МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ

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Система образования в Великобритании

Учебно-методические материалы для студентов IV курса отделения английского языка переводческого факультета

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Предлагаемые учебно-методические материалы предназначены для совершенствования иноязычной коммуникативной компетенции в рамках тематической области «Образование». В УММ представлены аутентичные тексты, взятые с открытых интернет-ресурсов, таких как http://www.bbc.com/uk и http://www.theguardian.com/uk.

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ВВЕДЕНИЕ

УММ «Система образования в Великобритании» включают материалы, которые позволяют получить представление о структуре начального, среднего и высшего образования в Великобритании.

Учебно-методические материалы состоят из 11 разделов, первый из которых посвящен истории становления национальной системы образования. Далее рассматриваются базовые принципы, на которых она строится в настоящее время, описываются основные типы школ, субсидируемых государством. Особое внимание уделяется частным школам, которые являются важным сегментом британской образовательной системы. Другим важным аспектом является система поступления в высшие учебные заведения. Отдельные разделы посвящены типам высших учебных заведений, способам организации образовательного процесса в британских университетах, современной системе финансирования обучения и тенденциям в области дистанционного образования.

Сопровождающие каждый текст пособия языковые и речевые упражнения призваны помочь студентам овладеть основной тематической лексикой в ее семантическом, грамматическом и комбинаторном аспектах, расширить фоновые знания в отношении структуры образования в Великобритании, критически оценить ее сильные и слабые стороны и сопоставить с современной российской системой образования. Упражнения, направленные на развитие речевых навыков, предполагают ответы на проблемные вопросы, развернутые высказывания по поводу обсуждаемых проблем, комментирование отдельных фрагментов текста.

CONTENTS

UNIT I

English School History

The British school system is complicated because there is no one common organization. England and Wales, Northern Ireland, and Scotland have different school systems. But the general debates on education are similar in all the nations, and higher education is more or less the same.

The knowledge of school history is essential in order to understand current controversies and concerns. State involvement in the school system, except for Scotland, was relatively late, and the first nationwide attempt to establish state elementary schools came only in 1870. It was not until 1944 that the state supplied a comprehensive system of free and compulsory primary and secondary school education.

However, independent (private) schools have existed for many centuries, and they influenced the later state system. The mixture of state and independent institutions contributes to the complicated diversity of contemporary British schooling, particularly in England. It also illustrates the continuing debates about alleged educational elitism and attempts to create a more representative school system.

The church's central position in earlier centuries enabled it to create the first English schools in the sixth century, after the country had been converted to Christianity. It maintained its educational role in succeeding centuries and its schools were chiefly intended to prepare boys for the priesthood.

But other types of school were also periodically established, either by rich individuals or monarchs. Such schools were variously known as grammar, high and public schools, and were later to be associated with both the modern independent and state educational sectors. But these schools were largely confined to the sons of the rich, aristocratic and influential. The vast majority of

the population consequently received no formal schooling, and most people remained illiterate and innumerate.

In later centuries, the church created more elementary schools, and a few local areas developed secular schools for young children. Elementary school opportunities were also provided by wealthy industrialists and philanthropists, who established different types of school for working-class boys and girls in towns and the countryside. But the minority of children in the population attending these various schools received only a basic instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic. Educational opportunities for the majority of children were still non-existent. By the early nineteenth century, England had a haphazard and fragmented school structure. At a time when the industrial revolutions were proceeding rapidly and the population was increasing dramatically, the state did not provide a system which could educate the workforce.

But changes had occurred within the existing school framework. The Church of England lost its domination of education, and had to compete with the Roman Catholic Church, the Nonconformist churches and other denominations. Although they had their own separate schools, and protected their independence from state and secular interference, they did provide much of the available schooling and a religious framework which affected later developments in education.

Meanwhile the ancient high, grammar and public schools continued to train the sons of the middle and upper classes for leadership and professional roles in society. But many members of the working class still received no formal or adequate education. Until the late nineteenth century the state played no central role in the school system.

However, local and central government had gradually begun to show some regard for education in the early nineteenth century, although new developments were limited. Grants were made to local authorities for use in

their local areas, and in 1833 Parliament supplied finance for the construction of school buildings. But it was only in 1870 that the state became more actively involved at the national level. An Education Act (the Forster Act) created school boards for all local areas in the country, which had authority to provide schools in their neighbourhoods. By 1880 a national system of education provided free elementary schooling for all children between the ages of 5 and 10.

The 1870 Act established a dual system of schools. The new state elementary schools supplied non-denominational training, while the religious voluntary schools, which now received increased financial support from the state, served denominational needs. By 1900 the various schools were able to provide education for children up to the age of 13/14.

Despite developments in the late nineteenth century, advanced secondary education remained largely the province of the independent sector, and consequently of those people who could pay for its provisions. After a period when the old public schools had declined in quality, they revived in the nineteenth century. Their weaknesses, such as the narrow curriculum and lack of discipline, had been reformed by progressive headmasters like Thomas Arnold of Rugby, and their reputations increased. The grammar and high schools, which imitated the classics-based education of the public schools, also expanded. But these schools drew their pupils from the sons of the middle and upper classes, and were the training grounds for the established elite and the professions.

However, a number of Acts in the early twentieth century marginally extended secondary education to those children whose parents could not afford school fees. The Balfour Act of 1902 provided scholarships (financial grants) so that clever elementary schoolchildren could enter fee-paying secondary schools. An education Act of 1918 (the Fisher Act) established a few state secondary schools. But this increased state help did not appreciably expand the provisions for secondary education, and only a small number of children were able to enter the secondary school system on a non-fee-paying basis.

The English school system in the early twentieth century was consequently still inadequate for the demands of society, and governments avoided any further large-scale involvement. It was only in 1944 that a new Education Act (the Butler Act) radically reorganized and developed the state primary and secondary school system in England and Wales.

The Act was an imaginative piece of legislation, and profoundly influenced future generations of schoolchildren. It created a Ministry of Education, headed by a Minister of Education, who established a national educational service in all areas of the country. A decentralized educational system resulted, in which the Ministry drew up policy guidelines, and local education authorities (LEAs) decided which specific forms of schooling would be used in their areas.

State education was divided into three stages: primary schools (5 – 12 years old); secondary schools (12 – 15); and further post-school training. State schooling was free and compulsory up to the legal school-leaving age of 15.

Two main types of state schools resulted from the Act: county and voluntary. Primary and secondary county schools were provided by the local authorities of each county. Voluntary schools were mainly those elementary schools which had been founded by religious and other groups, and which were now partially financed and maintained by local authorities, although they still retained their religious affiliation. Today some non-Christian groups, such as Muslims and Hindus, are trying to establish voluntary schools for their children on the same lines. The 1944 changes consequently resulted in non-denominational state schools coexisting with maintained voluntary schools. Today the ratio is two to one.

The 1944 Act allowed LEAs to organize the new system, and different schools developed. But most state county schools at the secondary level were divided into grammar schools and secondary modern schools, with some areas having a third type, the secondary technical school or college. Some of the

grammar schools were new, while others were old foundations, which now received direct state financial aid. But other ancient grammar schools decided to become independent, and stayed outside the state system. The independent sector of education was largely untouched by these state developments and the Act.

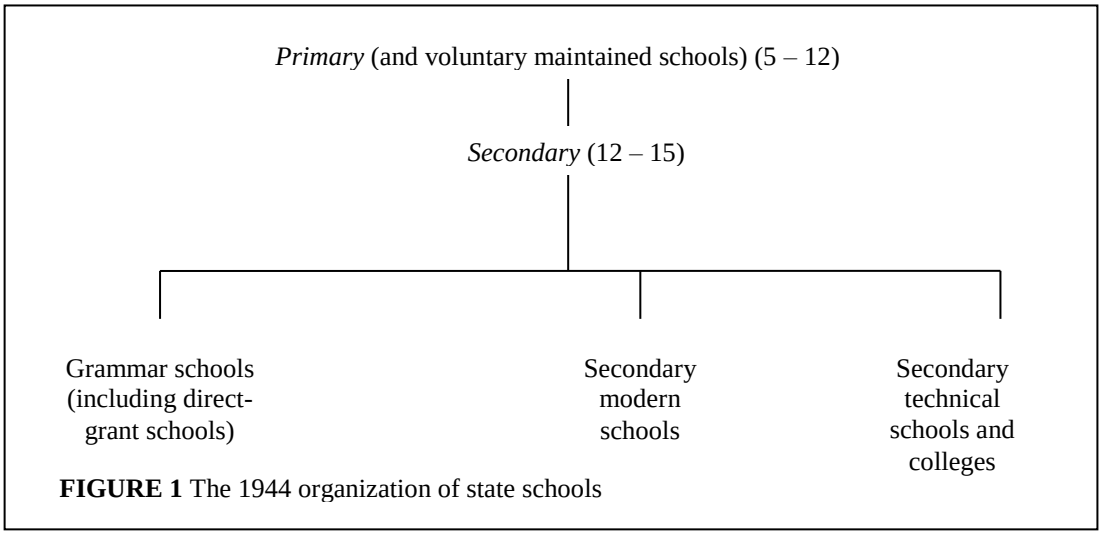


FIGURE 1 The 1944 organization of state schools

The secondary division involved a choice between the different types of school, which was dependent upon an examination result. The 11-plus examination, which was adopted by most LEAs, consisted of intelligence tests which covered linguistic, mathematical and general knowledge, and was taken in the last year of primary schooling. The object was to select between academic and non-academic children. Those who passed the examination went to grammar school, while those who failed went to the less academic secondary modern school and technical college. Although these schools were supposed to be equal in terms of their educational targets, the examination led parents, teachers and pupils to equate the grammar schools with a better education and a socially more respectable role.

The grammar schools prepared children for national examinations like the Matriculation Certificate, which later became the General Certificate of Education (GCE) at ordinary and advanced levels. These examinations qualified children for the better jobs and entry into higher education and the professions. Education in

secondary modern schools was based on practical schooling without examinations, although GCE and other examinations were later introduced.

The intention of the 1944 Act was to provide universal and free state primary and secondary education. In addition, day-release training at local colleges was introduced for employed people who wanted further education after 15, and local authority grants were given to students who wished to enter higher education. It was hoped that such equality of opportunity would expand the educational market, lead to a better-educated society, and achieve greater social mobility.

However, it was widely felt in the 1950s that these aims were not being achieved under the selective system of secondary education. The concerns turned education into a party-political battlefield, on which ideological battles are still fought. The Labour Party, among other critics, argued that the 11-plus examination was wrong in principle, socially divisive, and had educational and testing weaknesses. It was maintained that the 11-plus regime allowed middle-class children to predominate in the grammar schools and in higher education, so that the class system was perpetuated.

The Labour government in 1964 was committed to abolishing the 11-plus and secondary school divisions. These would be replaced by non-selective "comprehensive schools". They would provide schooling for children of all ability levels and from all social backgrounds, ideally under one roof.

www.bbc.co.uk/schools

1. Single out the key stages in the British educational system development. Characterize each of them in detail.

2. What is the Russian for the following words and collocations:

innumerate, school board, voluntary schools, the training grounds for the established elite and the professions, an imaginative piece of legislation, to draw

up policy guidelines, to retain their religious affiliation, maintained schools, LEA, comprehensive school.

3. Put it into English:

обратить в христианство, неграмотный, вероисповедание, предоставлять бесплатное начальное образование детям от 5 до 10 лет, стипендия, обязательное образование, ведущий к социальному расслоению.

4. Insert prepositions:

debates … education;
to be confined … the sons of the rich;
instruction … reading;
to show some regard … education;
to decline … quality;
to expand the provisions … secondary education;
to enter the secondary school system … a non-fee-paying basis;
to be inadequate … the demands of society;
the ratio is two … one;
to be taken … the last year of primary schooling;
to equate the grammar schools … a better education;
to qualify children … the better jobs;
entry … higher education and the professions;
to be committed … abolishing the 11-plus and secondary school divisions.

5. Provide definitions to the following words:

secular, philanthropist, haphazard, grant, curriculum, academic, to perpetuate.

6. Paraphrase the following expressions:

to understand current controversies and concerns –

a dual system of schools –

a comprehensive system of free and compulsory primary and secondary school education –

alleged educational elitism –

to establish voluntary schools for their children on the same lines –

non-academic children –

to achieve greater social mobility –

UNIT II

The Present School System

The State School Sector

State schooling before the age of 5 is not compulsory in Britain, and there is no statutory requirement on the LEAs to provide such education. But more parents are seeking school provisions for young children: there is considerable concern about the lack of opportunities; and the government proposes to improve the situation. At present only some 25 per cent of 3- and 4-year-olds benefit from a state nursery education.

Otherwise, state education is free (except for some specialist individual instruction) and compulsory for children between the ages of 5 and 16. Over 90 per cent of all children in England and Wales are educated in the state sector. The Department for Education (DFE), under a Secretary of State, originates broad educational policies, and the LEAs retain for the time being a degree of decentralized power and choice in educational matters. They are controlled by the education committees of local councils, and organize much school planning and the hiring of teachers in their areas. Although most of the finance for local education is provided by central government, governments in the past have interfered very little in the activities of the LEAs and the schools.

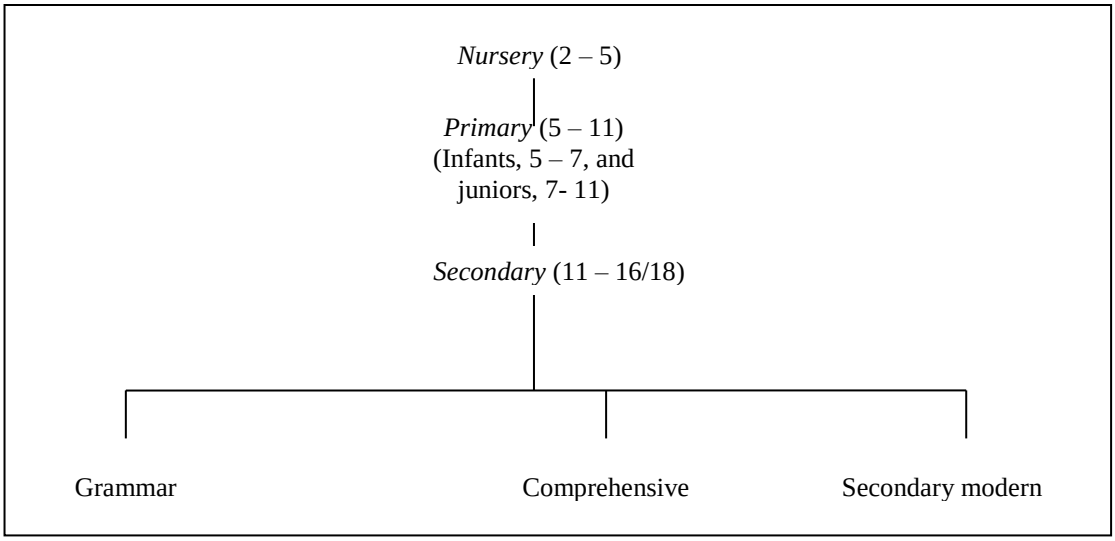
The LEAs have also traditionally left the academic organization of schools to headteachers. These have allowed freedom to the staffs of their schools to organize their own programmes, books and methods of teaching. Many state schools also have boards of unpaid governors, who are usually local citizens prepared to give help and guidance, and who may also be involved in the hiring of headteachers and teachers.

This overall situation has been considerably changed by the Conservative government's Education Acts of 1986 and 1988. Headteachers have been given financial control over their school budgets and have taken on management roles; greater powers of decision-making have been transferred to school governors; and parents now have a greater voice in the actual running of schools, as well as a right to choose a particular school for their children. Schools are now allowed to opt out of (transfer from) local authority control if a majority of parents vote for such a move, and the Secretary of State authorizes the proposal. Such schools are still state schools, but are self-governing; receive their finding directly from the DFE; and the headteachers and governors have responsibility for their own school budgets and management.

As a result of these reforms, and although only a few schools have completed the opting-out process, LEAs have lost their educational monopoly in the state sector. But greater responsibilities are now held by headteachers, governors, teachers and parents. This has meant a shift from purely educational to management roles, and involves increased burdens of time and administration.

State pupils move automatically from primary to secondary schools normally at the age of 11. Some 90 per cent of secondary schoolchildren go to state comprehensives from the ages of 11 to 16/18, and there are only a small number of grammar and secondary modern schools left in the state system. The continued existence of these latter schools depends partly on local government

decisions, partly upon parent power, and partly upon whether they are candidates for the opting-out process.



Comprehensive school pupils are of mixed abilities, and come from a variety of social backgrounds in the local area. There is still much argument about the quality and performance of the system. Some critics argue that bright academic children suffer, although streaming into different ability classes occurs, and examination results can be excellent. There are some very good comprehensive schools, which are not necessarily confined to privileged areas. But there are also some very weak ones, which suffer from a variety of social, economic and educational problems.

Scotland has an ancient separate educational system, with colleges and universities which are among the oldest in Europe. Its school system, under a Scottish Education Board which decides policy, has long been comprehensive, and it has different school examinations from those in the rest of Britain. The Scottish ‘public schools’ are state and not private institutions, and children transfer from primary to secondary education at 12.

In Northern Ireland the state schools are mostly divided on religious grounds into Catholic and Protestant, and are often single-sex. However, there are some tentative movements towards integrated coeducational schools. The comprehensive principle has not been widely adopted, and a selective system

with an examination at 11 gives entrance to grammar schools. Performances at these schools have been generally superior to their counterparts in England and Wales, although examination results in the other secondary schools are comparatively poor.

Schools Grouped by Admission Categories

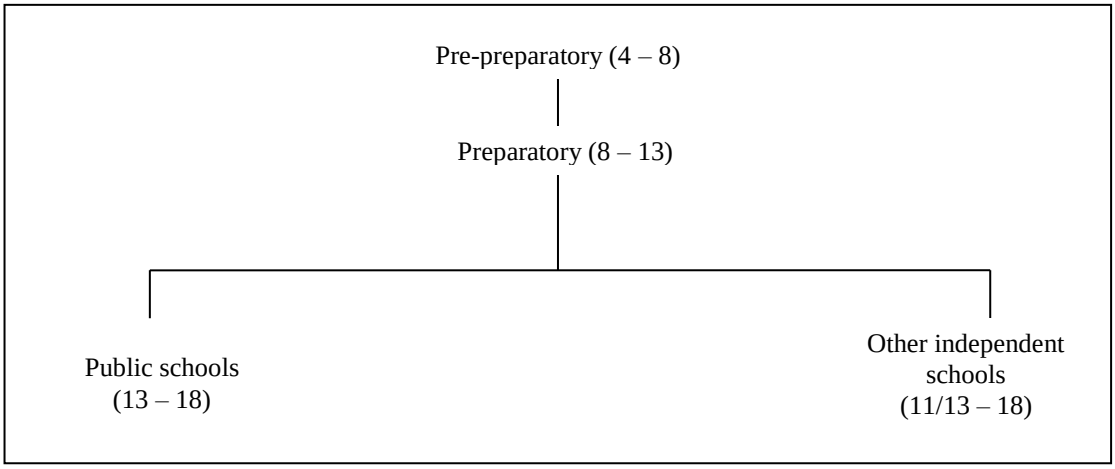
- **State selective school:** state-funded schools that admit pupils on the basis of ability or other criteria, in which the school or governing body is the admissions authority. This category includes grammar, foundation and many voluntary-aided schools.
- **State non-selective school:** all-ability state-funded schools, and in which in most cases the local authority is the admissions authority. This category includes community, comprehensive, academy and free schools.
- **Independent school:** schools that are not maintained by a local authority or the Department for Education, and are responsible for their own admissions. Most are fee-paying.

The Independent (or Private Fee-Paying) School Sector

The independent school sector is separate from the state educational system, and caters for some 7.6 per cent of all schoolchildren, from the ages of 4 to 18 at various levels of education in some 2,500 schools.

Its financing is dependent partly upon investments and partly upon the fees paid by the pupils' parents for their education, which vary somewhat between schools and can amount to several thousand pounds a year. There is a small minority of scholarship holders, whose expenses are covered by their schools, and the government also provides funds (the assisted places scheme) so that gifted children from poorer families can benefit from independent education. The independent sector is dependent upon its charitable and tax-

exempt status to survive. This means that the schools are not taxed on their income if it is used only for educational purposes.



The roughly 250 public schools, such as Eton, Harrow and Winchester, are the most famous of the independent schools, and are usually defined by their membership of the Headmasters' Conference. They were originally created to provide education for the sons of the rich and aristocratic. Such schools are mainly boarding establishments, where the pupils live and are educated during term time, although many of them now take day-pupils who do not board in. But boarding generally in the independent sector as a whole has now declined.

Public schools play a significant role in British education, and many leading figures have been educated at them. Entry today is competitive, normally by an entrance examination, and is not confined to social class, connections or wealth, although the ability to pay the fees is obviously important. Independent preparatory schools (primary level) prepare their pupils for public school entrance, and parents who decide to send their children to a public school will often give them a 'prep school' education first.

There are many other independent schools in addition to the public schools, which can vary considerably in quality and reputation. The independent sector has grown, and has an attraction despite its size and increasing fees. Insurance schemes for the payment of school fees mean that there are opportunities for independent education for the less affluent, and parents

frequently make great financial sacrifices so that their children can be independently educated.

From late in the 19th century a number of girls' public schools were established, as were also denominational or other special-purpose schools. The impact of the public schools in Britain was historically immense. Perhaps in no other post-Renaissance country did an ethos directly inculcated in so few citizens exercise such influence nationally – and internationally, given the crucial role of the public school ethos in helping Britain build its empire. The ethos in question was less an academic one than a class-conscious code of behaviour, speech, and appearance. It set the standard for conduct in the life of officialdom in Britain from the early 19th century to the mid-20th.

The independent sector is criticized for being elitist, socially divisive and based on the ability to pay for education. In this view it perpetuates the class system. The Labour Party argues for the abolition of independent schools; has tried to remove their tax and charitable status; and is committed to phasing out the assisted places scheme. But independent schools are now firmly established, and for many provide an element of choice in what would otherwise be a state monopoly on education.

The following is a list of the nine best-known public schools, in the order of their founding: Winchester College, Eton College, St. Paul's School, Shrewsbury School, Westminster School, Merchant Taylors' School, Rugby School, Harrow School, Charterhouse School.

www.bbc.co.uk/schools

1. Put it into English:

директор школы, переходить из начальной школы в среднюю автоматически, разделение на потоки в зависимости от способностей, школа раздельного образования, плата за обучение, школа-интернат, государственная монополия на образование.

2. Put it into Russian:

statutory requirement –

to originate broad educational policies –

school governor –

Secretary of State –

State selective school –

prep school –

3. Explain the meaning of the following words:

retain, coeducational, tax-exempt, ethos, to inculcate, officialdom.

4. Insert prepositions:

to show concern … the lack of opportunities;

to benefit … a state nursery education;

… the time being;

to interfere very little … the activities … the LEAs;

taken … management roles;

to be … mixed abilities;

to be divided … religious grounds;

to cater … some 7.6 per cent … all schoolchildren.

5. Paraphrase the following expressions:

to seek school provisions for young children –

to opt out of local authority control –

Performances at these schools have been generally superior to their counterparts in England and Wales –

the admissions authority –

to phase out the assisted places scheme –

UNIT III

School Organization and Examinations

The school day in most state and independent schools, except for infant and junior schools, usually runs from 9.00 a.m. until 4 p.m., and the school year is divided into three s (autumn, spring and summer). There have been proposals to introduce four-term years and school hours with an earlier start and finish, but these have not been implemented. Classes in British schools used to be called ‘forms’, and in secondary schools were numbered from one to six. But now many schools have adopted year numbers from 7 to 11 in secondary schools, with a two-year sixth form for advanced work. Corporal punishment was abolished in state schools in 1986, but is still allowed in the independent sector.

The School Years in State Schools

Age 4-5	Reception
Age 5-6	Year 1
Age 6-7	Year 2 - End of Key Stage 1
Age 7-8	Year 3
Age 8-9	Year 4
Age 9-10	Year 5
Age 10-11	Year 6 - End of Key Stage 2
Age 11-12	Year 7
Age 12-13	Year 8
Age 13-14	Year 9 - End of Key Stage 3

Age 14-15	Year 10
Age 15-16	Year 11
Age 16-17	Year 12
Age 17-18	Year 13

Most teachers are still trained at the universities and other colleges, although the government would like to broaden their training by greater access to the actual school system. There is a shortage of teachers in some areas of the country and in specialized subjects like mathematics, technology and physics. Potential teachers increasingly see the profession as unattractive, and many practising teachers leave for better-paid jobs or retire early. Teachers at present are suffering from low morale after battles with the government over pay, conditions and educational reforms, and from what they perceive as the low status afforded them by government and the general public. The teaching profession has become very stressful and subject to greater pressures than in the past.

As part of government reforms, attainment tests have been controversially set to establish what children should be reasonably expected to know at ages of 7, 11, 14 and 16. The progress of each schoolchild can be measured against national standards, assessed and reported. But many teachers are opposed to the extra work involved, doubt the validity of the tests and have boycotted them in recent years.

Another radical reform is the establishment of a National Curriculum. The aim was to raise standards, making sure all children have a broad and balanced education up to the age of 16. A second aim was to ensure that schools in all parts of the country were following the same courses. This has particular advantage for children who change schools when families move house from one area to another.

The National Curriculum defines the different stages and core subjects that all children in the state system must be taught during their time at school.

For primary school children, the subjects they must learn are English, maths, science, design and technology, information and Communication Technology (ICT), history, geography, art and design, music and physical education. They are tested at the end of each school year, although only some of these tests will be formally assessed.

At secondary school level, the subjects are the same, apart from them students must also take modern foreign languages, art and design, and citizenship. Schools also have to provide sex and relationship education (SRE), religious education and in Year 9, they must take careers education and guidance.

A new National Curriculum is being introduced for secondary school pupils (pupils in Key Stages 3 and 4, aged 11-16). The new curriculum aims to give schools and teachers more flexibility about what they teach. Although programmes of study still apply, teachers will have more freedom to plan their lessons. It also aims to give teachers more opportunities to assess pupils and provide support for those struggling or more challenges for those who find the school work easy.

Another ambition of the new curriculum is to make sure that pupils interested in new National Diplomas are given support and guidance near the end of Key Stage 4 (at age 16), to help them find a path that interests and motivates them.

The new curriculum includes two new non-compulsory programmes of study - personal wellbeing and financial wellbeing.

The National Curriculum (which is not applicable to independent schools) is tied to a system of national examinations at the secondary level. They may be taken in all types of schools in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. The two main examinations are the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE),

which is taken usually by 16-year-olds, and the General Certificate of Education at Advanced Level (GCE A level), which is normally taken at the end of the second year in the sixth form by 18-year-olds.

When a child reaches Year 9 at secondary school, they will choose subjects for their GCSE exams (General Certificate of Secondary Education; a national examination, the results for which are posted in schools at the end of August every year).

Normally children take up to nine GCSEs. Pupils are then able to decide whether they would like to carry on with their education and study for A Level (Advanced Level) exams. Around 320,000 teenagers take the exams every year. They normally opt for three or four subjects, and the basic subjects require for jobs and further education are English, mathematics (or a science) and a foreign language.

GCSE is the major qualification taken by pupils at the end of compulsory schooling, as a series of exams in the individual subjects. The papers are set by the Assessment and Qualification Alliance, which appoints examiners to mark the papers outside the school. Results are graded A* (the highest), A, B, C, D, E, F and G with U (unclassified) for those who do not meet the minimum standard. Some subjects are tiered to cater for different ability ranges. For example, those expected by a school to do the best will be entered for papers covering grade A* to D. Others will do the papers in which the maximum possible grade would be a C. There are three tiers for maths.

The second national examination (GCE A level) is normally associated with more academic pupils, who are aiming for entry to higher education or the professions. Good passes are now essential because the competition for places in the universities and other colleges has become much stiffer. The number of subjects taken at A level varies between one and four, although three are usually required for entry into higher education. Pupils may mix arts and science subjects, but this is now unusual because high marks are crucial. The

concentration upon a few subjects reflects the high degree of early specialization in the British system. Supplementary examinations to the A levels (AS levels) may also be taken at the end of the first year in the sixth form, and serve as a lower-level alternative. There is continuing discussion about the format and content of A levels, but it seems that the emphasis upon specialized academic knowledge will continue.

www.bbc.co.uk/schools

1. Put it into Russian:

sixth form, low morale, the validity of the tests, National Curriculum, citizenship, personal wellbeing and financial wellbeing, GCSE, National Diplomas, to heap pressure on everyone, a benchmark, to set papers, to meet the minimum standard , to do the papers, to follow the same courses.

2. Put it into English:

Занятия в большинстве государственных и частных школ длятся с 9 до 16 часов.

В государственных школах телесные наказания отменены.

Учебный план содержит как обязательные, так и факультативные предметы.

Ученики могут выбрать три или четыре предмета.

Конкурс в университеты стал выше.

Они сдают экзамены по определенным предметам.

Некоторые тесты разделяются на варианты разной степени сложности.

3. Provide synonyms to the following words:

to implement –

to assess –

supplementary –

compulsory –

optional –

4. Insert prepositions:

to be subject … great pressures;

to be measured … national standards;

to be applicable … independent schools;

to take … … nine GCSEs;

to carry … … their education;

to aim … entry … higher education or the professions;

the concentration … a few subjects;

to be apprehensive … something;

minor changes … the group taking the exams;

to be strongly opposed … them;

to be steered … the exams;

to be entered … papers;

to cater … different ability ranges.

5. Give detailed answers to the following questions:

- What are the strong and the week points of the National Curriculum?
- What is the basic purpose of tests and examinations?
- Should tests be tiered to cater for different ability ranges?
- What purposes do national exams fulfil?
- How important is the pupil's performance in a terminal examination for his/her academic assessment?
- Some educationists believe that examinations get in the way of learning. Provide arguments for and against it.

UNIT IV

Children Learn by Different Rules

Rosemary Scott explains why experience with adults can be of little use when teaching young learners.

All over the world learners of English are getting younger. The trend that began in state education is now also apparent in private language schools, where more under 16s and even learners younger as five are being taught. Teacher training is still trying to catch up. Although young learner (YL) training courses are being developed many teachers are still being asked to teach young people using skills appropriate to adults.

Many teachers are unaware of just how different the YL class is to most adult teaching. Although teaching style and lesson content depend on the age range of learners – teenagers or younger children – there are basic principles that apply to the complete YL age span.

The fundamental need is for suitable classroom management skills. Successful teaching and learning cannot take place unless a teacher can settle a class and command their attention. The first important rule is never to start a lesson until you have the attention of the whole class.

Once rules and routines have been established the teacher can stimulate interest with challenging language tasks appropriate to the age and needs of the YLs. The whole class must be cognitively and emotionally involved in their work otherwise they become bored, disruptive and do not learn. Children learn foreign language through being involved in the learning process and through the inclusion of meaningful repetition and short, achievable tasks.

Adults enter the classroom quietly, often need to be stimulated to speak, open their books at the same time and the lesson starts briskly. Usually the opposite happens with YLs. They enter the room noisily, need to be settled not stirred, and can take “ages” to find the place in their book.

Establishing a pattern of expected behaviour, stating rules and applying them fairly, and establishing your own classroom presence so pupils know what to expect all contribute to the success of a language lesson.

Adult learning programmes are generally based on linguistic needs, but with children, especially at primary level, it is topics and their content that promote language development. While adults will happily practise language in pairs, such an activity can cause mayhem with YLs. So teacher-led activities are preferable to pair work until the ground rules have been well established.

There are a wide range of qualities and skills that contribute to the success of a good YL teacher. First, teachers have to like children and want to work with them. Second, a qualification and sound professional training in teaching children gives the teacher the classroom credibility necessary to develop the language skills of the pupils in a systematic manner.

Children themselves have very definite views on what makes a good teacher: being fair; not shouting; making lessons interesting; speaking only in English; marking homework.

In every teaching situation I have experienced “fairness” always comes first in the list – children have strong feelings about injustice and can harbour resentment. They also dislike teachers who shout. As for homework, children feel disappointed and demotivated if the teacher does not set and mark their work promptly.

The best way to become a competent YL teacher is to do an internationally recognised course that includes supervised and assessed teaching practice.

The Observer, 16 December 2001

1. Put it into English:

разрабатывать учебный курс, содержание урока, не начинать урок до тех пор, пока все не будут слушать учителя внимательно, завладеть

вниманием, установить правила, проверять домашнее задание, остро чувствовать несправедливость, справедливо следовать установленным правилам.

2. Put it into Russian:

classroom management skills –

to settle a class –

to stimulate interest with challenging language tasks –

to have short, achievable tasks –

they need to be settled not stirred –

to set and mark the work promptly –

3. Explain the meaning of the following words:

disruptive, mayhem, to demotivate.

4. Paraphrase the following expressions:

to command the attention of the class –

the whole class must be cognitively and emotionally involved in their work –

to establish your own classroom presence –

teacher-led activities –

classroom credibility –

to harbour resentment –

to promote language development –

5. Explain the difference between working with adults and teaching young learners.

6. What qualities make a good teacher, in your view?

UNIT V
Worth the Wait

Using actual A-level results rather than crystal ball predictions as the basis for university applications seems not only fairer but also a possible way of widening access. So what's the hold up, wonders ***Donald MacLeod.***

Steven Schwartz, currently advising the government on ways to widen access to university, is not the first person to think it would be more sensible to apply on the basis of actual A-level results instead of the current system based on teachers' predictions.

The vice-chancellor of Brunel University is the latest in a long and distinguished line of academics and policy makers who have recommended the move to what is known in education jargon as post-qualifications admissions. Four inquiries over the past decade have all come out in favour.

And you don't have to be an eminent academic to see that it is fairer and simpler – schools, universities and Ucas all say they back it principle. In fact it is such an obviously good idea that it is extraordinary that reform has not taken place.

At the moment candidates apply to their six university choices through the admissions system Ucas armed with their teachers' predictions of what they will achieve in their A-levels or Highers. Admissions tutors make them offers of places on condition that they get the grades demanded – say two As and a B for a prestigious, oversubscribed course, down to two Es where the department is desperate to recruit.

Naturally teachers tend to put the best gloss on their students but even if they don't make the grades, admissions tutors tend to stick with the candidates they have chosen if they miss by a grade or two. Some students do better than their teachers expected – and there is some evidence that they are often the working class youngsters – and are then faced with taking a year out and reapplying with their actual grades or accepting a place on a less prestigious course.

As Sir William Stubbs, former chairman of exams watchdog, the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA), pointed out today, another advantage of applying after A-levels would be having the actual mark to distinguish between A grade candidates. Bristol University English tutors, for instance, would then have a clear basis for choosing one very bright student in preference to another.

This is why Professor Schwartz is arguing that post-qualifications admissions would help widen access. Still, previous advocates of change have stumbled on the deep conservatism of the education system, in particular the universities. Will Professor Schwartz have better luck?

Until now, reform could not happen without the schools, the exam boards and the universities all changing. Schools would have to accept earlier exams, the boards mark papers and disseminate the results quicker and the universities start the academic year later – a couple of weeks later, or in January, depending on the proposals under discussion.

Exams have already been brought forward in schools and colleges. The two year A-level course in practice lasts just 18 months. The exam boards show signs of moving away from what Ken Boston, chief executive of the QCA, called a cottage industry approach. More efficient arrangements and electronic marking hold out the prospect of quicker results, but the introduction of AS-levels and the furore over last year's grades mean that the boards are still battling to get the results right, not get them out quicker.

The universities are still wedded to the medieval academic year and are unlikely to change. Although Universities UK, which represents the vice-chancellors, is in favour of post-qualification admissions in principle, it has raised concerns about moving the start of the year to January on the grounds that international students might be deterred and that there would a four month gap for students between their A-levels and starting university. Some would get jobs and be lost to higher education, fear the vice-chancellors.

But at Ucas there are hopes that new technology will speed up the process enough to allow post-qualifications admissions without major changes to the academic year. Already students are applying online and soon Ucas will be sending applications on to admissions tutors by email instead of printing electronic applications on paper and posting them. That would mean a three or four week process telescoped into a few days.

So Professor Schwartz may be onto a winner, if he can persuade the education secretary Charles Clarke. But whether this will widen access to working class or ethnic minority students is another question. Using marks would be clear but it would reinforce inequalities of schooling and lessen the freedom of maneuver for admissions tutors to pick promising students from poor backgrounds of bad schools.

And what of the students themselves? Knowing you have to meet certain grades is a pressure at the moment - but not knowing exactly what grades you had to get might well be a worse pressure on the A-level candidates of the future.

The Guardian, 11 August 2003

1. Put it into English:

расширить прием в университеты, в принципе поддерживать идею, не добрать балл или два в ходе экзаменов, кустарный подход, вновь подать заявление.

2. Put it into Russian:

admissions tutors, oversubscribed course, make the grades, to take a year out, exams watchdog, to meet certain grades.

3. Explain the meaning of the following words:

vice-chancellor, an academic, Ucas, to disseminate, furore, reinforce.

4. Paraphrase the following:

crystal ball predictions –

post-qualifications admissions –

to be desperate to recruit –

to stumble on the deep conservatism of the education system –

to be wedded to the medieval academic year –

a three or four week process telescoped into a few days –

5. Insert prepositions:

to apply … the basis … actual A-level results;

what they will achieve … their A-levels;

to put the best gloss … their students;

to stick … the candidates they have chosen;

to accept a place … a less prestigious course;

to have a clear basis … choosing one very bright student … preference … another;

to be lost … higher education.

6. What are the advantages and the disadvantages of the university application and enrollment system in Great Britain? Compare and contrast the admission processes in Russia and GB.

UNIT VI

School League Tables: Many Ways to Measure Schools

By Angela Harrison: Education correspondent, BBC News.

The school league tables have been a part of life in England for more than 20 years now. Parents study them carefully, often for years before their children start or change schools. Governing bodies, heads and teachers are often apprehensive about them, knowing that minor changes to the group taking the

exams or their performance can result in jumps up or down the tables. The teaching unions are strongly opposed to them. They say they lead to a narrowing of the curriculum because teachers "teach to the test" to try to help students – and their schools – to get the best marks possible. They say the tables heap pressure on everyone. Mary Bousted, the general secretary of the Association of Teachers and Lecturers, said: "Pupils need a broad range of knowledge – for life, for work, and for future study – and league tables threaten this".

'Improve performance'

The tables have come and gone in Wales - where teaching unions also opposed them – but have now come back, in a softened form called **banding.**

In England, they have been refined and expanded and now include about 400 variables, including data on schools' finances and staffing. Under Labour, the government released performance data on schools annually but left it up to media organisations to rank them. But now parents and others can compare and rank schools in their area or across the country on a range of criteria on the **Department for Education's website.**

The government says parents should have access to as much information as possible and that a rigorous accountability system will raise standards.

The head teachers' union, the Association of School and College Leaders (ASCL), accepts "transparency of information is important", but warns we are "now at risk of information overload". "There are so many ways to measure schools," one head teacher of a top-performing school told me recently, with an an air of resignation.

'Dysfunctional effect'

Academics such as Professors Simon Burgess at Bristol University and Robert Coe at Durham University say there is evidence to suggest that accountability and league tables can improve performance. Prof Burgess says his research showed that the abolition of the tables in Wales resulted in a "significant deterioration in GCSE performance".

Prof Coe said: "If you look at the global picture, you see pretty much universally that a lot of incentives drive particular types of behaviour."

But there was also "quite a lot of evidence" that league tables might have a "dysfunctional effect", he said. "The things that people do that reduce or eliminate benefits, for example gaming or cheating or the grey area in between."

What do they show?

The proportion of children getting the five GCSE passes at A* to C including maths and English that the government sets as a benchmark for schools (that is the key league table measure) has been rising steadily for some years, so some will say the tables have driven behaviour and improvement.

However, about 40% of children in England still do not get those grades, so most agree there is more work to be done. More recently, the introduction of the English Baccalaureate (EBacc) as a league table measure in late 2010 has led to a shift in the GCSE subjects children are choosing and being steered towards.

The EBacc is not a subject in itself or a single exam. It is a measure of pupils achieving A* to C grades in a range of subjects the government says is the core of a good education – English, maths, two science subjects, a language and either history or geography. This year's tables suggest 23% of state school pupils achieved that – compared with 16% last year.

The number of schools where no pupils "took" the EBacc fell from 187 in 2010 to 37 last year, while the number of schools where more than 50% of students took it rose from 325 to 735. However, some students are struggling with some of these GCSEs, because the proportion of schools where more than 50% of pupils achieved the EBacc has not risen at the same rate.

New measures

The new elements of this year's tables – the "best eight" measure at GCSE (where a school's average grade per pupil is given) and the splitting of the tables for 16 to 18-year-olds into vocational and academic – are getting a mixed reaction so far.

The idea of the split is so that people can have a clearer view of what is being taught in different sixth forms and colleges, but some are warning it will further damage attempts to raise the standing of vocational learning.

The "best eight" has supporters, who see it as a fairer, broader measure than the one it will replace – the target of pupils getting five GCSEs at grades of between A* to C including maths and English.

Benefits

This year it is in the tables for information only but it will come in to use as a key benchmark for schools in 2017. Then it will be in a more developed form that will take into account the progress made by pupils, something heads think will give a fairer representation of what a school is doing.

Whatever the future shape of the tables, Prof Coe believes they are here to stay. "Politically, they are not going to go away," he said.

"No political party is going to get rid of league tables. The question is how you can remove dysfunctional behaviour and allow the benefits to come through."

ww.bbc.co.uk/news/education

1. Summarize the article.

2. Discuss with your partner the advantages and the disadvantages of league tables. Should such a system be introduced in Russia?

UNIT VII

Higher Education

Should a pupil obtain the required examination results at A level, he or she may go on to an institution of higher education, such as a university or other college. The student, after a prescribed period of study and after passing examinations, will receive a degree and become a graduate of that institution. In the past only a small proportion of the age group in Britain proceeded to higher

education, in contrast to the higher rates in many major industrial nations. But the number has increased dramatically in the last decades.

The universities

There were 23 British universities in 1960. After a period of expansion in the 1960s and government reforms in 1992 when existing institutions such as polytechnics were given university status, more than 2.5 million people were enrolled in the United Kingdom's 161 universities in 2011-2012.

The universities can be broadly classified into four types. The ancient universities of Oxford and Cambridge (composed of their many colleges) date from the twelfth century. But until the nineteenth century they were virtually the only English universities and offered no places to women. However, other older universities had been founded in Scotland, such as St Andrews (1411), Glasgow (1450), Aberdeen (1494) and Edinburgh (1583). A second group comprises the 'redbrick' or civic universities such as Leeds, Liverpool and Manchester, which were created between 1850 and 1930. The third group consists of universities founded after the Second World War and in the 1960s. Many of the latter, like Sussex, York and East Anglia, are in rural areas. The fourth group are the 'new universities' created in 1992 when polytechnics and some other colleges attained university status.

The competition to enter universities is now very strong, and some students who do not do well at A level may be unable to find a place. A very small percentage of students leave university without finishing their courses. The majority aim for a good degree in order to obtain a good job, or to continue in higher education by doing research (masters' degrees and doctorates). The bachelor's degree (Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science, BA or BSc) is usually taken in final examinations at the end of the third year of study, although some degree courses do vary in length in different parts of Britain. This degree is divided into first-, second- and third-class honours. Some degrees are dependent entirely upon the examination results, while others include continuing assessment over the period of study.

Universities are supposed to have uniform standards, although there are centres of excellence in particular subjects, and students can usually choose from an impressive array of subject areas. Teaching is mainly by the lecture system, supported by tutorials (small groups) and seminars. The student-lecturer ratio at British universities is good at about 1 to 13. Most students tend to live on campus, while other may choose to live in rented property outside the university. Until recently few British students chose universities near their parents' homes, and many seemed to prefer those in the south of England. But financial costs are now changing these preferences.

While universities are independent institutions created by royal charter, they are in practice dependent upon government money. This is mainly supplied by the finance allocated by government to the Universities Funding Council for distribution to the universities, largely through university Vice-Chancellors who are the chief executive officers of the universities.

The Conservative government has been concerned to make the universities more accountable in the national interest; has tightly controlled their budgets, and encouraged them to seek alternative private sources of finance. The universities have lost staff and research money; have been forced to adopt more effective management and accounting procedures; must market their resources more efficiently in order to attract students; pay greater attention to performance; and must justify their positions financially and educationally. The government is consequently intervening more closely in the running of the universities than in the past. Such policies have provoked considerable opposition from the universities. But they are being forced to adapt rather than to continue to lose staff, finance and educational programmes.

Other higher education colleges

The 1970s saw the creation of colleges (or institutes) of higher education, often by merging existing colleges with redundant teachers' training colleges or by establishing new institutions. They now offer a wide range of degree, certificate and diploma courses in both science and the arts, and in some cases

have specifically taken over the role of training teachers for the schools. They used to be under the control of their local authorities, but the Conservative government granted them independence, and some achieved university status.

There are a variety of other British institutions which offer higher education. Some, such as the Royal College of Art, the Cranfield Institute of Technology and various Business Schools, have university status, while others, such as agricultural, drama and art colleges like the Royal Academy of Dramatic Arts (RADA) and the Royal College of Music, provide comparable courses. All these institutions usually have a strong vocational aspect to their programmes which fills a specialized role in higher education.

www.bbc.co.uk/learning

1. Put it into Russian:

to receive a degree –
to date from the twelfth century –
to attain university status –
centres of excellence in particular subjects –
impressive array of subject areas –
to market their resources more efficiently –
redundant teachers' training colleges –

2. Put in into English:

продолжать образование в университете, получить необходимые баллы на экзамене, присвоить статус университета, соотношение преподавателей и студентов, присудить ученую степень.

3. Insert prepositions:

proceed … higher education;
to be enrolled … a university;

be broadly classified … four types;

do well … A level;

to be taken … final examinations;

teaching is mainly … the lecture system;

to live … campus;

to take … the role;

have a strong vocational aspect … their programmes.

4. Explain the meaning of the following words and expressions:

graduate –

postgraduate –

undergraduate –

PhD –

first-class honours –

tutorial –

lecturer –

reader –

professor –

Vice-Chancellor –

Chancellor –

college –

UNIT VIII

Can You Afford to Go to University?

Louise Tickle

'The most important thing to say is that there's lots of support available and students don't have to pay anything up front," says Matt Usher, outreach and

student recruitment officer at Bournemouth University. This statement goes some way to answering the big question for today's undergraduates – "can I afford to do a degree?"

Regardless of how much you're entitled to, the way undergraduate study is funded is a complicated combination of loans, grants and bursaries. Working out what you'll get – and how much you'll have to earn to make up any shortfall – is a highly individual calculation, dependent on your course, household income, choice of university and whether you live at home.

Whatever your circumstances, it's crucial to get your application for student funding in as early as possible before the 31 May deadline, says Elaine Warrener, finance adviser at the University of Hull: it helps to ensure that your application is processed efficiently and that funds are released in time for the start of term.

Many students – and their parents – focus on the total debt that will be built up and the interest that starts being added as soon as tuition-fee and maintenance loans are drawn down. But it's more helpful to look at debt from the point of view of whether you're able to pay it back – and repayments have been structured so they're affordable.

Regardless of how much you've borrowed, your repayment is based on your graduate income. You'll be charged 9% of all income over £21,000 – so if you get a £25K job, you'll expect to be repaying around £30 a month. Repayments stop if your salary drops below £21,000 and any remaining debt is written off after 30 years.

Worries about the interest rate going up on the student loan are "a bit of a red herring", says Phil Davies, head of student advice at Bishop Grosseteste University in Lincoln and chair of the National Association of Student Money Advisers. Whatever the interest rate is set at, he says, "you're never going to pay back more than 9% of your salary above the threshold. And the threshold is set to go up in line with inflation."

"The interest is there, by and large, to ensure you are paying back for as much of the 30 years as possible," he says. "There is not the expectation that you will pay back more than you originally borrowed."

But it's not all about debt: for about two thirds of students there's some free money with a tapered maintenance grant available to anyone with a household income of less than £42,611. Many universities also offer bursaries to students.

But what if you have all the funding you're entitled to, work to supplement your income and still run out of money for food, let alone the electricity to power your laptop so you can write your essays?

"If you applied late and haven't got your finance on time, the Student Loans Company will do its utmost to make sure you get your tuition fees and the minimum maintenance loan," says Usher. "If you're in a real situation – maybe you've got to the end of term and have completely run out – universities often have crisis loans, which they can make available fast, in the form of food vouchers and accommodation help."

Types of financing

• Tuition fees: Fully covered by a government loan and paid straight to your institution.

• Living expenses, made up of maintenance loan and grant: Depends on household income and where you'll be living while you are studying – with parents or away from home are the major factors, with extra weighting given for London students.

• Maintenance loan: Living away from home, outside of London, £3,500 to £5,000 (anything more than £3,500 is assessed against household income).

Living away from home, in London, £5,675 to £7,675 (anything more than £5,675 is assessed against household income).

• Maintenance grant: This is tapered – if you have a household income of less than £25,000 you'll get £3,354, but anyone from a household with an income of less than £42,611 is eligible to apply and will get a proportion of this.

• Bursaries: All higher education institutions charging more than £6,000 per year must offer a National Scholarship Bursary to support students from lower-income households. Applicants must meet certain government criteria, though this doesn't guarantee an award, because individual universities will prioritise according to a range of factors.

• Special circumstances: Students with children or adult dependents may also be entitled to a childcare grant, parent learning allowance and adult dependants' grant. The disabled students allowance is available to help pay for additional costs that a student may incur as a result of their disability.

The Guardian, 20 August 2013

1. Put it into English:

заявление на получение субсидии для студентов, банковская ссуда, процент по ссуде, остаток долга списывается, к концу семестра деньги заканчиваются, продуктовые карточки, иметь право подать заявление на субсидию, семьи с низким доходом.

2. Put it into Russian:

to do a degree –

total debt that will be built up –

tuition-fee and maintenance loans are drawn down –

bursary –

make up any shortfall –

repayments have been structured –

a red herring –

the threshold is set to go up in line with inflation –

a tapered maintenance grant –

adult dependents –

additional costs that a student may incur –

3. Insert prepositions:

regardless … how much you're entitled …;

funds are released … time … the start … term;

whatever the interest rate is set …;

to run … … money … food.

4. Compare and contrast student finance in GB and Russia. Does the introduction of tuition fees affect the quality of higher education, in your view?

UNIT IX

Distance Learning: Who's Doing it Now?

Distance learning is nothing new. In 1938, the International Council for Correspondence Education was founded in Canada. In the same year, they held their first world conference, attended by 87 delegates. Only three of them weren't from America or Canada.

By 1950, the situation hadn't improved much – attendees came from just one or two countries – so in a desperate attempt to make sure that the conference lived up to its international title, the organisers invited people to participate by audio presentation. It was a revolution.

Something else was changing correspondence education that would draw it closer to what we now recognise as distance learning. Back then, when Australia was the world's forerunner – 100,000 people had taken correspondence

courses there in the years after the war – most of it had been in primary education. Gradually, the emphasis began to move towards adult and further education. Men and women from the armed services were among those seeking to retrain themselves.

Though the UK's Open University (OU) wasn't established until 1969, its history stretches back much further. In fact, as early as 1925, when the BBC was a fledgling broadcaster, JC Stobart was its first director of education. A year later he wrote a memo to colleagues that advocated a "wireless university".

On 9 February 1971, the OU was broadcast on TV for the very first time. Tuning in were many of its 25,000 students that were enrolled in one of four multi-disciplinary courses in the arts, social sciences, science or maths.

But there's a new game in town when it comes to distance learning: Massive Open Online Courses (Moocs).

The term, which refers to courses that are free and open to an unlimited number of students, was coined in 2008 at the National Institute for Technology in Liberal Education based at Southwestern.

These free courses have grown rapidly. In the space of less than four years, Time magazine was celebrating the "Ivy League for the Masses" while the New York Times was heralding 'The Year of the Mooc'.

In March 2013, one Mooc provider (a for-profit one) had 2.8 million registered learners – far more than the 1.8 million people that have taken a course at the Open University in its whole 39-year history. On the other hand, on average, fewer than 7% of those who sign up to a Mooc complete the course.

Here, we take a look at the impact of Moocs on the UK's distance learning sector.

Many would assume that the rise in tuition fees in the UK over the past four years would have had a considerable impact on enrolment. They would be right. There were 12% fewer applications in 2011 as some universities increased their fees to £9,000 a year, three times more than their previous rates.

While applications to full-time study have recovered, this is not the case for part-time enrolments. The number of new students studying part time in 2011-12 dropped by 7.6% from the previous year.

With fees for distance learning costing as little as a sixth of the price of campus learning (and free for Mooc learners) has there been any shift in the way that people are studying?

Distance learners are still considerably older than the general population of students, and women represent a far greater proportion of learners. However, this data leave several questions unanswered – is the higher proportion of women an indication of the difficulties of studying on campus with children? Is the gender gap in distance learning bigger or smaller than the one in higher education overall (where women do outnumber men)?

Another important question left unanswered relates to access. The OU is the country's largest higher education provider for those with disabilities: 17,000 students with disabilities studied there in 2011-12 – a considerable portion of the 79,000 higher education students in the UK with a disability.

So, what's happened since the first conference of the International Council for Correspondence Education in 1938? One, rebranding: it's now known as the International Council for Open and Distance Education. Twenty-four conferences and thousands of delegates later, it has now become a partner with Unesco.

Some are pessimistic about the future of the Mooc. Critics have pointed out that these free courses are likely to follow the traditional trajectory of the "hype cycle" – from technology trigger, to peak of inflated expectations, to trough of disillusionment before finally going up the slope of enlightenment and reaching the plateau of productivity – all of which sound more like a children's adventure story than a trajectory for education.

The opportunities to democratise education are enormous. But given that providers do not have a business model through which they can make money from free courses, it may not be the death of distance learning just yet.

The Guardian, 30 January 2014

1. Put it into English:

заочное образование, уделять больше внимания образованию для взрослых, неограниченное число студентов, создать термин, менее 7% записавшихся на курс заканчивают его, оказать существенное влияние на набор студентов, втрое увеличить плату за обучение, разочарование.

2. Put it into Russian:

to live up to its international title –

the world's forerunner –

wireless university –

there's a new game in town when it comes to distance learning –

full-time study –

part-time enrolment –

fees for distance learning cost as little as a sixth of the price of campus learning –

inflated expectations –

3. Provide definitions to the following words:

attendee, fledgling, rebranding, hype.

4. Speak about the strong and the weak points of distance learning. Do you think the prospects for on-line learning are bright?

UNIT X

Health of the Nation

We need universities to reclaim their role as guardians of the basic values of our culture, says ***Christopher Ball.***

What are universities for? My dentist suggests "to increase awareness". Academics usually offer "teaching and research". Students often treat higher education as a rite of passage into adulthood. Parents use it to empty the nest reasonably painlessly. But most would agree that the central function of a university is learning – in the sense of process and product, human development and learnedness.

Almost 40 years ago the Robbins committee identified four functions of HE: instruction in skills (technical education), promoting general powers of the mind (general education), the advancement of learning (research) and the transmission of a common culture and standards of citizenship. Twenty years later, as a result of the Leverhulme enquiry into HE, we added "lifelong learning".

If I were an external examiner, I would award British universities an A-grade for research and technical education, a B for general education and lifelong learning and a C for culture and citizenship. This function has been forgotten. Some have tried to revive it in a weaker version: the clarification of culture. The government today wants to teach citizenship in schools. But our multicultural society and relativistic values make it very difficult.

"We believe," the committee wrote in 1963, "that it is a proper function of higher education to provide, in partnership with the family, that background of culture and social habits upon which a healthy society depends." So do I. Our universities and colleges have an important role to play in the cultural life of their communities.

I think the challenge goes a lot further than asking us to share our art, drama, music, libraries, sports fields and evening classes with the local community. Robbins thought that universities should define, explain, transmit and defend our common culture and standards of behaviour. It is almost as if the authors believed that universities should offer a form of moral education. How dated, and perhaps even dangerous, these ideas seem today!

And yet, I am loath to let them go. If I could, I would revive the challenge of Robbins by asking what are the critical features of our common culture and standards of citizenship?

I offer three: free speech, fair play, a sense of proportion. Whatever else characterises Britishness, it must include these stubborn qualities. They lie at the heart of our common culture, and inform activities as diverse as the popular press, cricket, parliament, jury trials, elections, demonstrations, the BBC, education and humour. They are valuable qualities, which we need to transmit to new generations.

These values are at risk today. The extraordinary outcry in response to the decision to release the young killers of James Bulger provides a serious test of our commitment to free speech, fair play (the rule of law) and a sense of proportion. Free speech requires us to say to sections of the media: "I disapprove of what you say, but I will defend to the death your right to say it". Fair play requires us to give the two young men another chance to live a useful life. Moderation requires restraint and calmness from all concerned.

None of this is easy. The universities should help. I do not expect the vice-chancellors to make a stand for our common standards, though I wish they would. But surely we can still rely on the students to stand up – and march – for free speech, fair play and a sense of proportion? Or can't we?

Sir Christopher Ball is chancellor of Derby University and chairman of the Global University Alliance.

The Guardian, 17 July 2001

1. Put it into Russian:

to increase awareness –

the transmission of a common culture and standards of citizenship –

fair play –

an extraordinary outcry –

I disapprove of what you say, but I will defend to the death your right to say it –

restraint and calmness from all concerned –

2. Put it into English:

обучение практическим навыкам, чувство меры, научность, независимый экзаменатор, приверженность свободе слова.

3. Paraphrase the following:

a rite of passage into adulthood –

to empty the nest reasonably painlessly –

relativistic values –

How dated these ideas seem today –

to make a stand for our common standards –

4. Does the author aim to describe, to explain of to persuade? What is the social message of the article? Do you agree with the idea that universities should transmit and defend the common culture and standards of behavior?

UNIT XI

The Fun's Over: Students Must Weigh up the Real Worth of their Degree

Rising university tuition fees mean finding out which courses will pay off in the long-term should be a priority. **Ian Walker**

Tuition fee announcements and projections of student debt have tipped the argument: at that price, why bother with a degree at all?

But a degree is an investment. Looking at higher education purely in investment terms, the data shows that a degree will be worth paying at least £9,000 a year. In many cases it will be worth a great deal more. But individual choices about subjects can make a big difference to the figures.

Alongside Yu Zhu, a senior lecturer in economics at the University of Kent, I looked at the fortunes of 80,000 people – graduates compared with non-graduates (but only those with the right qualifications to study for a degree if they'd chosen to). This didn't just cover the impact of a degree on gross earnings on graduation, but the picture in terms of lifetime earnings, after tax and – importantly – after student loan repayments.

We were drawn into thinking the rate of return across different subject areas would be broadly similar. If markets are "efficient" you shouldn't see significant differentials in returns across similar kinds of "assets". But earnings' levels differ markedly between different subject groupings for men, less so for women.

Male graduates in law, economics and management (LEM), for example, enjoyed faster growth in wages early in their career lifecycle compared to other majors, including Stem (science, technology, engineering and maths). Stem graduates, or those with combined degrees, eventually catch up with those who did LEM but not till much later in the lifecycle. For those opting for arts and other social science degrees, the lifetime returns are markedly lower – especially for men. The subject you study, then, makes a big difference to the investment returns, although, so far, only one institution has suggested subject specific pricing, so the costs are broadly the same across subjects. (Note that our research shows that early-career wage levels are not a good predictor of lifetime earnings – but, be warned, the government's guidance for students on which subjects and institutions to choose will present data on early earnings.)

Among women, the picture is different. LEM graduates saw the highest and fastest rate of return. But women who did a degree – irrespective of which subject – enjoyed substantially higher lifetime earnings than those who didn't. This can be read as an indication of the kind of discrimination that female non-graduates still face in the labour market. Moreover, the returns were broadly similar across subjects.

Will these findings have school-leavers reaching for their calculators as they weigh up their higher education options? It's unlikely. There is evidence that shows young people tend to take a fairly short-term view – attaching more weight to current experience than to more distant events. This suggests that subjects that are "easy" or "fun" are more likely to be taken by students who discount the future heavily. They'd rather have the fun now and pay for it, in terms of lower wages, in the future. But the fun has just got a lot more expensive, and parents should either urge their offspring to take higher education a lot more seriously, or not to bother at all.

The loan scheme is very important in these calculations. The fact that payment of fees takes place in the distant future means their importance can get discounted. But given the loan scheme, even a large rise in tuition fees makes relatively little difference to the quality of the investment – those subjects that offer high returns (LEM for men, and all subjects for women) will continue to do so. And those subjects that don't (especially arts, humanities and social sciences for men) will still be a choice made for other reasons than just the financial statistics.

• Ian Walker is professor of economics at Lancaster University Management School.

The Guardian, 13 April 2011

1. Put it into English:

Обучение в университете будет рентабельным, если студенты будут платить, по меньшей мере, £9,000 в год.

Речь идет о людях, которые решили не поступать в университет, хотя и имели оценки, позволяющие им стать студентами.

Их зарплата растет быстрее.

Выпускницы университетов часто сталкиваются с дискриминацией на рынке труда.

Родители должны призывать своих отпрысков серьезнее относиться к высшему образованию.

В отдаленном будущем им придется возвращать ссуду.

2. Put it into Russian:

why bother with a degree –

a senior lecturer in economics –

the lifetime returns are markedly lower –

the subject you study, then, makes a big difference to the investment returns –

to weigh up their higher education options –

to take a fairly short-term view –

to discount the future heavily –

3. Explain the meaning of the following words and collocations:

to tip the argument –

gross earnings –

an asset –

a major –

differential –

4. Insert prepositions:

to look … higher education purely … investment terms;

Individual choices … subjects can make a big difference … the figures;

a lecturer … economics;

the impact of a degree … gross earnings … graduation;
the rate … return … different subject areas;
to catch … … those who did LEM but not till much later … the lifecycle;
to opt … arts and other social science degrees;
to present data … early earnings;
to attach more weight … current experience than … more distant events;
a large rise … tuition fees.

5. In your view, should university applicants choose those subjects that offer high returns? Should universities charge different tuition fees for high-return and low-return subjects?

6. What was your choice of a university course based on? Do you think it a good investment? Are the rates of return different for male and female graduates in our country?

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