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ПРИНЯТО на заседании Учёного совета ФГБОУ ВО Приморский ГАТУ от 25.12.2023 г. протокол №5

УТВЕРЖДАЮ Ректор ФГБОУ ВО Приморский ГАТУ А.Э. Комин «25» декабря 2023 г.

ФОНД ОЦЕНОЧНЫХ СРЕДСТВ УЧЕБНОЙ ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ (МОДУЛЯ) ИНОСТРАННЫЙ ЯЗЫК В ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОЙ ДЕЯТЕЛЬНОСТИ

по специальности среднего профессионального образования 36.02.03-3оотехния $C\Gamma.02$

Структура фонда оценочных средств учебной дисциплины «Иностранный язык в профессиональной деятельности»

36.02.03 Зоотехния

№	Наименование	Контролируемые разделы	Контролируемы	Количество
	оценочного средства	(темы),модули дисциплины	екомпетенции	вариантов
	(представление вфонде)		(или их части)	
1	Индивидуальноезадание №1	Разделы 1-5		10
2	Индивидуальноезадание №2	Разделы 1-5		10
3	Индивидуальноезадание №3	Разделы 6-8	ОК 02, 03, 04,	10
4	Индивидуальноезадание №4	Разделы 9-10	05, 06, 09	10
5	Индивидуальноезадание №5	Разделы 11-15		10
6	Дифференцированный	Все разделы		15
	зачет (перечень			
	вопросов)			

КОМПЛЕКТЫ ОЦЕНОЧНЫХ СРЕДСТВ ТЕКУЩЕГО КОНТРОЛЯ

Варианты текущего контроля

Индивидуальное задание №1. Прочитайте и переведите текст.

Индивидуальное задание №2. Составьте аннотацию текста.

Индивидуальное задание №3. Составьте реферат текста.

Индивидуальное задание №4. Задайте к тексту 5 вопросов разных типов.

Индивидуальное задание №5. Представьте содержание текста в форме презентации.

КРИТЕРИИ ОЦЕНКИ ТЕКУЩЕГО КОНТРОЛЯ

Оценка «Отлично»:

Студент демонстрирует отличное владение техникой перевода, аннотирования и реферирования, подготовки презентации, допускает не более 1 грамматической или лексической ошибок.

Оценка «Хорошо»:

Студент демонстрирует хорошее владение техникой перевода, подготовки презентации, аннотирования и реферирования, допускает не более 4 грамматических и лексических ошибок

Оценка «Удовлетворительно»:

Студент демонстрирует удовлетворительное владение техникой перевода, аннотирования и реферирования, подготовки презентации, допускает более 4 грамматических и лексических ошибок.

Оценка «Неудовлетворительно»:

Студент не владеет навыками перевода, допускает более 8 грамматических, лексических ошибок.

Bapuant 1 Knots

A knot is a particular type of imperfection in a piece of wood; it will affect the tech- nical properties of the wood, usually for the worse, but may be exploited for artistic effect. In a longitudinally sawn plank, a knot will appear as a roughly circular "solid" (usually darker) piece of wood around which the grain of the rest of the wood "flows" (parts and rejoins). Within a knot, the direction of the wood (grain direction) is up to 90 degrees different from the grain direction of the regular wood. In the tree a knot is either the base of a side branch or a dormant bud. A knot (when the base of a side branch) is conical in shape (hence the roughly circular cross-section) with the tip at the point in stem diameter at which the plant's cambium was located when the branch formed as a bud. During the development of a tree, the lower limbs often die, but may persist for a time, sometimes years. Subsequent layers of growth of the attaching stem are no longer intimately joined with the dead limb, but are grown around it. Hence, dead branches produce knots which are not attached, and likely to drop out after the tree has been sawn into boards. In grading lumber and structural timber, knots are classified according to their form, size, soundness, and the firmness with which they are held in place. This firmness is affected by, among other factors, the length of time for which the branch was dead while the attaching stem continued to grow.

Bapuaнт 2 Wood Knot

Knots materially affect cracking (known in the US as checking, and the UK as shakes) and warping, ease in working, and cleavability of timber. They are defects which weaken timber and lower its value for structural purposes where strength is an important consideration. The weakening effect is much more serious when timber is subjected to forces perpendicular to the grain and/or tension than where under load along the grain and/or compression. The extent to which knots affect the strength of a beam depends upon their position, size, number, and condition. A knot on the upper side is compressed, while one on the lower side is subjected to tension. If there is a season check in the knot, as is often the case, it will offer little resistance to this ten- sile stress. Small knots, however, may be located along the neutral plane of a beam and increase the strength by preventing longitudinal shearing. Knots in a board or plank are least injurious when they extend through it

at right angles to its broadest surface. Knots which occur near the ends of a beam do not weaken it. Sound knots which occur in the central portion one-fourth the height of the beam from either edge are not serious defects. 6 Knots do not necessarily influence the stiffness of structural timber, this will depend on the size and location. Stiffness and elastic strength are more dependent upon the sound wood than upon localized defects. The breaking strength is very susceptible to defects. Sound knots do not weaken wood when sub- ject to compression parallel to the grain. In some decorative applications, wood with knots may be desirable to add visual interest. In applications where wood is painted, such as skirting boards, fascia boards, door frames and furniture, resins present in the timber may continue to 'bleed' through to the surface of a knot for months or even years after manufacture and show as a yellow or brownish stain. A Knot Primer paint or solution, correctly applied during preparation, may do much to reduce this problem but it is difficult to control completely, especially when using mass produced kiln-dried timber stocks.

Bapuaht 3 Hard and Soft Woods

There is a strong relationship between the properties of wood and the properties of the particular tree that yielded it. For every tree species there is a range of density for the wood it yields. There is a rough correlation between density of a wood and its strength (mechanical properties). For example, while mahogany is a medium- dense hardwood which is excellent for fine furniture crafting, balsa is light, mak- ing it useful for model building. The densest wood may be black ironwood. It is common to classify wood as either softwood or hardwood. The wood from coni- fers (e.g. pine) is called softwood, and the wood from dicotyledons (usually broad- leaved trees, e.g. oak) is called hardwood. These names are a bit misleading, as hardwoods are not necessarily hard, and softwoods are not necessarily soft. The well-known balsa (a hardwood) is actually softer than any commercial softwood. Conversely, some softwoods (e.g. yew) are harder than many hardwoods. Engi- neered wood products have properties that usually differ from those of natural timbers.

Bариант 4 Sections of tree trunk

In coniferous or softwood species the wood cells are mostly of one kind, tracheids, and as a result the material is much more uniform in structure than that of most hardwoods. There are no vessels («pores») in coniferous wood such as one sees so prominently in oak and ash, for example. The structure of hardwoods is more complex. The water conducting capability is mostly taken care of by vessels: in some cases (oak, chestnut, ash) these are quite large and distinct, in others (buck- eye, poplar, willow) too small to be seen without a hand lens. In discussing such woods it is customary to divide them into two large classes, ring-porous and dif- fuse-porous. In ring porous species, such as ash, black locust, catalpa,

chestnut, elm, hickory, mulberry, and oak, the larger vessels or pores (as cross sections of vessels are called) are localized in the part of the growth ring formed in spring, thus forming a region of more or less open and porous tissue. The rest of the ring, produced in summer, is made up of smaller vessels and a much greater proportion of wood fibers. These fibers are the elements which give strength and toughness to wood, while the vessels are a source of weakness. Magnified cross-section of Black Walnut, showing the vessels, rays (white lines) and annual rings: this is in- termediate between diffuse-porous and ring porous, with vessel size declining gradually In diffuse-porous woods the pores are evenly sized so that the water conducting capability is scattered throughout the growth ring instead of being 12 collected in a band or row. Examples of this kind of wood are basswood, birch, buckeye, maple, poplar, and willow. Some species, such as walnut and cherry, are on the border between the two classes, forming an intermediate group.

Earlywood and latewood in diffuse-porous woods

In the diffuse-porous woods, the demarcation between rings is not always so clear and in some cases is almost (if not entirely) invisible to the unaided eye. Conversely, when there is a clear demarcation there may not be a noticeable difference in structure within the growth ring. In diffuse-porous woods, as has been stated, the vessels or pores are evensized, so that the water conducting capability is scat-tered throughout the ring instead of collected in the earlywood. The effect of rate of growth is, therefore, not the same as in the ring-porous woods, approaching more nearly the conditions in the conifers. In general it may be stated that such woods of medium growth afford stronger material than when very rapidly or very slowly grown. In many uses of wood, total strength is not the main consideration. If ease of working is prized, wood should be chosen with regard to its uniformity of texture and straightness of grain, which will in most cases occur when there is little contrast between the latewood of one season's growth and the earlywood of the next.

Bapuaнт 6 Water content

The churches of Kizhi, Russia are among a handful of World Heritage Sites built entirely of wood, without metal joints. Water occurs in living wood in three conditions, namely: (1) in the cell walls, (2) in the protoplasmic contents of the cells, and (3) as free water in the cell cavities and spaces. In heartwood it occurs only in the first and last forms. Wood that is thoroughly air-dried retains from 8-16% of water in the cell walls, and none, or practically none, in the other forms. Even ov- en-dried wood retains a small percentage of moisture, but for all except chemical purposes, may be considered absolutely dry. The general effect of the water con- tent upon the wood substance is to render it softer and more pliable. A similar ef- fect of common observation is in the softening action of water on paper or cloth. Within certain limits, the greater the water content, the greater its softening effect. Drying produces a decided increase in the strength of wood,

particularly in small specimens. An extreme example is the case of a completely dry spruce block 5 cm in section, which will sustain a permanent load four times as great as that which a green (undried) block of the same size will support. The greatest increase due to drying is in the ultimate crushing strength, and strength at elastic limit in endwise compression; these are followed by the 17 modulus of rupture, and stress at elastic limit in cross-bending, while the modulus of elasticity is least affected.

EXAMPLE 19Bapuart 7 The requirement for long framing members

In certain larger buildings, a noticeable down-slope of floors towards central walls, caused by the differential shrinkage of the wood framing members at the perimeter versus central walls can be seen. Larger balloon-framed buildings will have central bearing walls which are actually platform framed and thus will have horizontal sill and top plates at each floor level, plus the intervening floor joists, at these central walls. Wood will shrink much more across its grain than along the grain. Therefore, the cumulative shrinkage in the center of such a building is considerably more than the shrinkage at the perimeter where there are many fewer horizontal members. Of course, this problem, unlike the first three, takes time to develop and become noticeable. Present day balloon framing buildings have considerably higher heating costs, due to the lack of insulation separating a room from its exterior walls. Since steel is generally more fire-resistant than wood, and steel framing members can be made to arbitrary lengths, balloon framing is grow- ing in popularity again in light gauge steel stud construction. Balloon framing provides a more direct load path down to the foundation. Additionally, balloon framing allows more flexibility for tradesmen in that it is significantly easier to pull wire, piping and ducting without having to bore through or work around framing members.

Вариант 8 Materials

Light-frame materials are most often wood or rectangular steel tubes or channels. Wood pieces are typically connected with nails or screws; steel pieces are con- nected by screws. Preferred species for linear structural members are softwoods such as spruce, pine and fir. Light frame material dimensions range from 38 mm by 89 mm (1.5 in by 3.5 in; i.e., a two-by-four) to 5 cm by 30 cm (two-by-twelve inches) at the cross-section, and lengths ranging from 2.5 m (8.2 ft) for walls to 7 m (23 ft) or more for joists and rafters. Recently, architects have begun experi- menting with pre-cut modular aluminum framing to reduce on-site construction costs. Wall panels built of studs are interrupted by sections that provide rough openings for doors and windows. Openings are typically spanned by a header or lintel that bears the weight of structure above the opening. Headers are usually built to rest on trimmers, also called jacks. Areas around windows are defined by a sill beneath the window, and cripples, which are shorter studs that span the area from the bottom plate to the sill and sometimes from the top of the window to a header, or from a header to a top plate. Diagonal bracings made of wood or steel provide shear (horizontal strength) as do panels of sheeting nailed to

Bариант 9 Roofs

Roofs are usually built to provide a sloping surface intended to shed rain or snow, with slopes ranging from 1 cm of rise per 15 cm (less than an inch per linear foot) of rafter length, to steep slopes of more than 2 cm per cm (two feet per foot) of rafter length. A light-frame structure built mostly inside sloping walls comprising a roof is called an A-frame. Roofs are most often covered with shingles made of asphalt, fiberglass and small gravel coating, but a wide range of materials are used. Molten tar is often used to waterproof flatter roofs, but newer materials in- clude rubber and synthetic materials. Steel panels are popular roof coverings in some areas, preferred for their durability. Slate or tile roofs offer more historic coverings for light-frame roofs. Light-frame methods allow easy construction of unique roof designs. Hip roofs, which slope toward walls on all sides, are joined at hip rafters that span from corners to a ridge. Valleys are formed when two sloping roof sections drain toward each other. Dormers are small areas in which vertical walls interrupt a roof line, and which are topped off by slopes at usually right angles to a main roof section. Gables are formed when a length-wise section of sloping roof ends to form a triangular wall section. Clerestories are formed by an interruption along the slope of a roof where a short vertical wall connects it to another roof section. Flat roofs, which usually include at least a nominal slope to shed water, are often surrounded by parapet walls with openings (called scuppers) to allow water to drain out. Sloping crickets are built into roofs to direct water away from areas of poor drainage, such as behind a chimney at the bottom of a sloping section.

Bариант 10 About John Boson

John Boson was a cabinet maker and carver whose work is associated with that of William Kent. It is said that if he had not died at such a relatively young age then his place would have been assured in the history of furniture making in the United Kingdom. He was born around the year 1705 and it is most likely that he learned his trade and served his apprenticeship near the naval shipyards of Deptford, for by the 1720s he had a yard and workshop in Greenwich. His name first appeared as that of a carver when he worked on St. George's Church, Bloomsbury in Lon- don. In 1725 his first domestic work is recorded when he made carvings for 4 St James's Square, London. He was at the same time one of the craftsmen employed to work on the Fifty New Churches designed by Sir Christopher Wren. He did not neglect the secular and domestic market and he is recorded as a worker at East In- dia House, Leadenhall Street in 1730; this time with a partner named John How. He is well known for his carved chimneypieces and there are good examples in the 'Great Room' at Baylies, Stoke Poges, Buckinghamshire and another example at Sir Michael Newton's seat of Culverthorpe, Lincolnshire. The 1730s were the years of Boson's greatest success and it was during this time that he regularly car- ried out work for Frederick,

Prince of Wales at his houses at Leicester Fields, Kew Palace, and Cliveden, Buckinghamshire. There are very few pieces that are rec- orded as being the work of John Boson and only seven pieces remain complete with their receipts. One of these is a large carved and gilt mirror that is in the col- lection of the Victoria and Albert Museum, London.

ПЕРЕЧЕНЬ ВОПРОСОВ К ДИФФЕРЕНЦИРОВАННОМУ ЗАЧЕТУ

Выполните (устно) перевод текста по специальности (объём 1000 - 1200 п.зн.) с иностранного языка на язык обучения. Составьте (письменно) постатейный словарь и напишите перевод указанного абзаца текста. Время выполнения работы -40 минут.

Устная беседа с преподавателем на одну из пройденных тем – 5 минут.

Темы

Страны изучаемого языка (Великобритания, США, Канада).

Технический прогресс.

Технологии в нашей жизни.

Образование в России и за рубежом.

Растения. Виды растений. Строение растений. Древесные виды.

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Современные реалии и технологии.

Оборудование рабочего места.

Техника безопасности.

Деловой этикет.

Обсуждение проблем внутри коллектива.

Приступаем к работе.

КРИТЕРИИ ОЦЕНКИ ДИФФЕРЕНЦИРОВАННОГО ЗАЧЕТА

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