in cars and buses.

Another problem is growth of population. They don't have enough places to live. They need more water, more food. So it is the reason of the shortage of the natural resources. It is very difficult to solve this problem. Also one of the most serious problems is greenhouse effect. It works like this: sunlight gives us heat. Some of the heat warms the atmosphere and some of the heat goes back into space. Nowadays the heat can't go into space. That's why winter and summer temperatures in many places have become higher. If the temperature continues growing up the snow on the mountains and ice will melt, so the most of the earth will be under water. So every person has to understand how important it is to solve these problems, which endanger people's life.

Today, our planet carries over seven billion people. Yet its capacity to provide for each one of these individuals is threatened by population growth, climate change, deforestation, collapse of fisheries, desertification, air pollution and scarcity of fresh water. The full extent of our shared global environmental problems goes far beyond the well-publicised challenge of global climate change (or global warming). In fact, one of the elements often forgotten is the complicated relationship between human beings and their environment. In the early years of the conversation around environmental protection, some argued that the planet's resources were there for our collective consumption. However, there are limits to growth and this raises a range of important issues for international relations. Our population quadrupled between 1900 and 2000. This growth, coupled with abrupt climate change events and further compounded by rapid industrialisation and fast urban expansion, have combined into a perfect storm of negative environmental processes that put pressure on the capacity of Planet Earth to sustain life. As students of IR, we ought to recognise that the environment is one of the areas where much work remains to be done, particularly because cooperative approaches to environmental protection have had a very mixed record despite the grave implications of failure.

It is often hard to assess whether international cooperation efforts have had any real effect on society's wellbeing, the quality of our environment, or even the construction of long-term relationships between states. One form of evaluation takes place through the study of environmentally focused 'megaconferences'. These large-

scale events bring together representatives of national governments, intergovernmental secretariats, non-governmental organisations, academics and industry actors to engage in conversations about the state of the environment. They usually focus on a particular issue at hand. What makes these megaconferences interesting is that their goal is to engage in productive collaborative efforts to reach agreement and consensus on specific strategies to protect the environment and solve global challenges.

Historically, the two environmental issues that have gained the most attention have been climate change and biodiversity. Both of these issues came up at the Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro in 1992 – formally called the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development. Nevertheless, most scholars will recall the 1972 United Nations Stockholm Conference on the Human Environment as the first large-scale environmentally focused megaconference. The Stockholm Conference was also the starting point for the first global coordination mechanism for environmental protection, the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP). This conference was also the first one where participants explicitly linked human health with environmental and ecosystem health in their discourses.

VOCABULARY

Participant- ishtirokchi

Ecosystem- iqtisodiy tizim

Deforestation- o'rmonlarning kesilishi

Atmosphere- atmosfera

Ecological problems- ekologik muammolar

Consumption- iste'mol qilish

Wildlife – yovvoyi tabiat

Representatives – vakillar

Nuclear power stations- atom elektr stansiyasi

Question

1. What is a greenhouse effect?
2. When was United Nations Stockholm Conference taken place?
3. Are there any ecological problems in our planet?
4. How can air pollution effect to the human health?

B1 Past simple – forms

In the past simple

◆ we add *-ed/-d* to regular verbs: *want* → *wanted*, *hope* → *hoped*, *shop* → *shopped*

+	<i>I/you/he/she/it/we/they</i> + verb + -ed/-d	<i>I phoned you.</i>
-	<i>I/you/he/she/it/we/they</i> did not (didn't) + verb	<i>She didn't phone me.</i>
?	Did <i>I/you/he/she/it/we/they</i> + verb	<i>Did you phone me?</i>

- ◆ some verbs are irregular and do not end in -ed/-d: buy → bought, go → went, make → made (See p.viii.)

+	I/you/he/she/it/we/they + irregular past verb	<i>I went to the cinema.</i>
-	I/you/he/she/it/we/they did not (didn't) + verb	<i>They didn't go to the cinema.</i>
?	Did I/you/he/she/it/we/they + verb	<i>Did you go to the cinema?</i>

- ◆ *to be* has two forms (*was* and *were*)

+	I/he/she/it was you/we/they were	<i>I was there.</i>
-	I/he/she/it was not (wasn't) you/we/they were not (weren't)	<i>They weren't there.</i>
?	Was I/he/she/it ...? Were you/we/they ...?	<i>Were you there?</i>

B2 Past simple – use

We use the past simple

- ◆ for completed actions, events and situations in the past:

*I **wanted** to see the new film.*

*Your phone was on but you **didn't** answer.*

*Why **didn't** you answer?*

*She **left** the desk and **ran** out of the building.*

Exercises for grammar

- How long _____ in America?
A) you stay B) did you stay
C) stayed you D) you staying
- The weekend was boring. I _____ anything.
A) don't do B) no do
C) didn't do D) wasn't doing
- Carol _____ hard for her exam last week.
A) didn't study B) isn't studying
C) don't study D) aren't study
- Last weekend I _____ some friends and we _____ a meal.
A) see / having B) saw / have
C) seeing / had D) saw / had
- What time _____ home last night?
A) did you get B) you get
C) do you get D) did you got
- “ _____ born?”
“I was born in London.”
A) When did you B) Where were you
C) Where are you D) Where do you

7. Romans _____ a unique system of the Roman alphabet.
 A) improved B) developed
 C) persuaded D) exchanged
8. Romans, Greek and Egyptians are all _____ nations.
 A) ancient B) old C) dated D) modern
9. They've _____ on a double-decker bus.
 A) travel B) traveled C) traveling D) travels
10. He _____ cooking when he _____ 15 years old.
 A) started / was B) has started / has been
 C) 's started / was D) started / has been

1.9 -modul	World market. Gram: Past continuous – forms. Past continuous – use.
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A market is a composition of systems, institutions, procedures, social relations or infrastructures whereby parties engage in exchange. While parties may exchange goods and services by barter, most markets rely on sellers offering their goods or services (including labour power) to buyers in exchange for money. It can be said that a market is the process by which the prices of goods and services are established. Markets facilitate trade and enable the distribution and resource allocation in a society. Markets allow any trade-able item to be evaluated and priced. A market emerges more or less spontaneously or may be constructed deliberately by human interaction in order to enable the exchange of rights (cf. ownership) of services and goods. Markets generally supplant gift economies and are often held in place through rules and customs, such as a booth fee, competitive pricing, and source of goods for sale (local produce or stock registration).

Markets can differ by products (goods, services) or factors (labour and capital) sold, product differentiation, place in which exchanges are carried, buyers targeted, duration, selling process, government regulation, taxes, subsidies, minimum wages, price ceilings, legality of exchange, liquidity, intensity of speculation, size, concentration, exchange asymmetry, relative prices, volatility and geographic extension. The geographic boundaries of a market may vary considerably, for example the food market in a single building, the real estate market in a local city, the consumer market in an entire country, or the economy of an international trade bloc where the same rules apply throughout. Markets can also be worldwide, see for example the global diamond trade. National economies can also be classified as developed markets or developing markets.

World Markets started as broker for precious metals, but now its main feature is an investment program with managed accounts. Artificial intelligence is managing trading accounts and its performance in the past years has allegedly been the following: 481% returns in 2017, 647% in 2018 and 718% in 2019.

World market can refer to any of the following:

- Market (economics)

-World economy

Cost Plus World Market, an American chain of specialty/import retail stores

The world economy or the global economy is the economy of all humans of the world, referring to the global economic system which includes all economic activities which are conducted both within and between nations, including production, consumption, economic management, work in general, exchange of financial values and trade of goods and services. In some contexts, the two terms are distinct "international" or "global economy" being measured separately and distinguished from national economies while the "world economy" is simply an aggregate of the separate countries' measurements. Beyond the minimum standard concerning value in production, use and exchange, the definitions, representations, models and valuations of the world economy vary widely. It is inseparable from the geography and ecology of planet Earth.

VOCABULARY

Inseparable – ajralmas

World market- jahon bozori

Valuations- qiymatlar

Exchange – almashtirmoq, ayirboshlash

Geographic boundaries – geografik to'siqlar

Precious metals- qimmatbaho metallar

Aggregate- hammasi, barchasi, majmui

National economy – milliy iqtisodiyotlar

Questions.

1. What is a world market?

2. What kind of precious metals do you know?

3. What are the differences between world and local markets?

4. Write the peculiarities of world economy?

B3 Past continuous – forms

We form the past continuous of all verbs with *was/were* + *-ing*:

+	<i>I/he/she/it was</i> + verb + <i>-ing</i> <i>you/we/they were</i> + verb + <i>-ing</i>	<i>I was having a coffee.</i>
-	<i>I/he/she/it was not (wasn't)</i> + verb + <i>-ing</i> <i>you/we/they were not (weren't)</i> + verb + <i>-ing</i>	<i>We weren't having a coffee.</i>
?	<i>Was I/he/she/it</i> + verb + <i>-ing ...?</i> <i>Were you/we/they</i> + verb + <i>-ing ...?</i>	<i>Were they having a coffee?</i>

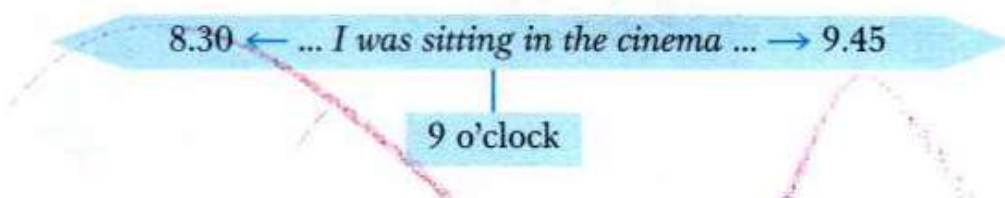
⚠ We do not use state verbs in the past continuous. (See Unit 4.)

B4 Past continuous – use

We use the past continuous

- ◆ for an unfinished activity around a time in the past:

At nine o'clock I was sitting in the cinema.



- ◆ for a past activity beginning before a past event and continuing until or after it. For the event we use *when* + the past simple:

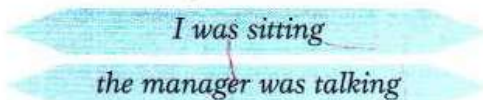
I was talking to the manager when you rang me.

(I started talking to the manager) ... *I was talking* ... (I continued talking)

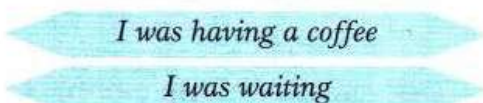
You rang me

When I went out, you were having a shower.

- ◆ for two activities at the same time in the past (often with *while* or *and*):
I was sitting near the ticket desk and the manager was talking.



I was having a coffee while I was waiting.



Exercises for grammar

1. I was born in Africa _____ 1970.

A) on B) at C) in C) last

2. _____ Saturday evening we went out to a concert.

A) Last B) In C) For D) On

3. While I _____ this morning, I _____ my money. I don't know how.

A) shopped / lose B) was shopping / lost

C) shopped / was losing D) shop / lose

This morning I __ (4) __ to work. I __ (5) __ to go by bus because the sun __ (6) __. While I __ (7) __ past the supermarket, I __ (8) __ something strange. A man __ (9) __ near me and he __ (10) __ a song very loudly on his own!

4. A) was walking B) walked C) walk D) walking

5. A) didn't want B) wasn't wanting

C) don't want D) am not wanting

6. A) shone B) is shining C) was shining D) shines

7. A) walked B) am walking C) was walked D) was walking

8. A) was seeing B) saw C) am seeing D) see

9. A) passed B) was passing C) pass D) passes

10. A) sang B) sing C) was singing D) song

1.10 - modul	Mass media. Gram: Present perfect.
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Mass media refers to a diverse array of media technologies that reach a large audience via mass communication. The technologies through which this communication takes place include a variety of outlets. Broadcast media transmit information electronically via media such as films, radio, recorded music, or television. Digital media comprises both Internet and mobile mass communication. Internet media comprise such services as email, social media sites, websites, and Internet-based radio and television

Mass Media simply means technology that is intended to reach out to the target audience, It refers to means of communication to reach the target audience. There is

an evolution of the way mass media has been used from Pictorial representation at an early age, Newspaper, and Magazines to videos, and high tech media which involves the Internet and Computers. It is a source of information, entertainment, advertisement, and marketing to everyone across the world.

Mass Media is a medium to communicate the large masses whether oral, written, or broadcast to a larger audience. There was a time when people use to switch on the radio for listening bulletin information or pick up the newspaper for reading daily headlines and information to know what is going on in the world all-around with a cup of tea in their hands.

But with time, technology has changed and there are other media introduced to convey information to the masses such as:

- Books and Magazines
- Televisions
- Internet videos
- Films and
- Documentaries

There are various types of mass media we people, even the children who are at home watching cartoons and geography channels is also a kind of mass media.

There are 6 types of Mass Media:

Traditional Media

Print Media

Electronic Broadcasting Media

Outdoor Media

Transit Media

Digital Media or New Media

There are various types of mass media that provide us with various types of Political, Religious, Economics and Social related news and information to the masses or larger audience through print media or digital media.

Each media has its significance in some or the other way. For example newspapers, a print provides news headlines and information in rural areas and urban areas as well as a TV which also provides information, news and entertainment shows through a digital medium.

Traditional Media

Traditional Media is considered as the oldest form of mass media, which transfers culture and tradition from generation to generation. People over some time developed different ways of communicating through local languages and written mediums. Communication tools have been developed over some time from customs, rituals, beliefs, and practices of society.

There are various forms of Traditional media:

Folk Songs and Music

Theatres and Drama

Fairs and Festivals

Print Media

Print Media is defined as a Print form of information that is provided to the larger audience and is a part of mass media. During Ancient times or Early Age, information is conveyed to the masses through manuscripts.

Before the invention of the Printing press, the articles and printed matters are to be handwritten that was made available to a larger audience.

Transmitting information and news when the public is outside their homes are also known as Outdoor Media or Out of Home Media. The importance of outside media is that it provides information related to new products, social information or advertisement purposes to the masses.

Transit media revolve around the concept of advertising when customers are out of home and are going through any transport or on the go to public places.

Advertisements are displayed on the public transport and vehicles on which brand promotion of a product and services takes place.

VOCABULARY

Restriction- ta'qiq

Advertisements- reklamalar

Medium- vosita

Promotion- targ'ibot, tashviquot

Audience- tomoshabin

Concept- konseptsiya, tamoyil

Pictorial representation- raqamli tasvir

Questions

1. What is the mass media?
2. How many types are there in mass media?
3. Is the place of advertisements important for mass media?
4. What is the difference between traditional media and print media?

B1 Present perfect

We form the present perfect with *has/have* + past participle.

The past participle

- ♦ for regular verbs (*want* → *wanted*) and a few irregular verbs (*make* → *made*) is the same as the past simple.
- ♦ for most irregular verbs is different from the past simple (*break* → *broke, broken*; *go* → *went, gone*). (See p.viii.)

I/you/we/they have + past participle

he/she/it has + past participle

I/you/we/they have not (haven't) + past participle

he/she/it has not (hasn't) + past participle

Have I/you/we/they + past participle ...?

Has he/she/it + past participle ...?

They've arrived.

He hasn't arrived.

Has it arrived?

-C1

Exercises for grammar

1. She _____ traveled to most parts of the world.
A) have B) is C) has D) will
2. _____ you ever _____ in a car accident?
A) Has / been B) Have / been
C) Have / be D) Have / was
3. “_____ you _____ to Russia.”
“Yes, I _____.”
A) Had / be / haven't B) Has / been / have
C) Have / be / have D) Have / been / have
4. Have you _____ your homework?
A) do B) to do C) done D) did
5. I haven't done it _____.
A) yet B) already C) just D) since
6. I have _____ done it.
A) yet B) ago C) just D) since
7. Monica _____ many tournaments?
A) have / won B) has / win
C) have / win D) has / won
8. I've never _____ anyone who _____ more than you.
A) saw / eats B) seen / eat C) saw / eaten D) seen / eats
9. Angela _____ Thai food but Frank _____.
A) have eaten / hasn't B) has ate / hasn't
C) have ate / hasn't D) has eaten / hasn't
10. _____ she already bought a new car?
A) Did B) Has C) Does D) Have

1.11 - modul

Economic relations.

Gram: Present perfect and past simple.

Economic relations are one fundamental key for understanding the workings and transitions of past societies and for grappling with how and why those societies varied. Although archaeology has many goals, addressing such big complicated issues about long-term societal variation and change is certainly at the forefront of much archaeological thought, and the broad range of field and analytic research that is synthesized here under the rubric of economic archaeology is essential for moving forward on these issues. Over the last 50 years or so, buoyed by a new corpus of techniques and ways to conceptualize the archaeological record, scholars have forged a more dynamic economic archaeology that has endeavored to determine not only what people ate and how they financed their central institutions but also how and why shifts in these basic relations affected the course of local and regional histories.

Through the comparative examination of production, distribution, consumption, and stratification in different global regions, the discipline has made great progress in defining the many diverse ways that past societies worked and also sometimes why they did not. Such data are important for enlightening aspects of the past that rarely find their ways into written histories. They also enable us to understand the histories and consequences of past economic strategies that have been employed, and in what ways do contemporary economic relations truly vary from the practices employed at different points in the human past. This is not trivial, as it is now allowing us to correct and modify the notions and theories of economists and social theorists about premodern economics that often were born in the context of little or inadequate empirical information.

Despite the advances that have been made, economic archaeology remains at a young stage. The menu of questions waiting to be tackled remains robust and multi-disciplinary in implication and approaches. Yet in many, if not most, regions of the world, we still lack the systematic regional (and even macroregional) settlement surveys, the intensive site-based studies with rigorous collection strategies, and the domestic excavation results that provide the starting point for many kinds of economic investigation. At the same time, many faunal and floral as well as compositional analyses remain at a largely descriptive level, estranged from the economic archaeological questions that they are so necessary to elucidate.

Conceptually, we need to find broadly acceptable means to define marketing behavior and better ways to capture labor relations in the past. Finally, we must find a way to work systematically on the different scales of economic behavior from the macro- or world scale down to the transactions that took place between the co-residents of a house. As our archaeological efforts are practiced at these multiple scales, archaeology's chances to develop consensus answers to the big comparative issues regarding societal diversity, how it came to be, and how it changes over historical time will increase.

International economics is concerned with the effects upon economic activity from international differences in productive resources and consumer preferences and the international institutions that affect them. It seeks to explain the patterns and consequences of transactions and interactions between the inhabitants of different countries, including trade, investment and transaction.

VOCABULARY

International economics- xalqaro iqtisodiyot

Interaction- o'zaro ta'sir, o'zaro aloqa

Consensus- murosa, kelishuv

Archaeological- arxeologik

Contemporary- hozirgi

Transaction- kelishuv, bitim

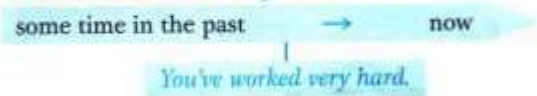

Diversity- xilma-xillik

International institutions- xalqaro institutlar

Questions

1. What is the economic relations?
2. What is important for enlightening aspects of the past that rarely find their ways into written histories?
3. What make us enable to understand the histories and consequences of past economic strategies?
4. What is the fundamental key for understanding the workings and transitions of past societies?

B2 Present perfect and past simple (for past simple forms see Unit 5)

<p>We use the present perfect not the past simple</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ for past events when the exact time is not important, but the result is interesting now: <i>They have moved to another town.</i> (= They don't live here now.) <i>She's passed her driving test.</i> (= She can drive to work.) <i>The bus has arrived.</i> (= We can get onto it.) ♦ for a period of time beginning in the past and continuing to now (often with <i>since</i> and <i>for</i>): <i>You have worked very hard.</i>  <i>I've worked there for two months.</i> <i>I've worked there since April.</i> (= I still work there now.) 	<p>We use the past simple not the present perfect</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ for past events at a particular time: <i>They moved in July.</i> <i>She passed her driving test yesterday.</i> <i>The bus arrived at six.</i> ♦ for a period of time beginning and ending in the past (sometimes with <i>for</i>): <i>You worked very hard last year.</i>  <i>She worked at the cinema for ten months.</i> (= But she doesn't work there now.)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ <i>not</i> with <i>still</i> and <i>yet</i> and in questions with <i>yet</i>: <i>I still haven't dried my hair.</i> (= it's wet) <i>I haven't put the balloons up yet.</i> (= I want to – they're on the floor) <i>Have the guests arrived yet?</i> ▲ <i>Still</i> goes before the verb and <i>yet</i> goes after it. ♦ for questions asking <i>how long</i> until now: <i>How long have you known Annie?</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ for actions and events started in the past which are finished, often with <i>ago</i>: <i>I dried my hair half an hour ago.</i> (= it was wet but it's dry now) <i>I didn't put the balloons up.</i> (= because I decided not to have a party) ♦ for questions asking <i>when</i>: <i>When did you meet?</i>

—C2

Exercises for grammar

- Have you _____ your homework?
A) do B) to do C) done D) did
- She has _____ to Portugal.
A) going B) went C) gone D) went
- She's _____ the letter. She _____ it yesterday.
A) wrote / wrote B) written / written
C) wrote / written D) written / wrote
- Mason _____ his homework 10 minutes ago, but I've not finished mine _____.
A) finished / yet B) finish / just
C) finished / just D) finish / just
- A- Have you ever _____ a holiday in India?
B- Yes, we have. We _____ there in 2000.
A) had / 've gone B) * / went

- C) had / went D) have / went
6. First he _____ his jumper, then _____ his best shirt.
 A) took off / put on B) took after / put on
 C) turned up / tried on D) tried on / turned up
7. Angela _____ Thai food but Frank _____ .
 A) have eaten / hasn't B) has ate / hasn't
 C) have ate / hasn't D) has eaten / hasn't
8. I _____ John yesterday.
 A) see B) seen C) 'm seeing D) saw
9. _____ she already bought a new car?
 A) Did B) Has C) Does D) Have
10. They've _____ on a double-decker bus.
 A) travel B) traveled C) traveling D) travels

1.12 - modul	Revenue Gram: Other uses of the present perfect. <i>Have gone and have been.</i>
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In accounting, revenue is the total amount of income generated by the sale of goods and services related to the primary operations of the business. Commercial revenue may also be referred to as sales or as turnover. Some companies receive revenue from interest, royalties, or other fees. "Revenue" may refer to income in general, or it may refer to the amount, in a monetary unit, earned during a period of time, as in "Last year, Company X had revenue of \$42 million". Profits or net income generally imply total revenue minus total expenses in a given period. In accounting, in the balance statement, revenue is a subsection of the Equity section and revenue increases equity, it is often referred to as the "top line" due to its position on the income statement at the very top. This is to be contrasted with the "bottom line" which denotes net income (gross revenues minus total expenses).

In general usage, Revenue is the total amount of income generated by the sale of goods or services related to the company's primary operations Sales revenue is income received from selling goods or services over a period of time. Tax revenue is income that a government receives from taxpayers. Fundraising revenue is income received by a charity from donors etc. to further its social purposes.

In more formal usage, revenue is a calculation or estimation of periodic income based on a particular standard accounting practice or the rules established by a government or government agency. Two common accounting methods, cash basis accounting and accrual basis accounting, do not use the same process for measuring revenue. Corporations that offer shares for sale to the public are usually required by law to report revenue based on generally accepted accounting principles or on International Financial Reporting Standards.

In a double-entry bookkeeping system, revenue accounts are general ledger accounts that are summarized periodically under the heading "Revenue" or

"Revenues" on an income statement. Revenue account-names describe the type of revenue, such as "Repair service revenue", "Rent revenue earned" or "Sales".

Revenue is the value of all sales of goods and services recognized by a company in a period. Revenue (also referred to as Sales or Income) forms the beginning of a company's income statement and is often considered the "Top Line" of a business. Expenses are deducted from a company's revenue to arrive at its Profit or Net Income.

VOCABULARY

Expense- xarajat

Revenue- daromad, foyda

Commercial – tijotiy, tijoratga oid

Equity – adolatlilik, haqqoniylik

Financial – moliyaviy

Taxpayers- soliq to'lovchi

Royalty- avtorlik gonorari

Fee- to'lov

Questions

1. What is the revenue?
2. What is the expense?
3. What should not we use for measuring revenue?
4. What is the total amount of income generated by the sale of goods or services?

B3 Other uses of the present perfect

We use the present perfect

- ◆ with *just* for an event a short time before now:

I've just met her. (= a few minutes ago)

- ◆ with adverbs *already*, *before*, *ever* and *never*, meaning 'before now' (see also Unit 2):

We've already met.

Has he ever met her?

We've met before.

- ◆ with superlatives (see Unit 3):

You make the best pizza I've ever eaten.

- ◆ after the expressions *the first/last etc. time*:

That's the second time you've asked me.

B4 Have gone and have been

▲ To go has two forms in the present perfect: *have gone* and *have been*. The meanings are different.

“ ”

Exercises for grammar

1. My brother's _____ to America 4 times.
A) been B) gone C) went D) being
2. It's good to see you again. Where have you _____ ?
A) gone B) being C) been D) went
3. _____ you ever _____ in a car accident?
A) Has / been B) Have / been
C) Have / be D) Have / was
4. “ _____ you _____ to Russia.”
“Yes, I _____ .”
A) Had / be / haven't B) Has / been / have
C) Have / be / have D) Have / been / have
5. She has _____ to Portugal.
A) going B) went C) gone D) went
6. Monica _____ many tournaments?
A) have / won B) has / win
C) have / win D) has / won
7. I've _____ the latest Star Wars film. I _____ it last week.
A) seen / saw B) see / saw C) seen / seen D) saw / saw
8. She's _____ the letter. She _____ it yesterday.
A) wrote / wrote B) written / written
C) wrote / written D) written / wrote
9. She is only 14 years old, but she _____ many tournaments in her life.
A) already won B) 's already won
C) already win D) 've already won
10. _____ Sandra _____ ridden a horse?
A) Has / never B) Have / never
C) Have / never D) Has / ever

**1.13 -
modul**

Demand and Supply.
Gram: Past perfect.

In microeconomics, supply and demand is an economic model of price determination in a market. It postulates that, holding all else equal, in a competitive market, the unit price for a particular good, or other traded item such as labor or liquid financial assets, will vary until it settles at a point where the quantity demanded

(at the current price) will equal the quantity supplied (at the current price), resulting in an economic equilibrium for price and quantity transacted.

Supply and demand are among the most important concepts in economics. They drive the prices of goods and services in a market economy, as well as salary levels.

– Demand represents how much of a product or service people want.

– Supply represents how much (the quantity) of a good or service a market can provide or offer.

The amount of a product people are willing to buy at a price is “the quantity demanded.” The relationship between demand and price is called the demand relationship.

Supply and demand, in economics, relationship between the quantity of a commodity that producers wish to sell at various prices and the quantity that consumers wish to buy. It is the main model of price determination used in economic theory. The price of a commodity is determined by the interaction of supply and demand in a market. The resulting price is referred to as the equilibrium price and represents an agreement between producers and consumers of the good. In equilibrium the quantity of a good supplied by producers equals the quantity demanded by consumers.

The quantity of a commodity demanded depends on the price of that commodity and potentially on many other factors, such as the prices of other commodities, the incomes and preferences of consumers, and seasonal effects. In basic economic analysis, all factors except the price of the commodity are often held constant; the analysis then involves examining the relationship between various price levels and the maximum quantity that would potentially be purchased by consumers at each of those prices. The price-quantity combinations may be plotted on a curve, known as a demand curve, with price represented on the vertical axis and quantity represented on the horizontal axis.

To understand the market mechanism, one needs to have a good knowledge of demand and supply, as these two forces regulate the entire market. Demand implies the desire for a good, supported by the ability and readiness to pay for it. On the other hand, supply alludes to the total amount of a commodity ready for sale.

When demand rises there is a shortage in the supply and when a supply is enough the demand falls short, so there is an inverse relationship between these two elements. Nowadays people are very selective regarding the things they use, carry and wear. They are very conscious about what to purchase and what not to? A little change in the prices or the availability of a commodity affects people drastically.

The demand and supply model is helpful in simplifying how the price and quantity traded are ascertained in the market as well as how the outside forces affect the demand and supply of the commodity. Go through with this write-up to get a clear understanding of the difference between demand and supply.

VOCABULARY

Demand- talab

Supply- taklif

Inverse- teskari, qarama-qarshi

Commodity- Tovar, mol, iste'mol buyumi

Consumer- iste'molchi

Purchase- xarid

Producer- ishlab chiqaruvchi

Assets- mol-mulk, asosiy vosita

Labor- mehnat

Agreement- kelishuv, bitim

Questions

1. Are the price of the commodity often held constant or fluctuated?
2. What is considered as an agreement between producers and consumers of the good?
3. What is the main model of price determination used in economic theory?
4. What is the most important concepts in economics?

B1 Past perfect

We form the past perfect with *had* + past participle. (See notes on past participles in Unit 6 and the table of irregular verbs on p. viii.)

+	<i>I/you/he/she/it/we/they had</i> + past participle	<i>We'd eaten lunch.</i>
-	<i>I/you/he/she/it/we/they had not (hadn't)</i> + past participle	<i>I hadn't eaten lunch.</i>
?	<i>Had I/you/he/she/it/we/they</i> + past participle ...?	<i>Had they eaten lunch?</i>

-C1

- ◆ in sentences that have *when* + past simple, to show that one event happened before the other:

<i>When I arrived, Stefan had finished his work.</i> =	1 He finished work
	2 (later) I arrived.

Exercises for grammar

1. Lisa _____ me a lift because I _____ the bus.
A) gave / missed B) have given / have missed
C) gave / had missed D) had gave / missed

2. When I got to the office, I _____ that I _____ to lock the front door.
 A) had realized / forget B) realized / had forgotten
 C) realized / forget D) had realized / had forgotten
3. After they _____ their work, they _____ home.
 A) had finished / went B) finished / went
 C) had finished / had gone D) finished / had gone
4. I _____ you at 8.00, but you _____ just _____ out.
 A) call / have / gone B) called / have / gone
 C) called / had / gone D) have called / have / gone
5. After I _____ to the news, I _____ to bed.
 A) listened / went B) had listened / went
 C) have listened / had gone D) listen / go
6. I _____ to sleep until I _____ my homework.
 A) don't go / did B) had not gone / had done
 C) didn't go / did D) didn't go / had done
7. I had read the book _____ I saw the film.
 A) when B) before C) until D) after
8. _____ I had had a bath I went to bed.
 A) Before B) Soon as C) After D) Until
9. "The people who I looked after are very well."
 She said that the people who she _____ after _____ very well.
 A) were looking / are B) have looked / are
 C) would looked / were D) had looked / were
10. As soon as he _____ his driving test, he _____ a car.
 A) passed / bought B) had passed / bought
 C) passes / had bought D) passed / had bought

**1.14 -
modul**

A natural monopoly.
 Gram: Past perfect and past simple.

A natural monopoly is a monopoly in an industry in which high infrastructural costs and other barriers to entry relative to the size of the market give the largest supplier in an industry, often the first supplier in a market, an overwhelming advantage over potential competitors.

A natural monopoly is a monopoly in an industry in which high infrastructural costs and other barriers to entry relative to the size of the market give the largest supplier in an industry, often the first supplier in a market, an overwhelming advantage over potential competitors. This frequently occurs in industries where capital costs predominate, creating economies of scale that are large in relation to the size of the market; examples include public utilities such as water services and electricity. Natural monopolies were recognized as potential sources of market failure

as early as the 19th century; John Stuart Mill advocated government regulation to make them serve the public good.

A natural monopoly is a type of monopoly that exists typically due to the high start-up costs or powerful economies of scale of conducting a business in a specific industry which can result in significant barriers to entry for potential competitors. A company with a natural monopoly might be the only provider of a product or service in an industry or geographic location. Natural monopolies can arise in industries that require unique raw materials, technology, or similar factors to operate.

Natural monopolies can also arise when one firm is much more efficient than multiple firms in providing the good or service to the market. A good example of this is in the business of electricity transmission where once a grid is set up to deliver electric power to all of the homes in a community, putting in a second, redundant grid to compete makes little sense.

A natural monopoly is a type of monopoly that arises due to unique circumstances where high start-up costs and significant economies of scale lead to only one firm being able to efficiently provide the service in a certain territory.

A company with a natural monopoly might be the only provider of product or service in an industry or geographic location.

Natural monopolies are allowed when a single company can supply a product or service at a lower cost than any potential competitor but are often heavily regulated to protect consumers.

A natural monopoly, as the name implies, becomes a monopoly over time due to market conditions and without any unfair business practices that might stifle competition. Some monopolies use tactics to gain an unfair advantage by using collusion, mergers, acquisitions, and hostile takeovers. Collusion might involve two rival competitors conspiring together to gain an unfair market advantage through coordinated price-fixing or increases.

Instead, natural monopolies occur in two ways. First, is when a company takes advantage of an industry's high barriers to entry to create a "moat", or protective wall, around its business operations. The high barriers to entry are often due to the significant amount of capital or cash needed to purchase fixed assets, which are physical assets a company needs to operate.

The second is where producing at a large scale is so much more efficient than small-scale production, that a single large producer is sufficient to satisfy all available market demand. Because their costs are higher, small-scale producers can simply never compete with the larger, lower-cost producer.

VOCABULARY

Small-scale production- kichik hajmli ishlab chiqarish

Competitors- raqobatchilar, bellashuvchilar

Market condition- bozor sharoiti

Grid- elektr tarmog'i

Redundant- keraksiz, ishsiz

Commodity- Tovar, mol, iste'mol buyumi

Purchase- xarid

Assets- mol-mulk, asosiy vosita

Capital- mablag', poytaxt

Questions

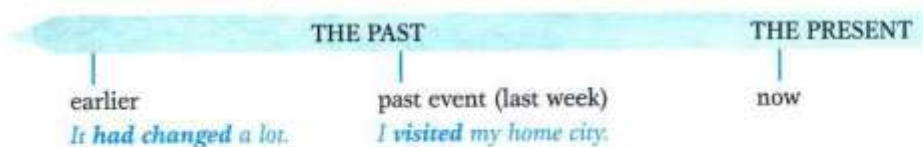
1. What is a natural monopoly?
2. Which is more efficient small-scale production or a single large producer?
3. In what ways natural monopolies occur?
4. Under what conditions natural monopolies are allowed?

B2 Past perfect and past simple

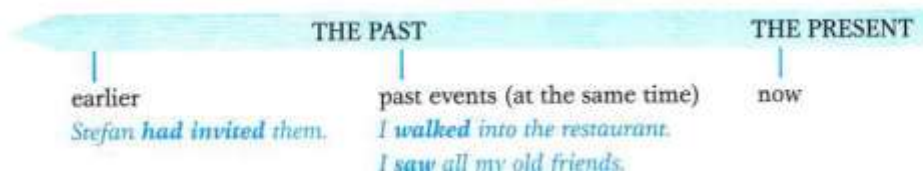
We use the past perfect

- to talk about something that happened before a past event:

*Last week I **visited** my home city. It **had changed** a lot.*



*I **walked** into the restaurant and I **saw** all my old friends. Stefan **had invited** them to join us.*



- in sentences that have *when* + past simple, to show that one event happened before the other:

<i>When I arrived, Stefan had finished his work.</i> =	1 He finished work
	2 (later) I arrived.

The two actions are separate.

Compare:

<i>When I arrived, Stefan stopped work.</i> =	I arrived and he stopped work at that time.
--	---

The two actions are probably connected.

Exercises for grammar

1. As soon as he _____ his driving test, he _____ a car.
 A) passed / bought B) had passed / bought
 C) passes / had bought D) passed / had bought
2. When I _____ the letter, I _____ it away.
 A) read / had thrown B) had read / had thrown
 C) had read / threw D) read / threw
3. "The people who I looked after are very well."
 She said that the people who she _____ after _____ very well.
 A) were looking / are B) have looked / are
 C) would looked / were D) had looked / were
4. I didn't recognize him because he _____ a haircut.
 A) had had B) has C) had D) have had
5. There's my wallet! I _____ for it for ages.
 A) have been looking B) looked
 C) have looked D) look
- We __ (26) __ in our new house for several months
6. I _____ the champion last week.
 A) saw B) have seen C) see D) seen
7. I _____ all their records since then.
 A) bought B) buy C) buyed D) have bought
8. Sarah's English is getting better. She _____ a lot of English since she
 _____ here.
 A) learnt / has come B) has learnt / has come
 C) has learnt / came D) learnt / came
9. Mike and Jack _____ here five months ago. They _____ in this city
 for five months.
 A) came / have been B) have come / have been
 C) come / were D) has come / has been
10. Alison _____ in Chicago, but she would like to go there one day.
 A) was B) has been
 C) wasn't D) has never been

1.15 - modul	Seesights of the world. Gram: Past perfect and past simple.
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Sometimes life becomes so stressful that people need to disconnect from their regular lives and recharge their 'batteries' to be able to overcome the difficulties they face daily. And here traveling comes to a help, giving the opportunity to have fun, adventure, feel the excitement of seeing a new place, learn about different cultures and traditions, and, at least, fully relax and enjoy a wonderful time. There are tons of

amazing sights in different corners of the world, all well-worth a visit but to help you in planning your next trip, we have piled up 10 best sights of the world that guarantee everything from enjoyment to adventure to full unwinding. Head and enjoy!

Grand Canyon in the United States

People from all over the world come here to look at the most beautiful view of the world, which becomes a living picture in the style of impressionist painters especially during sunset. The best point of view is Hopi Point. It shows a large plot of the Canyon. The best time to visit Grand Canyon is from April to May or from September to October, when the weather is good and there are not so many people.

View of Hong Kong from Kowloon

Huge lighted skyscrapers of Hong Kong are best seen from the Kowloon Peninsula. Victoria Harbor is discharged from the starry sky, and on a dark background of skyscrapers seem fantastic illustration from “Star Wars”. Particularly memorable is the moment, when at 8 pm light turn on and the sky turns blooms, like during a laser show. One of the busiest cities of the world with millions of people arriving and leaving every month Hong Kong hotel booking is the first thing to do as the decision is made to print this stunning view of the city in your memory forever.

Pang Nga Bay, Thailand

This is the famous bay between the island of Phuket and mainland Thailand with a lot of limestone pillars, hanging hundreds of meters above sea level. Ten thousand years ago people were able to walk between them, as if between the skyscrapers of Hong Kong, and now tourists visiting the site can see only the peaks.

View of Manhattan Rockefeller Plaza

Empire Street Building got a serious competitor. The classical view of the city from its top loses sight from a viewing platform at Rockefeller Center, mainly because of the incredible panorama of Central Park. If you give a good look, you can even see

Yankee Stadium in the Bronx.

Ngorongoro Crater in Tanzania

Ngorongoro Crater is one of the largest calderas of the world, which are formed when the volcano blows up and fails inside the mountain itself. The result is a beautiful circular valley, surrounded by a chain of mountain peaks. At the edge of calderas are located hotels from which you can observe the immense natural swimming pool, elephants, lions and wildebeest antelope. You can see all these from a safe distance, of course.

View of St. Paul’s Cathedral from Waterloo Bridge in London

Waterloo Bridge, hailed by many poems and paintings from the beginning of the XIX century, is situated in the bend of the River Thames and offers a traveler to get to one of the most beautiful views in London. St. Paul’s Cathedral, even among the

construction cranes and tall buildings, looks like a dowager queen of the English Parliament.

Golden Gate Bridge, San Francisco

It would be worth to take a good walk on the Golden Gate Bridge on foot to fully enjoy the view, but the cars in traffic jams weave at speeds of pedestrians and this is not attractive at all. So it is better to get to Hawk Hill and sit on a bench in the park, enjoying the view of the bay and bridge.

Machu Picchu in Peru

Mysterious deserted town, situated high above the valley of Rumba in central Peru, is surrounded on three sides by steep slopes. It appears before the tourists hovering in the air, and clouds, swim past the ruins, adding a special entourage in this giddy picture.

Yucatán Peninsula, Chichen-Icha, Mexico

Only 365 steps to the top of El Castillo, the head temple of Maya, and the traveler will see a unique picture of the wild jungles of Yucatan, which stretches as far as you can see. And only with good binoculars you will be able to search out other ruins, rising above the thick canopy of vegetation.

View of Sydney from Taronga zoo

It is difficult to say what city is the world's most beautiful – Rio de Janeiro, Hong Kong or Sydney? In any case, the view on a sunny Sydney from the Taronga zoo through a full marina bay to the Opera building, port and tower of the city is unforgettable.

VOCABULARY

Immense- ulkan, buyuk

Disconnect- aloqani uzmoq

Valuations- qiymatlar

Exchange – almashtirmoq, ayirboshlash

National economy – milliy iqtisodiyotlar

Adventure- sarguzasht

Competitors- raqobatchilar, bellashuvchilar

Commodity- Tovar, mol, iste'mol buyumi

Questions

1. Give some examples of sights of the world
2. Where are located St. Paul's Cathedral?
3. Why are sights important for countries' economy?
4. What is the name of the famous bay with a lot of limestone pillars?
5. Which city is famous for its huge lighted skyscrapers?

B1 Past perfect

We form the past perfect with *had* + past participle. (See notes on past participles in Unit 6 and the table of irregular verbs on p. viii.)

+	<i>I/you/he/she/it/we/they had</i> + past participle	<i>We'd eaten</i> lunch.
-	<i>I/you/he/she/it/we/they had not (hadn't)</i> + past participle	<i>I hadn't eaten</i> lunch.
?	Had <i>I/you/he/she/it/we/they</i> + past participle ...?	Had they eaten lunch?

→ C1

B3 Past perfect not past simple

We always use the past perfect not the past simple with *already*, *ever*, *never* and *just* when we mean before a time in the past:

They'd just started the year I left. (~~not They just started the year I left.~~)

I had already decided to become an engineer. (~~not I already decided.~~)

I'd never seen anything like it. (~~not I never saw.~~)

▲ *Already*, *ever*, *never* and *just* go between the auxiliary and the main verb.

→ C2

B4 used to

+	<i>I/you/he/she/it/we/they used to</i> + verb	<i>I used to live</i> in the city.
-	<i>I/you/he/she/it/we/they did not (didn't) use to</i> + verb	They didn't use to live in the city.
?	Did <i>I/you/he/she/it/we/they use to</i> + verb...?	Did she use to live in the city?

We make negatives and questions with *did* like a regular verb in the past simple (see Unit 5).

▲ There is no present tense of *used to* (~~not I use to~~ etc.). We use the present simple (see Unit 4).
I meet my friends on Saturday evenings. ~~not I use to meet my friends on Saturday evenings.~~

Exercises for grammar

1. Lisa _____ me a lift because I _____ the bus.
 A) gave / missed B) have given / have missed
 C) gave / had missed D) had gave / missed
2. I _____ her for everything she _____.
 A) thanking / did B) thanked / had done
 C) have thanked / has done D) had thanked / had done
3. When I got to the office, I _____ that I _____ to lock the front door.
 A) had realized / forget B) realized / had forgotten
 C) realized / forget D) had realized / had forgotten

4. After they _____ their work, they _____ home.
 A) had finished / went B) finished / went
 C) had finished / had gone D) finished / had gone
5. I took my family to Paris last year. I _____ there as a student, so I _____ my way around.
 A) was / know B) were / knew
 C) had been / have known D) had been / knew
6. After I _____ to the news, I _____ to bed.
 A) listened / went B) had listened / went
 C) have listened / had gone D) listen / go
7. I had read the book _____ I saw the film.
 A) when B) before C) until D) after
8. I _____ to sleep until I _____ my homework.
 A) don't go / did B) had not gone / had done
 C) didn't go / did D) didn't go / had done
9. I _____ the book back to the library after I _____ reading it.
 A) take / finished B) have taken / have finished
 C) took / had finished D) had taken / finished
10. I didn't recognize him because he _____ a haircut.
 A) had had B) has C) had D) have had

1.16 - modul	What is economics about Gram: Past Perfect tense. <i>Used to.</i>
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Economics is the social science that studies how people interact with value; in particular, the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services. Economics focuses on the behaviour and interactions of economic agents and how economies work. Microeconomics analyzes basic elements in the economy, including individual agents and markets, their interactions, and the outcomes of interactions.

Economics is a social science concerned with the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services. It studies how individuals, businesses, governments, and nations make choices about how to allocate resources. Economics focuses on the actions of human beings, based on assumptions that humans act with rational behavior, seeking the most optimal level of benefit or utility. The building blocks of economics are the studies of labor and trade. Since there are many possible applications of human labor and many different ways to acquire resources, it is the task of economics to determine which methods yield the best results.

Economics can generally be broken down into macroeconomics, which concentrates on the behavior of the economy as a whole, and microeconomics, which focuses on individual people and businesses.

Economics is the study of how people allocate scarce resources for production, distribution, and consumption, both individually and collectively.

Two major types of economics are microeconomics, which focuses on the behavior of individual consumers and producers, and macroeconomics, which examine overall economies on a regional, national, or international scale.

Economics is especially concerned with efficiency in production and exchange and uses models and assumptions to understand how to create incentives and policies that will maximize efficiency. Economists formulate and publish numerous economic indicators, such as gross domestic product (GDP) and the Consumer Price Index (CPI).

One of the earliest recorded economic thinkers was the 8th-century B.C. Greek farmer/poet Hesiod, who wrote that labor, materials, and time needed to be allocated efficiently to overcome scarcity. But the founding of modern Western economics occurred much later, generally credited to the publication of Scottish philosopher Adam Smith's 1776 book, *An Inquiry Into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*.

The principle (and problem) of economics is that human beings have unlimited wants and occupy a world of limited means. For this reason, the concepts of efficiency and productivity are held paramount by economists. Increased productivity and a more efficient use of resources, they argue, could lead to a higher standard of living.

Types of Economics

The study of economics is generally broken down into two disciplines.

Microeconomics focuses on how individual consumers and firms make decisions; these individual decision making units can be a single person, a household, a business/organization, or a government agency. Analyzing certain aspects of human behavior, microeconomics tries to explain how they respond to changes in price and why they demand what they do at particular price levels. Microeconomics tries to explain how and why different goods are valued differently, how individuals make financial decisions, and how individuals best trade, coordinate, and cooperate with one another. Microeconomics' topics range from the dynamics of supply and demand to the efficiency and costs associated with producing goods and services; they also include how labor is divided and allocated; how business firms are organized and function; and how people approach uncertainty, risk, and strategic game theory.

Macroeconomics studies an overall economy on both a national and international level, using highly aggregated economic data and variables to model the economy. Its focus can include a distinct geographical region, a country, a continent, or even the whole world. Its primary areas of study are recurrent economic cycles and broad economic growth and development. Topics studied include foreign trade, government fiscal and monetary policy, unemployment rates, the level of inflation and interest rates, the growth of total production output as reflected by changes in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), and business cycles that result in expansions, booms, recessions, and depressions.

Micro- and macroeconomics are intertwined. Aggregate macroeconomic phenomena are obviously and literally just the sum total of microeconomic phenomena. However these two branches of economics use very different theories, models, and research methods, which sometimes appear to conflict with each other.

Integrating the microeconomics foundations into macroeconomic theory and research is a major area of study in itself for many economists.

VOCABULARY

Macroeconomics – makroiqtisodiyot

Microeconomics- mikroiqtisodiyot

Efficiency- samaradorlik

Monetary policy- valyuta siyosati

Scarcity- ocharchilik

Utility- foydalanish

Assumption- faraz, taxmin

scarce resources- taqchil resurslar

Questions

1. What is Macroeconomics?
2. What is Microeconomics?
3. On what microeconomics focuses on?
4. On what macroeconomics focuses on?
5. Who was the earliest recorded economic thinkers?
6. Which type of economy tries to explain how and why different goods are valued differently?

B1 Past perfect

We form the past perfect with *had* + past participle. (See notes on past participles in Unit 6 and the table of irregular verbs on p. viii.)

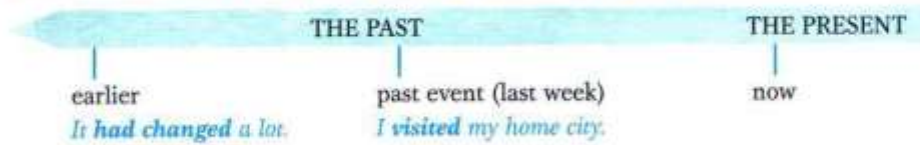
+	<i>I/you/he/she/it/we/they had</i> + past participle	<i>We'd eaten lunch.</i>
-	<i>I/you/he/she/it/we/they had not (hadn't)</i> + past participle	<i>I hadn't eaten lunch.</i>
?	<i>Had I/you/he/she/it/we/they</i> + past participle ...?	<i>Had they eaten lunch?</i>

-C1

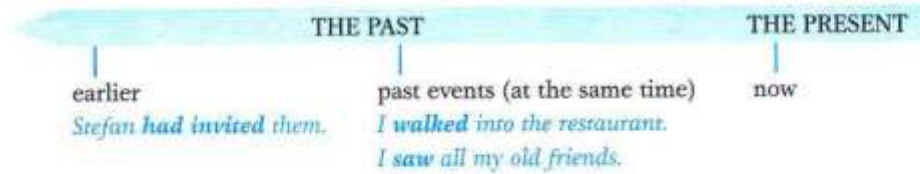
We use the past perfect

- to talk about something that happened before a past event:

Last week I **visited** my home city. It **had changed** a lot.



I **walked** into the restaurant and I **saw** all my old friends. Stefan **had invited** them to join us.



- in sentences that have *when* + past simple, to show that one event happened before the other:

<i>When I arrived, Stefan had finished his work.</i> =	1 He finished work
	2 (later) I arrived.

Exercises for grammar

- Lisa _____ me a lift because I _____ the bus.
A) gave / missed B) have given / have missed
C) gave / had missed D) had gave / missed
- I _____ her for everything she _____.
A) thanking / did B) thanked / had done
C) have thanked / has done D) had thanked / had done
- When I got to the office, I _____ that I _____ to lock the front door.
A) had realized / forget B) realized / had forgotten
C) realized / forget D) had realized / had forgotten
- After they _____ their work, they _____ home.
A) had finished / went B) finished / went
C) had finished / had gone D) finished / had gone
- I took my family to Paris last year. I _____ there as a student, so I _____ my way around.
A) was / know B) were / knew
C) had been / have known D) had been / knew
- After I _____ to the news, I _____ to bed.
A) listened / went B) had listened / went
C) have listened / had gone D) listen / go
- I had read the book _____ I saw the film.
A) when B) before C) until D) after
- I _____ to sleep until I _____ my homework.
A) don't go / did B) had not gone / had done
C) didn't go / did D) didn't go / had done
- I _____ the book back to the library after I _____ reading it.

- A) take / finished B) have taken / have finished
C) took / had finished D) had taken / finished
10. I didn't recognize him because he _____ a haircut.
A) had had B) has C) had D) have had

**1.17 –
modul**

Economy of Uzbekistan.
Gram: Nouns. *Plurals.*

Since independence, the economy of Uzbekistan continues to exist as a Soviet-style command economy with slow transformation to market economy. The progress of governmental economic policy reforms has been cautious, but cumulatively Uzbekistan has shown respectable achievements. Its restrictive trade regime and generally interventionist policies continue to have a negative effect on the economy. Substantial structural reform is needed, particularly in these areas: improving the investment climate for foreign investors, strengthening the banking system, and freeing the agricultural sector from state control. Remaining restrictions on currency conversion capacity and other government measures to control economic activity, including the implementation of severe import restrictions and sporadic closures of Uzbekistan's borders with neighboring Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, and Tajikistan have led international lending organizations to suspend or scale back credits.

Uzbekistan has increased the rights of minority shareholders and their role in major corporate decisions. Ownership and control structures have been clarified, and corporate transparency has been enhanced. The value added per worker has risen. According to the IMF, government subsidies were forecast to consume 0.3 percent of GDP in 2020.

The Uzbek economy remained mostly unfree this year. In 2020, however, the government announced a new development strategy that includes reforming state institutions, securing the rule of law, reforming the judiciary, strengthening the banking and financial sectors, and other improvements such as reducing state regulation and assuring property rights to attract investment. If it proves successful, Uzbekistan could one day join the ranks of the moderately free.

Since independence, the Government of Uzbekistan has stated that it is committed to a gradual transition to a market-based economy. The progress with economic policy reforms has been cautious, but cumulatively Uzbekistan has registered respectable achievements. The government is yet to eliminate the gap between the black market and official exchange rates by successfully introducing convertibility of the national currency. Its restrictive trade regime and generally interventionist policies continue to have a negative effect on the economy. Substantial structural reform is needed, particularly in the area of improving the investment climate for foreign investors, strengthening the banking system, and freeing the agricultural sector from state control. Remaining restrictions on currency conversion capacity and other government measures to control economic activity, including the implementation of severe import restrictions and sporadic closures of Uzbekistan's borders with neighboring Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, and Tajikistan have led international lending organizations to suspend or scale back credits.

VOCABULARY

A market-based economy- bozor munosabatlariga asoslangan iqtisod

Currency- valyuta

Agricultural – yerga oid

Convertibility – o'zgaruvchanlik

Shareholder- hissador

Transparency – oshkoralik, shaffoflik

Efficiency- samaradorlik

Monetary policy- valyuta siyosati

Import restrictions- import ta'qiqlari

Questions

1. What is import restrictions?
2. When did our government announce a new development strategy?
3. In what areas do we need substantial structural reforms?

4. What is the transformation to market economy?

B1 Plurals

Some things we wear or use are always plural. They are made of two parts which cannot be separate: *trousers, pyjamas, shorts, jeans, tights, pants, sunglasses, glasses, scissors*. They have a plural verb:

My trousers are new. (not My trouser is new.)

These shorts are dirty. (not This short is dirty.)

Other things we wear can be singular. They are made of two parts which can be separate: *shoe/shoes, sock/socks, earring/earrings*.

▲ The word *clothes* is never singular: *I bought some new clothes. (not I bought a new clothe.)* **-C1**

C Grammar exercises

C1 Which of the plural words in the box can we also use in the singular form?

boots bracelets clothes earrings gloves
jeans shorts socks shoes tights

C2 Look at this notice from a holiday cottage. For each of the underlined words, add s if it is plural countable.

Rose Cottage, Hobbs Farm, Newton, Near Norwich

Welcome!

To help you enjoy your stay, we offer some 1 advice for 2 visitor s..... .

You can use 3 euro in Norwich city centre but you need English 4 money at the shop in Newton village. This shop sells good 5 bread and you can buy fresh 6 vegetable from the farmhouse. For other 7 food use the 8 shop in Ridby or Walcot.

If you want some 9 information about 10 travel and 11 traffic in the Ridby area, try the local radio station.

Notes

If you want to listen to 12 music please remember to keep the volume down.

Please use only garden 13 chair in the garden. Do not take any sitting-room 14 furniture outside.

Please be careful not to bring any 15 sand or 16 stone into the cottage from the beach.

Thank you - enjoy your stay!

1.18 – modul

Interest rates.

Gram: A(n), the and no article.

An interest rate is the amount of interest due per period, as a proportion of the amount lent, deposited, or borrowed (called the principal sum). The total interest on an amount lent or borrowed depends on the principal sum, the interest rate, the compounding frequency, and the length of time over which it is lent, deposited, or borrowed.

The interest rate is defined as the proportion of an amount loaned which a lender charges as interest to the borrower, normally expressed as an annual percentage. It is the rate a bank or other lender charges to borrow its money, or the rate a bank pays its savers for keeping money in an account.

The annual interest rate is the rate over a period of one year. Other interest rates apply over different periods, such as a month or a day, but they are usually annualized.

The interest rate has been characterized as "an index of the preference . . . for a dollar of present [income] over a dollar of future income. The borrower wants, or needs, to have money sooner rather than later, and is willing to pay a fee—the interest rate—for that privilege.

Interest rates apply to most lending or borrowing transactions. Individuals borrow money to purchase homes, fund projects, launch or fund businesses, or pay for college tuition. Businesses take out loans to fund capital projects and expand their operations by purchasing fixed and long-term assets such as land, buildings, and machinery. Borrowed money is repaid either in a lump sum by a pre-determined date or in periodic installments.

The interest rate is the amount charged on top of the principal by a lender to a borrower for the use of assets.

An interest rate also applies to the amount earned at a bank or credit union from a deposit account.

Most mortgages use simple interest. However, some loans use compound interest, which is applied to the principal but also to the accumulated interest of previous periods.

A borrower that is considered low risk by the lender will have a lower interest rate. A loan that is considered high risk will have a higher interest rate.

Consumer loans typically use an APR, which does not use compound interest.

The APY is the interest rate that is earned at a bank or credit union from a savings account or CD. Savings accounts and CDs use compounded interest.

An interest rate is the amount a borrower pays a lender to use the lender's capital. It is typically given as an annual value or annual percentage rate (APR). The actual amount the borrower pays is determined by the amount of the loan, which is called the principal.

A lender usually charges a higher rate for a riskier loan. This is determined by the borrower's credit, the period of time the borrower will be using the capital and the market alternatives available to both parties.

VOCABULARY

Transaction- kelishuv, bitim

Loan- qarz

Borrower- qarz oluvchi

Lender- qarz beruvchi

Capital- mablag'

Mortgage- ipoteka, uy uchun olingan qarz

pre-determined date- oldindan belgilangan sana

periodic installment –davriy to'lovlar

Questions

1. What is the interest rate?
2. What are the differences between borrowers and lenders?
3. Should borrowed money be repaid in a lump sum by a pre-determined date or in periodic installments?
4. What is the principal?
5. Do most mortgages use simple interest or compound interest?

B4 *The or no article*

Places

There is no article before

- ♦ continents, most countries, states, cities, towns, villages:
Europe, Italy, London, Florida but we say **the Netherlands**.
- ♦ buildings and places that use the name of their town:
Manchester Airport, Cardiff Station, Edinburgh Castle, Durham University
- ▲ We say *at school, at work, at home* and *in bed*.

We put *the* before

- ♦ names of countries that include a word like *Republic* or *States*:
the United States, the Czech Republic
- ♦ oceans, seas and rivers: **the Pacific Ocean, the Danube** but not before lakes: *Lake Ontario*.
- ♦ regions: **the Far East, the north**
- ♦ groups of islands: **the Philippines**
- ♦ deserts and mountain ranges: **the Kalahari, the Himalayas** but not before one mountain:
Mount Everest
- ♦ the environment: **the sea, the coast, the seaside, the beach, the country, the mountains, the hills, the sky, the sun, the moon**

Jobs

We say *I'm a doctor.* (~~not I'm doctor.~~)

Entertainment

We *listen to the radio* but we *watch television.*

We *play the guitar* (a musical instrument) but we *play tennis* (a sport).

We *go to the cinema, the theatre* etc.

Travel

We *travel by train, bus* etc. (~~not by the train.~~)

Meals

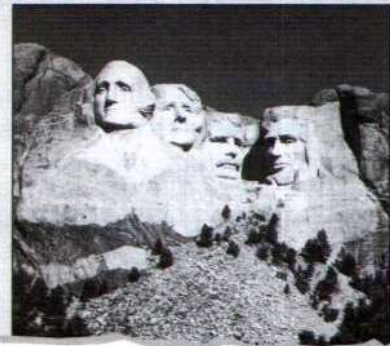
We *have lunch, dinner* etc. (~~not the lunch~~ etc.)

C3 Read these short newspaper articles. Add *the, a* or *an* or nothing to the gaps.

1

THAT WAS LUCKY!

Last weekend 1 *a* group of tourists had 2
lucky escape near 3 Mount Rushmore in
4 United States. Their car was hit by 5
small plane making an emergency landing. 6
pilot broke two toes. 7 tourists were not hurt,
but their car and 8 plane were damaged.



2

NO MORE FOREIGN HOLIDAYS?

‘We must do more to prevent pollution,’ 1 professor at Exeter University
in 2 South of England said yesterday. Professor Kirkwell said that
pollution is increasing all over 3 world. ‘Places like 4 Andes mountains
and 5 Sahara desert will get warmer, and some small islands will disappear.
Everyone wants to travel by 6 plane but this cannot continue. People must think
more carefully about 7 environment when they choose 8 holiday.’

Grammar focus task

Look at the words you put in the spaces.

- 1 Which words are nouns?
- 2 Which of these are countable?
- 3 Which are uncountable?
- 4 How many words did you write in (5)?

C4 There is one mistake in each of these sentences. Find them and correct them.

- 1 I want to buy some trouser^s so I'll meet you by the new clothes shop.
- 2 Tom Cruise was wearing a black jacket, black jean and black shoes.
- 3 I'm happy with a furniture in my room, but I want to change the curtains.
- 4 I'm sending this card to wish you a good luck for your driving test.
- 5 My cousin's just been on a travel round France.
- 6 I listen to musics when I'm working so I feel more relaxed.
- 7 The weather was marvellous so we went to beach and swam in the sea.
- 8 I'll go to the swimming-pool for some informations about diving lessons.
- 9 If I send you a money, will you buy me some earrings like yours?
- 10 We saw some lovely old towns in Czech Republic on our last holiday.

**1.19 –
modul**

The discount rate.
Gram: Countable and uncountable nouns.

The discount rate is the interest rate charged to commercial banks and other financial institutions for short-term loans they take from the Federal Reserve Bank. The term discount rate can refer to either the interest rate that the Federal Reserve charges banks for short-term loans or the rate used to discount future cash flows in discounted cash flow (DCF) analysis.

In a banking context, discount lending is a key tool of monetary policy and part of the Fed's function as the lender-of-last-resort.

In discounted cash flow analysis, the discount rate expresses the time value of money and can make the difference between whether an investment project is financially viable or not.

The term “discount rate” refers to the factor used to discount the future cash flows back to the present day.

The discount rate can mean: 1. The interest rate that the central bank charges on money it lends to commercial banks. The US Federal Reserve, for example, does it through its discount window loan process. 2. A reduction of an invoice total if the purchaser pays before a specific date. In this sense, it also means the reduction in price per item if you buy more than a certain number. 3. The interest rate we use in discounted cash flow analysis to determine the current value of future cash flows. 4. The rate at which you can cash in an accounts receivable or bill of exchange before its maturity date.

The term may also apply to the fees that merchants have to pay when their customers use credit cards.

What Does Discount Rate Mean?

It can also be considered the interest rate used to calculate the present value of future cash flows.

Thus, it's a required component of any present value or future value calculation. Investors, bankers, and company management use this rate to judge whether an investment is worth considering or should be discarded.

What Does Discount Rate Mean?

The discount rate is a rate of return that is used in a business valuation to convert a series of future anticipated cash flow from a company to present value under the discounted cash flow approach.

The most common method to derive the discount rate is using a weighted average cost of capital approach which represents a weighted average of the after-tax cost of debt and the cost of equity where the weighting is based on a company's target debt-equity ratio, measured at market.

A capitalization rate and discount rate are often confused in the determination of business value. They are different in the fact that a capitalization rate is applied to a single discretionary cash flow, whereby a discount rate is applied to a series of cash flows presented in a forecast. The capitalization rate is calculated by deducting a growth factor from the discount rate.

VOCABULARY

Value- qiymat

Maturity date- amal qilish muddati

Discount rate- chegirma stavkasi

Interest rate – stavka foizi

Merchant- tijoratchi

Cash flow – pul oqimi

Monetary policy- valyuta siyosati

After-tax cost of debt – soliqdan keyingi qarzning qiymati

Questions

1. What Does Discount Rate Mean?
2. What Does Ineterest Rate Mean?
3. What are cash flows ?
4. What is used to calculate the present value of future cash flows?

B3 Countable and uncountable nouns

Countable nouns (e.g. *shoe, passport*)

- ◆ can be singular with *a, the*:
a passport, the phone
I've got a problem. (not I've got problem.)
- ◆ can be plural with no article, *some* or *the*:
shoes, some cars, the cars
- ◆ have a singular or plural verb:
The car is new. The cars are new.

Uncountable nouns (e.g. *air, bread, food, help, ice, music, money, pollution, rain, sand, travel*):

- ◆ use *the, some* or no article but not *a*:
the money, some money, money (not a money)
- ◆ cannot be plural:
money (not moneys), music (not musics)
- ◆ always have a singular verb:
The music is perfect. (not The musics are perfect.)

Exercises for grammar

1. Would you like _____ rice?
A) a B) some C) an D) any
2. Can I have _____ stamps, please?
A) a B) an C) some D) any
3. Can you give me _____ money?
A) some B) a C) any D) an
4. I usually have _____ biscuit and _____ cup of coffee at 11 a.m.
A) a/some B) some/some C) a/a D) a/any
5. He always has _____ egg for breakfast.
A) an B) a C) any D) the
6. Are there _____ letters for me this morning?
A) some B) a C) the D) any
7. You have _____ lovely pictures in your house.
A) some B) a C) an D) any

**1.20 –
modul**

Resources, inputs, technology and output.

Gram: The or no article.

Resource refers to all the materials available in our environment which help us to satisfy our needs and wants. Resources can broadly be classified upon their availability — they are classified into renewable and non-renewable resources. They can also be classified as actual and potential on the basis of the level of development and use, on the basis of origin they can be classified as biotic and abiotic, and on the basis of their distribution, as ubiquitous and localised (private, community-owned, national and international resources). An item becomes a resource with time and

developing technology. The benefits of resource utilization may include increased wealth, proper functioning of a system, or enhanced well-being. From a human perspective, a natural resource is anything obtained from the environment to satisfy human needs and wants. From a broader biological or ecological perspective, a resource satisfies the needs of a living organism (see biological resource).

Technology is the sum of techniques, skills, methods, and processes used in the production of goods or services or in the accomplishment of objectives, such as scientific investigation. Technology can be the knowledge of techniques, processes, and the like, or it can be embedded in machines to allow for operation without detailed knowledge of their workings.

In computing, input/output (I/O, or informally io or IO) is the communication between an information processing system, such as a computer, and the outside world, possibly a human or another information processing system. Inputs are the signals or data received by the system and outputs are the signals or data sent from it. The term can also be used as part of an action; to "perform I/O" is to perform an input or output operation.

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I/O devices are the pieces of hardware used by a human (or other system) to communicate with a computer. For instance, a keyboard or computer mouse is an input device for a computer, while monitors and printers are output devices. Devices for communication between computers, such as modems and network cards, typically perform both input and output operations.

The designation of a device as either input or output depends on perspective. Mice and keyboards take physical movements that the human user outputs and convert them into input signals that a computer can understand; the output from these devices is the computer's input. Similarly, printers and monitors take signals that

computers output as input, and they convert these signals into a representation that human users can understand. From the human user's perspective, the process of reading or seeing these representations is receiving output; this type of interaction between computers and humans is studied in the field of human–computer interaction. A further complication is that a device traditionally considered an input device, e.g., card reader, keyboard, may accept control commands to, e.g., select stacker, display keyboard lights, while a device traditionally considered as an output device may provide status data, e.g., low toner, out of paper, paper jam.

VOCABULARY

Availability- yaroqlilik

Renewable- qayta tiklanadigan

Non-renewable- qayta tiklanmaydigan

Natural resource- tabiiy resurs

Scientific investigation – ilmiy izlanish

Resource utilization- resurslardan foydalanish

Value- qiymat

Merchant- tijoratchi

Questions

1. How can resources be classified upon their availability?
2. What do input and output mean?
3. Give the definition of technology
4. What term can be used as part of an action?

B4 The or no article

Places

There is no article before

- ◆ continents, most countries, states, cities, towns, villages:
Europe, Italy, London, Florida but we say **the Netherlands**.
- ◆ buildings and places that use the name of their town:
Manchester Airport, Cardiff Station, Edinburgh Castle, Durham University
- ▲ We say *at school, at work, at home* and *in bed*.

We put *the* before

- ◆ names of countries that include a word like *Republic* or *States*:
the United States, the Czech Republic
- ◆ oceans, seas and rivers: **the Pacific Ocean, the Danube** but not before lakes: *Lake Ontario*.
- ◆ regions: **the Far East, the north**
- ◆ groups of islands: **the Philippines**
- ◆ deserts and mountain ranges: **the Kalahari, the Himalayas** but not before one mountain:
Mount Everest
- ◆ the environment: **the sea, the coast, the seaside, the beach, the country, the mountains, the hills, the sky, the sun, the moon**

3

THE WRONG JOB

Janice Miller left her job at 1
cinema near 2 Bristol in 3
west of England yesterday after only one
day because she didn't want to watch
4 horror film. 'I didn't know I'd see
any films,' she explained. 'I saw 5
horror film once, and I was very
frightened. I thought my job was just
selling tickets.'
Stanley Greenham, 6 manager of
7 cinema, said that he was sorry.

'I didn't really explain 8 job to
Janice at her interview,' he added.
'9 horror films we show aren't
very frightening. 10 young people
usually like them.'



Exercises for grammar

1. This morning _____ bus was late.
A) a B) * C) an D) the
2. My favorite subject is _____ history, but I'm not very good at _____
math.
A) * / the B) a / a C) the / the D) * / *
3. Ankara is _____ capital of Turkey.
A) the B) a C) * D) an
4. I work in _____ company that makes _____ carpets.

- A) a / * B) the / the C) the / * D) a / a
5. My friend lives in _____ same street as me.
A) a B) * C) an D) the
6. A: How much are the driving lessons?
B: Fifteen pounds _____ hour.
A) * B) the C) an D) a
7. I was at _____ home all day yesterday.
A) the B) * C) an D) a

1.21 – modul	Elasticity and Pricing. Gram: Determiners and pronouns I. <i>Some and any.</i>
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In economics, elasticity measures the percentage change of one economic variable in response to a change in another. If a good's price elasticity of demand is -2, a 10% increase in price causes the quantity demanded to fall 20%.

As one of the most important concepts in neoclassical economic theory, elasticity assists in the understanding of various economic concepts. For example: the incidence of indirect taxation, marginal concepts relating to the theory of the firm, distribution of wealth, and different types of goods relating to the theory of consumer choice. Elasticity is also crucially important in any discussion of welfare distribution, in particular consumer surplus, producer surplus, or government surplus.

Within microeconomics, elasticity and slope are always regarded as a pair of two closely related concepts. For price elasticity, the relationship between the two variables on the x-axis and y-axis can be obtained by analyzing the linear slope of the demand or supply curve or the tangent to a point on the curve. When the tangent of the straight line or curve is steeper, the price elasticity (demand or supply) is smaller; when the tangent of the straight line or curve is flatter, the price elasticity (demand or supply) is more remarkable.

Elasticity has the advantage of being a unitless ratio, independent of the type of quantities being varied. An elastic variable (with an absolute elasticity value greater than 1) responds more than proportionally to changes in other variables. Also, a unit elastic variable (with an absolute elasticity value equal to 1) responds proportionally to changes in other variables. In contrast, an inelastic variable (with an absolute elasticity value less than 1) changes less than proportionally in response to changes in other variables. A variable can have different values of its elasticity at different starting points. For example, for the suppliers of the goods, the quantity of a good supplied by producers might be elastic at low prices but inelastic at higher prices, so that arise from an initially low price might bring on a more-than-proportionate increase in quantity supplied. In contrast, arise from an initially high price might bring on a less-than-proportionate rise in quantity supplied.

Pricing is the process whereby a business sets the price at which it will sell its products and services, and may be part of the business's marketing plan. In setting prices, the business will take into account the price at which it could acquire the

goods, the manufacturing cost, the marketplace, competition, market condition, brand, and quality of product.

Pricing is a fundamental aspect of financial modeling and is one of the four Ps of the marketing mix, the other three aspects being product, promotion, and place. Price is the only revenue generating element amongst the four Ps, the rest being cost centers. However, the other Ps of marketing will contribute to decreasing price elasticity and so enable price increases to drive greater revenue and profits.

Pricing can be a manual or automatic process of applying prices to purchase and sales orders, based on factors such as: a fixed amount, quantity break, promotion or sales campaign, specific vendor quote, price prevailing on entry, shipment or invoice date, combination of multiple orders or lines, and many others. Automated pricing systems require more setup and maintenance but may prevent pricing errors. The needs of the consumer can be converted into demand only if the consumer has the willingness and capacity to buy the product. Thus, pricing is the most important concept in the field of marketing, it is used as a tactical decision in response to changing competitive, market and organisational situations.

VOCABULARY

Supplier- ta'minotchi

Elasticity – moslashuvchanlik, tadbirkorlik

Financial- moliyaviy

Organisational situations- tashkiliy vaziyatlar

Transaction- kelishuv, bitim

Capital- mablag'

Monetary policy- valyuta siyosati

Questions

1. What does elasticity mean?
2. What is a fundamental aspect of financial modeling?
3. What does elasticity measure?
4. What notions are always regarded as a pair of two closely related concepts?

B1 Some and any

We use *some* and *any* before both countable and uncountable nouns.

	Countable (e.g. bag)	Uncountable (e.g. luggage)
+	<i>a/some</i> He's got <i>a bag</i> / <i>some bags</i> .	He's got <i>some</i> luggage.
-	<i>any</i> He hasn't got <i>any</i> bags.	He hasn't got <i>any</i> luggage.
?	<i>any</i> Has he got <i>any</i> bags?	Has he got <i>any</i> luggage?

We often use *some* in questions which are requests or offers:

Can you buy *some* crisps?

Shall I buy *some* food?

No means 'not any'.

He's got *no* bags. = He hasn't got *any* bags. He's got *no* luggage. = He hasn't got *any* luggage.

▲ **not** He has *any* bags

- C1

Exercises for grammar

1. Would you like _____ rice?

A) a B) some C) an D) any

2. Can I have _____ stamps, please?

A) a B) an C) some D) any

3. Can you give me _____ money?

A) some B) a C) any D) an

4. Would you like _____ apple or _____ strawberries?

A) a / any B) an / some C) any / any D) a / some

5. Would you like _____ milk?

A) a B) some C) any D) an

6. Are you Canadian?"

"No, but I have _____ good friends in Canada."

A) any B) a C) an D) some

7. I don't have _____ milk left.

A) much B) some C) many D) a

8. You have _____ lovely pictures in your house.

A) some B) a C) an D) any

9. I need to put _____ petrol in the car.

A) some B) a C) any D) an

10. _____ coffee is there?

A) How many B) How C) How much D) How long

**1.22 –
modul****Consumer Choices.**

Gram: Determiners and pronouns I. *Somebody, anybody, nobody, everybody etc.*

The theory of consumer choice is the branch of microeconomics that relates preferences to consumption expenditures and to consumer demand curves. It analyzes how consumers maximize the desirability of their consumption as measured by their preferences subject to limitations on their expenditures, by maximizing utility subject to a consumer budget constraint.

Consumption is separated from production logically because two different economic agents are involved. In the first case consumption is by the primary individual, individual tastes or preferences determine the amount of pleasure people derive from the goods and services they consume.; in the second case, a producer might make something that he would not consume himself. Therefore, different motivations and abilities are involved. The models that make up consumer theory are used to represent prospectively observable demand patterns for an individual buyer on the hypothesis of constrained optimization. Prominent variables used to explain the rate at which the good is purchased (demanded) are the price per unit of that good, prices of related goods, and wealth of the consumer.

The law of demand states that the rate of consumption falls as the price of the good rises, even when the consumer is monetarily compensated for the effect of the higher price; this is called the substitution effect. As the price of a good rises, consumers will substitute away from that good, choosing more of other alternatives. If no compensation for the price rise occurs, as is usual, then the decline in overall purchasing power due to the price rise leads, for most goods, to a further decline in the quantity demanded; this is called the income effect. As the wealth of the individual rises, demand for most products increases, shifting the demand curve higher at all possible prices.

In addition, people's judgments and decisions are often influenced by systemic biases or heuristics and are strongly dependent on the context in which the decisions

are made, small or even unexpected changes in the decision-making environment can greatly affect their decisions.

The theory of consumer choice assumes consumers wish to maximise their utility through the optimal combination of goods – given their limited budget.

To illustrate how consumers choose between different combinations of goods we can use equi-marginal principle and indifference curves and budget lines.

VOCABULARY

Consumption- iste'mol

Expenditure – sarf xarajat

Consumer- iste'molchi

Equi-marginal principle- teng chegaraviy tamoyil

Microeconomics- mikroiqtisodiyot

Alternatives- alternativlar, maqbul turlari

Budget line- byudjet chizig'i

Questions

1. Why is consumption separated from production logically?
2. What is the consumer choice?
3. By what people's judgments and decisions are often influenced?
4. What is called the income effect?

B2 Somebody/ anybody/ nobody/ everybody etc.

	People	Things	Places
+	somebody (someone)	something	somewhere
-	not anybody (not anyone) / nobody (no-one)	not anything / nothing	not anywhere / nowhere
?	anybody (anyone)	anything	anywhere

We'll find **somewhere** quiet. Have I forgotten **anything**? I haven't found **anything**.

▲ *not anything = nothing; not anybody = nobody; not anywhere = nowhere:*

*There isn't **anybody** here. / There's **nobody** here. (not ~~There isn't nobody here.~~)*

▲ *Everybody, everyone, everything and everywhere have a plural meaning but they are followed by a singular verb:*

*Where **is** everybody?*

***Everything is** organised.*

(See Unit 10 for *every* and *all*, *every* + noun.)

-C2, C3

Exercises for grammar

1. You are ___ now, and don't let ___ forget it.

- A) anybody/anyone B) somebody/anybody
C) something/anything D) something/something
E) anything/anyone

2. John left the house without saying ___ to ___ .

- A) nothing / somebody B) nothing / nobody
C) anything / anybody D) anything / nobody
E) something / nobody

3. It was ___ he didn't want to remember.

- A) anything B) nobody C) anybody
D) anyone E) something

4. As ___ is clear to ___, I'm not going to say ___ else.

- A) everything/somebody/anything
B) everybody/somebody/anybody
C) everything/everybody/anything
D) somebody/nobody/something
E) nothing/nobody/anything

5. It's very quiet in the office today. There's ___ here. ___ is on holiday.

- A) anybody / everybody B) anything / nothing
C) nobody / all of them D) somebody / nothing
E) nobody / everybody

**1.23 –
modul****Economic indicators.**

Gram: Determiners and pronouns I. *Much, many, a lot, a few, a little.*

An economic indicator is a statistic about an economic activity. Economic indicators allow analysis of economic performance and predictions of future performance. One application of economic indicators is the study of business cycles. Economic indicators include various indices, earnings reports, and economic summaries: for example, the unemployment rate, quits rate (quit rate in American English), housing starts, consumer price index (a measure for inflation), consumer leverage ratio, industrial production, bankruptcies, gross domestic product, broadband internet penetration, retail sales, stock market prices, and money supply changes.

The leading business cycle dating committee in the United States of America is the private National Bureau of Economic Research. The Bureau of Labor Statistics is the principal fact-finding agency for the U.S. government in the field of labor economics and statistics. Other producers of economic indicators includes the United States Census Bureau and United States Bureau of Economic Analysis.

What Is Economic Indicator?

An economic indicator is a piece of economic data, usually of macroeconomic scale, that is used by analysts to interpret current or future investment possibilities. These indicators also help to judge the overall health of an economy.

Economic indicators can be anything the investor chooses, but specific pieces of data released by the government and non-profit organizations have become widely followed.

Economic indicators are macroeconomic data that describe the condition of an economy. So, use them to determine whether an economy is prosperous and expanding or troubled and contracting.

For example, a high unemployment rate and a contracting GDP are considered signs of a troubled economy, such as a recession. In comparison, high levels of

consumer confidence and rising stock market indexes are signs of a prospering economy.

Economists, investors, and policy makers use economic indicators to discern the health of the economy. Then they try to forecast changes in the business cycle.

There are three types of economic indicators: leading indicators, lagging indicators, and coincident indicators.

Economic Indicator Sources

The most reliable and closely-watched economic indicators are published by government or non-profit organizations, such as the Conference Board, the Federal Reserve System, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and other organizations. These organizations issue economic data periodically.

VOCABULARY

Macroeconomic- makroiqtisodiyot

Non-profit organizations- notijorat tashkilotlar

Economic Research – iqtisodiy tadqiqot

Economic indicators - iqtisodiy ko'rsatkichlar

Unemployment rate- ishsizlik foizi

Coincident – to'g'ri keladigan, mos keladigan

Stock market – fond birjasi

Questions

1. What is economic indicators?
2. Whats are signs of a troubled economy?
3. What analysis do economic indicators allow?
4. How many types of economic indicators are there?

B3 Much / many / a lot / a few / a little

We use *a lot of / lots of* with both countable and uncountable nouns.

We use *a few* (= more than two but less than a lot) and *many* with countable nouns but we use *a little* and *much* with uncountable nouns.

Countable (e.g. bag)	Uncountable (e.g. luggage)
• He's got a lot of / lots of bags.	He's got a lot of / lots of luggage.
• He's only got a few bags.	He's only got a little luggage.
- He hasn't got many bags.	He hasn't got much luggage.
? Has he got many bags?	Has he got much luggage?
? How many bags has he got?	How much luggage has he got?

We can also use *a couple of* (= two) and *several* (= more than a few) with countable nouns:
He's got a couple of / several bags.

(See Unit 28 for *too much/too many*.)

-C4

CDs homework money fruit magazines parties jewellery T shirts

Which of the following words can you use with countable nouns? Which can you use with uncountable nouns?

a couple of a few a little lots of many much several

Write some true sentences about yourself or your friends using words from the two boxes.

- 1 *I bought several CDs when I went shopping last week.*
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6

1.24 – modul

Production, Costs, and Industry Structure.

Gram: Determiners and pronouns II. *This, that, these and those.*

Industry structure pertains to the number and size distribution of competitors in an industry, according to University of Maryland University College. Some industries, such as the restaurant and retailing industries, contain many firms or competitors. Other industries contain relatively few competitors.

Industrial Structure. a structure designed to fulfill a specific function in industry or to support or house equipment, raw materials, or communication lines. In modern industrial construction, more than 25 percent of the total cost of construction and installation work is attributed to industrial structures.

Similarly, what are the components of industry?
8 Main Components of the Industry Structure – Explained!

Competitors:

Potential competitors: Potential competitors who might have an interest in entering an industry.

The analysis of a particular industry in terms of the opportunities and threats presented to a firm by the immediately prevailing environment. (i) to appraise the attractiveness of the industry to investors or new entrants; and (ii) to devise competitive strategies appropriate to the industry in question.

What are the five forces that determine industry structure?

Porter's Five Forces is a framework for analyzing a company's competitive environment. The number and power of a company's competitive rivals, potential new market entrants, suppliers, customers, and substitute products influence a company's profitability.

Production costs refer to all of the direct and indirect costs businesses face from manufacturing a product or providing a service. Production costs can include a variety of expenses, such as labor, raw materials, consumable manufacturing supplies, and general overhead.

Production costs refer to the costs a company incurs from manufacturing a product or providing a service that generates revenue for the company.

Production costs can include a variety of expenses, such as labor, raw materials, consumable manufacturing supplies, and general overhead.

Total product costs can be determined by adding together the total direct materials and labor costs as well as the total manufacturing overhead costs.

VOCABULARY

Revenue - foyda

Profitability- foydalilik

Raw material – xom ashyo

Labor cost – ishning qiymati

Consumable – iste'mol qilsa bo'ladigan

Entrant – kiruvchi, ishtirokchi

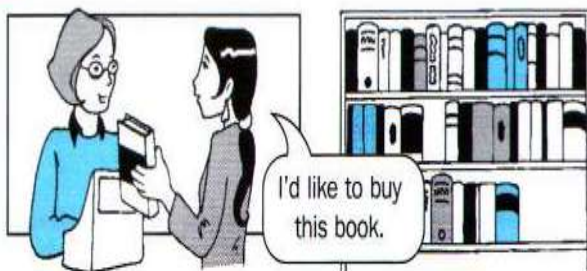
Supplier – ta'minotchi

Economic Research – iqtisodiy tadqiqot

Question

1. What are the components of industry?
2. What things can production costs include?
3. What are the five forces that determine industry structure?
4. How can total product costs be determined?

B1 This, that, these and those



We can use *this/these* and *that/those* as adjectives:

This T shirt suits me. (I'm wearing it.)

That T shirt suits you. (You're wearing it, not me.)

or as pronouns:

This is a good concert. (I'm at the concert now)

That was a good concert. (I'm not at the concert now.)

When we don't want to repeat a countable noun, we use *one*:

Which picture do you like? *That/This one. The one* of a sunset.

Which pictures do you like? *Those/These ones. The ones* by Van Gogh.

We often use *the one(s)* with an adjective:

Which chair do you want? *The red one.*

C1 Underline the correct words in this conversation between Nyree and Ian.

Nyree: Can we stop here a moment? I want to look in the window of 1 this/that shoe shop. I need to buy some new shoes.

Ian: OK. But 2 *these/those* ones you're wearing look really good. And they go with 3 *this/that* jacket.

Nyree: Yes, but 4 *these/those* aren't very comfortable now the summer is here. I'd like something lighter for 5 *this/that* warm weather.

Ian: What about 6 *these/those*, at the back of the window?

Nyree: Mm, they look cool, but I don't like the colour. I prefer 7 *the one / the ones* in front of them.

Ian: Let's go in and you can try them on.

**1.25 –
modul**

Costs in the Short Run.

Gram: Determiners and pronouns II. *All, most, some, no and none.*

Short Run Cost refers to a certain period of time where at least one input is fixed while others are variable.

In the short-run period, an organisation cannot change the fixed factors of production, such as capital, factory buildings, plant and equipment, etc. However, the variable costs, such as raw material, employee wages, etc., change with the level of output.

Similarly, when demand falls, the firm would reduce the work hours or output, but cannot downsize its plant. Therefore, in the short run only variable factors are changed, while the fixed factors remain unchanged. Let us discuss the cost-output relations in the short run.

What is Short Run Cost Types? There are basically three types of short run costs:

- Short Run Total Cost
- Short Run Average Cost
- Short Run Marginal Cost

The total cost refers to the actual cost that is incurred by an organisation to produce a given level of output. The Short-Run Total Cost (SRTC) of an organisation consists of two main elements:

1. Total Fixed Cost (TFC): These costs do not change with the change in output. TFC remains constant even when the output is zero. TFC is represented by a straight line horizontal to the x-axis (output).
2. Total Variable Cost (TVC): These costs are directly proportional to the output of a firm. This implies that when the output increases, TVC also increases and when the output decreases, TVC decreases as well.

VOCABULARY

Employee wage- ishchilar maoshi

Supplier- ta'minotchi

Consumption- iste'mol

Expenditure – sarf xarajat

Consumer- iste'molchi

Microeconomics- mikroiqtisodiyot

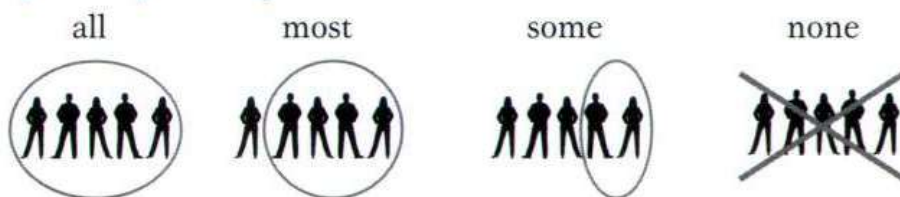
Financial- moliyaviy

Capital- mablag'

Questions

1. What is Short Run Cost Types?
2. How many Short Run Cost Types are there?
3. In the short-run period, what types of costs change with the level of output?
4. What is Total Variable Cost?
5. What is Total Fixed Cost?

B2 All, most, some, no and none



Things/people in general	Things/people in a particular group
<p>All + noun: <i>All teenagers watch TV.</i></p> <p>Most/some + noun: <i>Most people have a TV in their bedroom.</i> (not Most of people have a TV in their bedroom.)</p> <p>No + noun without the: <i>No bedroom has a fridge. or No bedrooms have fridges.</i></p>	<p>All (of) + the/my/this etc. + noun: <i>All (of) the teenagers went home early. (the teenagers = a particular group of teenagers)</i></p> <p>Most/some of + the/my/this etc. + noun: <i>Most of my friends like it. (my friends = a particular group of people) (not Most-my-friends)</i></p> <p>None of + the + noun: <i>None of the paintings is modern. or None of the paintings are modern.</i></p> <p>All/most/some/none + of + pronoun: <i>All/Most/Some/None of them were very old.</i> ⚠ <i>All of them (not All them)</i></p>

C2

3 There is one mistake in each of these sentences. Underline it and write the correction.

- 1 We had a drink but none food was available.no.....
- 2 Neither these jackets fits me.
- 3 We stopped for a meal because both of us was hungry.
- 4 I was surprised that most the people staying in the hotel were Italian.
- 5 Either of the restaurant you suggested is fine with me.
- 6 He's tidied the garden and put away all chairs.
- 7 I liked both pairs of jeans, but I chose the black one for the party.
- 8 This was an awful meal we had yesterday. We won't go to that restaurant again.
.....
- 9 We're having a party for my father and we're inviting all of old friends.
- 10 Some of airports have several restaurants.

1.26 – modul	Costs in the Long Run. Gram: Determiners and pronouns II. <i>Both, either, neither.</i>
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In this theme, one question is the most important.

What is Long Run Cost?

Long run cost refers to the time period in which all factors of production are variable. Long-run costs are incurred by a firm when production levels change over time.

In the long run, the factors of production may be utilised in changing proportions to produce a higher level of output. In such a case, the firm may not only hire more workers, but also expand its plant size, or set up a new plant to produce the desired output.

What is Long Run Cost Type? There are basically three types of long run costs:

-Long Run Total Cost

-Long Run Average Cost

-Long Run Marginal Cost

Long-run total cost (LRTC) refers to the total cost incurred by an organisation for the production of a given level of output when all factors of production are variable.

Long-run average cost (LRAC) refers to per unit cost incurred by a firm in the production of a desired level of output when all the inputs are variable.

Long-run marginal cost (LRMC) refers to the incremental cost incurred by an organisation for producing a given output level when none of the input is constant.

The Long-run Cost is the cost having the long-term implications in the production process, i.e. these are spread over the long range of output. These costs are incurred on the fixed factors, Viz. Plant, building, machinery, etc. but however, the running cost and the depreciation on plant and machinery is a variable cost and hence is included in the short-run costs.

The long-run cost is incurred when the firm decides to change its production capacity over time in order to respond to the anticipated economic profits and losses. In short-run, all the factors of production and costs are variable and hence the level of output can be changed by varying all the factors, the even capital.

In the long run, even the fixed cost becomes the variable cost as the size of the firm or scale of production increases. The entrepreneurship, land, labor, capital goods, etc. all vary to attain the desired level of profits in the long run, and the cost of each factor adds to the long-run costs.

The long-run stage is characterized by planning and implementation wherein the producer decides on the level of production and take long-run decisions that affect the overall cost of the firm. The long-run decisions include leaving or entering the market, expanding or contracting the company's operations, changing the quantity of production, etc.

VOCABULARY

Entrepreneurship- tadbirkorlik

Depreciation – amortizatsiya

Capacity – sig'im, imkoniyat

Producer – ishlab chiqaruvchi

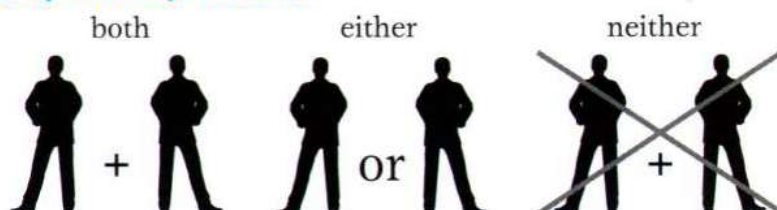
Efficiency- samaradorlik

Monetary policy- valyuta siyosati

Question

1. What is Long Run Cost?
2. What is Long Run Cost Type?
3. What does Long-run average cost (LRAC) refer to?
4. How many Long Run Cost Types are there?

Both/either/neither



We use *both/neither/either* when we talk about two things. We can use them with a noun or pronoun:

Both lights are nice. or Both (of) the lights/them are nice. (plural verb)

Either colour is OK. (singular noun and verb) **or**

Either of the colours/them is/are OK. (singular or plural verb)


Neither colour looks good. (singular noun and verb) **or**

Neither of the colours/them looks/look good... (singular or plural verb)

or alone:


Which colour would you prefer? Neither (of them). / Either (of them).

Which picture do you like? Both (of them).

 *All and both* can go with a verb:

 *They're all mad.*

 *We've both finished.*

 See Unit 30 for *both ... and, either ... or.*

c4 Read this hotel brochure and underline the correct word for each question.

The Regent Hotel



This attractive hotel offers accommodation for families and business visitors. **1** Both/Every groups can find everything they need.

The Main Building has ten luxury rooms and the Garden House has ten family rooms.

2 Each/Both buildings have a dining-room. Adult guests and older children may use

3 either/every of them at any time. **4** All/Both of them offer the same menu but in the evening children under six may only eat in the Garden House dining-room.

5 All/Every bedroom has a DVD and CD player and **6** all/every of them have private bathrooms.

The decoration is different in **7** either/each room, and is changed **8** every/all year.

There is a swimming-pool available for **9** all/both the guests. It is open on weekday evenings and **10** both/all day at weekends.

1.27 – modul

Production in the Long Run.

Gram: Determiners and pronouns II. *Each and every*.

Production in the short run in which the functional relationship between input and output is explained assuming labor to be the only variable input, keeping capital constant.

In the long run production function, the relationship between input and output is explained under the condition when both, labor and capital, are variable inputs.

In the long run, the supply of both the inputs, labor and capital, is assumed to be elastic (changes frequently). Therefore, organizations can hire larger quantities of both the inputs. If larger quantities of both the inputs are employed, the level of production increases. In the long run, the functional relationship between changing scale of inputs and output is explained under laws of returns to scale. The laws of returns to scale can be explained with the help of isoquant technique.

Production Function Definition

What is the Production Function?

The production function is the calculation by which the number of inputs creates a number of outputs. In other words, it states the relationship between inputs

and outputs. So how much would x number of inputs be able to produce. For example, a firm may have 5 workers producing 100 pins an hour. If the firm hires another 5 employees alongside 100 pin supplies, then the production function would suggest 100 pins would be produced.

There are four main factors of production – land, labour, capital, and entrepreneurship. With regards to the production function, these factors would usually be included in the inputs which create x number of outputs. The number of which will depend on the production function which will vary from product to product.

The production function is a mathematical equation that calculates the maximum output a firm can achieve with a selected number of inputs (capital, labour, and land).

The production function can be calculated using the formula: $Q = f(\text{Capital, Land, Labour})$, where the inputs are a function of the output.

The production function comes in two phases- the short run and the long run.

VOCABULARY

Production –ishlab chiqarish

Short run – qisqa muddatli

Long run – uzoq muddatli

Capital – mablag'

Functional relationship – vazifaviy munosabatlar

Expenditure – sarf xarajat

Consumer- iste'molchi

Question

1. What is the Production Function?
2. How many main factors of production are there?
3. Whrite Production Function Definition

4. Is the supply of both the inputs, labor and capital, assumed to be elastic (changes frequently) or constant?

B4 Each and every

Each and *every* often have the same meaning:

Every/each star has a light in it.

but sometimes they have different meanings.

Each = separate things or people in a group:

We tried each colour on the wall. (= The colours were different.)

Every = all the people or things in a group together:

Every room in the hotel has a TV. (= The rooms are the same.)

▲ We use a singular verb after *each* and *every*.

We use *each/every* + singular noun:

Every/each room has a TV.

We use *each* **not** *every* with *of* + noun or pronoun:

Each of the people / Each of them had a different job. (**not** *Every of the people / Every of them* had a different job.)

▲ *Every* and *all* often have a similar meaning:

Every wall is blue. (singular verb)

All the walls are blue. (plural verb)

But when we talk about time, they have different meanings:

They go to a different place every week. (= regularly)

They spent all week in my room. (= one complete week)

1.28 – modul	Basic economic problems. Gram: Determiners and pronouns III. <i>Possessive 's, of.</i>
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The fundamental economic problem is the issue of scarcity and how best to produce and distribute these scarce resources.

Scarcity means there is a finite supply of goods and raw materials.

Finite resources mean they are limited and can run out.

Unlimited wants mean that there is no end to the quantity of goods and services people would like to consume.

Because of unlimited wants – People would like to consume more than it is possible to produce (scarcity)

Therefore because of scarcity, economics is concerned with:

What to produce?

How to produce?

For whom?

Economic systems as a type of social system must confront and solve the three fundamental economic problems:

What kinds and quantities of goods shall be produced, "how much and which of alternative goods and services shall be produced?"

How shall goods be produced? ..by whom and with what resources (using what technology)...?"

For whom are the goods or services produced? Who benefits? Samuelson rephrased this question as "how is the total of the national product to be distributed among different individuals and families?"

Economic systems solve these problems in several ways:"... by custom and instinct; by command and centralized control (in planned economies) and in mixed economies that "...uses both market signals and government directives to allocate goods and resources." The latter is variously defined as an economic system blending elements of a market economy with elements of a planned economy, free markets with state interventionism, or private enterprise with public enterprise...

Samuelson wrote in Economics, a "canonical textbook" of mainstream economic thought that "the price mechanism, working through supply and demand in competitive markets, operates to (simultaneously) answer the three fundamental problems in a mixed private enterprise system..." At competitive equilibrium, the value society places on a good is equivalent to the value of the resources given up to produce it (marginal benefit equals marginal cost). This ensures allocative efficiency- the additional value society places on another unit of the good is equal to what society must give up in resources to produce it.

The solution to these problems is important because of the "fundamental fact of economic institution life" that ...

"The economic problem, "the struggle for subsistence", always has been hitherto primary, most pressing problem of the human race- not only of the human race, but of the whole of the biological kingdom from the beginnings of life in its most primitive forms." -Samuelson, Economics, 11th ed., 1980

VOCABULARY

Transaction- kelishuv, bitim

Market economy – bozor iqtisodiyoti

Planned economy- rejalashtirilgan iqtisodiyot

Mixed economy – aralash iqtisodiyot

Mainstream – hukmron tendensiya

National product – milliy mahsulot

Economic institution – iqtisodiy institut

Question

1. How shall goods be produced?
2. How is the total of the national product to be distributed among different individuals and families?
3. By whom and with what resources (using what technology) the total of the national product to be distributed among different individuals and families?
4. What kinds and quantities of goods shall be produced?

B1 Possessive 's/of

We use 's with people and animals:

The boy's bedroom was very untidy. (not ~~the bedroom of the boy~~)

The dog's teeth are very sharp.

and with time expressions:

I missed last night's programme.

but we usually use *of* instead of 's with things:

What's the price of that holiday? (not ~~the holiday's price~~)

Sometimes we don't say the second noun when it is a home or a business:

I stayed at Sally's (= Sally's flat)

He works in the newsagent's. (= the newsagent's shop)

The apostrophe s ('s) goes in a different place for singular and plural nouns:

my cousin's friends (= one cousin), my cousins' friends (= more than one cousin)

B2 Personal pronouns, possessive pronouns and possessive determiners

Subject pronouns:	<i>I/you/he/she/it/we/they</i>	Possessive pronouns:	<i>mine/yours/his/hers/ours/theirs</i>
Object pronouns:	<i>me/you/him/her/it/us/them</i>	Possessive determiners:	<i>my/your/his/her/its/our/their</i>

We use *I, you, he* etc. for the subject of the verb and we use *me, you, him* etc. for the object of the verb:

She gave him her key.

He invited them to a party.

We use possessive determiners (*my, your, his* etc.) before a noun:

*I went with **my** friends.*

▲ *His* means 'of a boy or a man' and *her* means 'of a girl or a woman':

*He sees **his** girlfriend every night.*

*She shares a flat with **her** brother.*

We always use *my, your* etc. with parts of the body and clothes.

*Tony broke **his** leg. (not ~~Tony broke the leg.~~)*

*They changed **their** shoes when they came in.*

We use possessive pronouns (*mine, yours* etc.) without a noun:

*Give that key to her. It's not **yours**. (= it's not your key)*



This bicycle is **mine**.
This is **my** bicycle.
This bicycle belongs to **me**.

This bicycle is the boy's.
This is the boy's bicycle.
This bicycle belongs to the boy.

We can say *my friends* or *some friends of mine* (*yours/his/hers/ours/theirs* etc.) (~~not some friends of me~~)

We use *own* to emphasise that something belongs to someone:

*He doesn't have his **own** flat. (= a flat just for him)*

C1 Complete this table.

That is (1) <u>my bicycle</u> .	That bicycle is mine.	That bicycle belongs to me.
That is my father's jacket.	That jacket is (2) <u>my father's</u> .	That jacket belongs to (3)
These are our skis.	These skis (4)	These skis (5)
Is this your CD?	Is this CD (6)..... ?	Does this CD belong to (7) ?
This (8)	This (9)	This car belongs to my grandparents.
(10)	(11)	Those videos belong to them.

C2 Fill in the gaps with the correct word (*me/my/mine, you/your/yours* etc.).

- 1 Sorry, I can't pay you because I've left my wallet at home.
- 2 My brother invited six of friends from school to stay the night.
- 3 My sister's hair is longer and thicker than
- 4 My uncle had grown a beard and I didn't recognise at first.
- 5 My parents have an old car. My car is new and it's more comfortable than
- 6 Our bags are almost the same. Where did you buy ?
- 7 My mother was really pleased when I told the news.
- 8 Maurice can't play tennis because he's hurt back.
- 9 Sarah told father a lie.
- 10 That woman is a neighbour of She lives in our road.

1.29 – modul	Nonrivalry. Gram: Determiners and pronouns III. <i>Personal pronouns, possessive pronouns and possessive determiners</i>
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Nonrivalry means that one person's consumption of the good does not detract from its availability to others.

In contrast, non-rival goods may be consumed by one consumer without preventing simultaneous consumption by others. Most examples of non-rival goods are intangible. Broadcast television is an example of a non-rival good; when a consumer turns on a TV set, this does not prevent the TV in another consumer's house from working. The television itself is a rival good, but television broadcasts are

non-rival goods. Other examples of non-rival goods include a beautiful scenic view, national defense, clean air, street lights, and public safety. More generally, most intellectual property is non-rival. In fact, certain types of intellectual property become more valuable as more people consume them (anti-rival). For example, the more people use a particular language, the more valuable that language becomes.

Non-rivalry does not imply that the total production costs are low, but that the marginal production costs are zero. In reality, few goods are completely non-rival as rivalry can emerge at certain levels. For instance, use of public roads, the Internet, or police/law courts is non-rival up to a certain capacity, after which congestion means that each additional user decreases speed for others. For that, recent economic theory views rivalry as a continuum, not as a binary category, where many goods are somewhere between the two extremes of completely rival and completely non-rival. A perfectly non-rival good can be consumed simultaneously by an unlimited number of consumers.

Data is nonrival: a person's location history, medical records, and driving data can be used by any number of firms simultaneously. Nonrivalry leads to increasing returns and implies an important role for market structure and property rights. Who should own data? What restrictions should apply to the use of data? We show that in equilibrium, firms may not adequately respect the privacy of consumers. But nonrivalry leads to other consequences that are less obvious. Because of nonrivalry, there may be large social gains to data being used broadly across firms, even in the presence of privacy considerations. Fearing creative destruction, firms may choose to hoard data they own, leading to the inefficient use of nonrival data. Instead, giving the data property rights to consumers can generate allocations that are close to optimal. Consumers balance their concerns for privacy against the economic gains that come from selling data to all interested parties.

A lack of rivalry.

There is a nonrivalry of sorts, considering the many lopsided outcomes of past encounters between them, but it always proves to be intriguing.

More Examples

Used in the Middle of Sentence

Theirs is a nonrivalry of sorts, considering the many lopsided outcomes of past encounters between them, but it always proves to be intriguing. For the term nonrivalry may also exist other definitions and meanings, the meaning and definition indicated above are indicative not be used for medical and legal or special purposes.

In economics, a good is said to be rivalrous or a rival if its consumption by one consumer prevents simultaneous consumption by other consumers, or if consumption by one party reduces the ability of another party to consume it. A good is considered non-rivalrous or non-rival if, for any level of production, the cost of providing it to a marginal (additional) individual is zero. A good is "anti-rivalrous" and "inclusive" if each person benefits more when other people consume it.

A good can be placed along a continuum from rivalrous through non-rivalrous to anti-rivalrous. The distinction between rivalrous and non-rivalrous is sometimes referred to as jointness of supply or subtractable or non-subtractable. Economist Paul Samuelson made the distinction between private and public goods in 1954 by introducing the concept of nonrival consumption. Economist Richard Musgrave followed on and added rivalry and excludability as criteria for defining consumption goods in 1959 and 1969.

VOCABULARY

Consumer – iste'molchi

Intellectual property – intelektual mulk

Availability - yaroqlilik

Economic gains – iqtisodiy yutuqlar

Expense- xarajat

Revenue- daromad, foyda

Commercial – tijotiy, tijoratga oid

Question

1. What is nonrivalry, and how does it lead to increasing returns?
2. In your answer, what role does the standard replication argument play?
3. Is national defense rivalrous or nonrivalrous?
4. What restrictions should apply to the use of data?
5. Who should own data?

B2 Personal pronouns, possessive pronouns and possessive determiners

Subject pronouns:	<i>I/you/he/she/it/we/they</i>	Possessive pronouns:	<i>mine/yours/his/hers/ours/theirs</i>
Object pronouns:	<i>me/you/him/her/it/us/them</i>	Possessive determiners:	<i>my/your/his/her/its/our/their</i>

We use *I, you, he* etc. for the subject of the verb and we use *me, you, him* etc. for the object of the verb:

She gave him her key.

He invited them to a party.

We use possessive determiners (*my, your, his* etc.) before a noun:

*I went with **my** friends.*

▲ *His* means 'of a boy or a man' and *her* means 'of a girl or a woman':

*He sees **his** girlfriend every night.*

*She shares a flat with **her** brother.*

We always use *my, your* etc. with parts of the body and clothes.

*Tony broke **his** leg. (not ~~Tony broke the leg.~~)*

*They changed **their** shoes when they came in.*

We use possessive pronouns (*mine, yours* etc.) without a noun:

*Give that key to her. It's not **yours**. (= it's not your key)*



This bicycle is **mine**.
This is **my** bicycle.
This bicycle belongs to **me**.

*This bicycle is the boy's.
This is the boy's bicycle.
This bicycle belongs to the boy.*

We can say *my friends* or *some friends of mine* (*yours/his/hers/ours/theirs* etc.) (**not some friends of me**)

We use *own* to emphasise that something belongs to someone:

*He doesn't have his **own** flat. (= a flat just for him)*

-C1, C2

C2 Fill in the gaps with the correct word (*me/my/mine, you/your/yours* etc.).

- 1 Sorry, I can't pay you because I've left*my*..... wallet at home.
- 2 My brother invited six of friends from school to stay the night.
- 3 My sister's hair is longer and thicker than
- 4 My uncle had grown a beard and I didn't recognise at first.
- 5 My parents have an old car. My car is new and it's more comfortable than
- 6 Our bags are almost the same. Where did you buy ?
- 7 My mother was really pleased when I told the news.
- 8 Maurice can't play tennis because he's hurt back.
- 9 Sarah told father a lie.
- 10 That woman is a neighbour of She lives in our road.

1.30 – modul	Production and Costs. Gram: Determiners and pronouns III. <i>Reflexive pronouns</i>
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What Are Production Costs?

Production costs refer to all of the direct and indirect costs businesses face from manufacturing a product or providing a service. Production costs can include a variety of expenses, such as labor, raw materials, consumable manufacturing supplies, and general overhead.

Production costs refer to the costs a company incurs from manufacturing a product or providing a service that generates revenue for the company.

Production costs can include a variety of expenses, such as labor, raw materials, consumable manufacturing supplies, and general overhead.

Total product costs can be determined by adding together the total direct materials and labor costs as well as the total manufacturing overhead costs.

Understanding Production Costs

Production costs, which are also known as product costs, are incurred by a business when it manufactures a product or provides a service. These costs include a variety of expenses. For example, manufacturers have production costs related to the raw materials and labor needed to create the product. Service industries incur

production costs related to the labor required to implement the service and any costs of materials involved in delivering the service.

Taxes levied by the government or royalties owed by natural resource-extraction companies are also treated as production costs.¹ Once a product is finished, the company records the product's value as an asset in its financial statements until the product is sold. Recording a finished product as an asset serves to fulfill the company's reporting requirements and inform shareholders.

Total product costs can be determined by adding together the total direct materials and labor costs as well as the total manufacturing overhead costs.¹ Data like the cost of production per unit can help a business set an appropriate sales price for the finished item.

To arrive at the cost of production per unit, production costs are divided by the number of units manufactured in the period covered by those costs. To break even, the sales price must cover the cost per unit. Prices that are greater than the cost per unit result in profits, whereas prices that are less than the cost per unit result in losses.¹

Types of Production Costs

Production incurs both **fixed costs** and **variable costs**. For example, fixed costs for manufacturing an automobile would include equipment as well as workers' salaries. As the rate of production increases, fixed costs remain steady.

Variable costs increase or decrease as production volume changes. Utility expenses are a prime example of a variable cost, as more energy is generally needed as production scales up.

There may be options available to producers if the cost of production exceeds a product's sale price. The first thing they may consider doing is lowering their production costs. If this isn't feasible, they may need to reconsider their pricing structure and marketing strategy to determine if they can justify a price increase or if they can market the product to a new demographic. If neither of these options works, producers may have to suspend their operations or shut down permanently.

How are production costs defined?

For an expense to qualify as a production cost it must be directly connected to generating revenue for the company. Manufacturers carry production costs related to the raw materials and labor needed to create their products. Service industries carry production costs related to the labor required to implement and deliver their service. Royalties owed by natural resource-extraction companies also are treated as production costs, as are taxes levied by the government.

How are production costs calculated?

Production incurs both direct costs and indirect costs. Direct costs for manufacturing an automobile, for example, would be materials like plastic and metal, as well as workers' salaries. Indirect costs would include overhead such as rent and utility expenses. Total product costs can be determined by adding together the total direct materials and labor costs as well as the total manufacturing overhead costs. To determine the product cost per unit of product, divide this sum by the number of units manufactured in the period covered by those costs.

VOCABULARY

Raw materials – xom ashyo

Total product costs- mahsulotning umumiy qiymati

Consumable - iste'molga yaroqli, iste'mol qilsa bo'ladigan

Service industry – xizmat ko'rsatish sanoati

Expenditure – sarf xarajat

Tax – soliq, to'lov

Question

1. What Are Production Costs?
2. How are production costs defined?
3. How are production costs calculated?
4. What Types of Production Costs are there?

EG Reflexive pronouns

I → myself, you (singular) → yourself, he → himself, she → herself, it → itself, we → ourselves, you (plural) → yourselves they → themselves

We use *myself*, *yourself* etc.



- when the **subject** and the **object** are the same person/thing:
*Tim hurt **himself** when he fell off his bike.* (= Tim (subject and object) was hurt)
but *Sam cried when Tim hurt **him**.* (= Sam (object) was hurt)
- with *enjoy (your)self*, *behave (your)self*, *help (your)self*:
Help yourself to some food.
*Sally really **enjoyed herself**.*

By (your)self means alone. We can also say *on (your) own*:
*Sally wanted to be **by herself** or **on her own**.*