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(НГЛУ)

EDUCATION ISSUES

ПРОБЛЕМЫ ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ

Учебное пособие

для IV курса отделения английского языка

переводческого факультета

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Предлагаемое пособие предназначено для совершенствования иноязычной коммуникативной компетенции в рамках тематической области «Образование». Пособие может быть использовано на IV курсе отделения английского языка переводческого факультета.

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ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Пособие «Проблемы образования» является компонентом учебно-методического комплекса, используемого для языковой подготовки студентов-переводчиков на старшем этапе обучения.

Учебное пособие состоит из двух разделов. Первый из них посвящен британской системе образования, во втором разделе отражены общемировые тенденции в сфере образования, вызванные развитием технологий, глобализацией, изменениями экономического и социального характера.

Пособие содержит актуальные аутентичные тексты, часть которых носит информационный и справочный характер и помогает сформировать представление о структуре начального, среднего и высшего образования в Великобритании, способах организации учебного процесса, видах аттестации и т. д.

Наряду с этим в пособие включены публицистические тексты ведущих британских изданий, таких как *The Guardian*, *The BBC*, *The Observer* и др. Работа над данным видом текстов основана на обсуждении их структурной организации, жанрово-стилистических особенностей, способов выражения авторской оценки, а также на выявлении образных средств языка, определении их семантики и функций.

Упражнения, которыми снабжены тексты, направлены на установление соответствия между терминами тематической области «Образование», существующими в английском и русском языках, выражение смысла путем перефразирования, осуществление компрессии информации.

Публицистические тексты, предлагаемые для анализа, освещают проблемы, которые носят неоднозначный характер и вызывают полемику. Задания к ним предполагают выражение собственного видения проблемы, прогнозирование способов развития ситуации и обоснование подобного рода прогнозов. Все это способствует развитию навыков аналитического мышления.

PART I

EDUCATION IN GREAT BRITAIN

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.

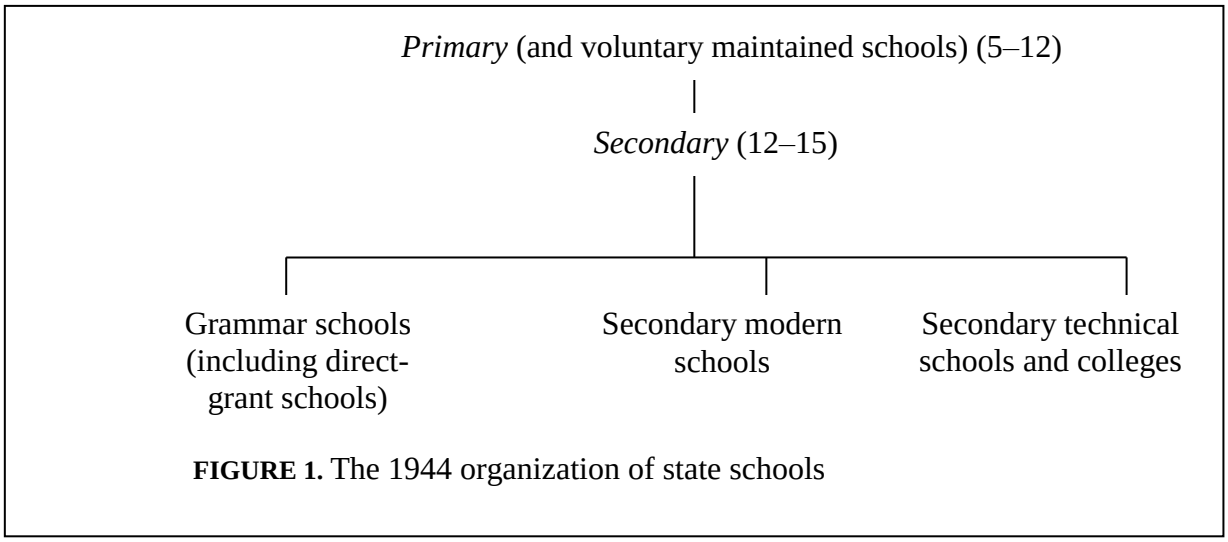


FIGURE 1. The 1944 organization of state schools

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.

(Source: 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. Say it in 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. Explain the meaning of 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.

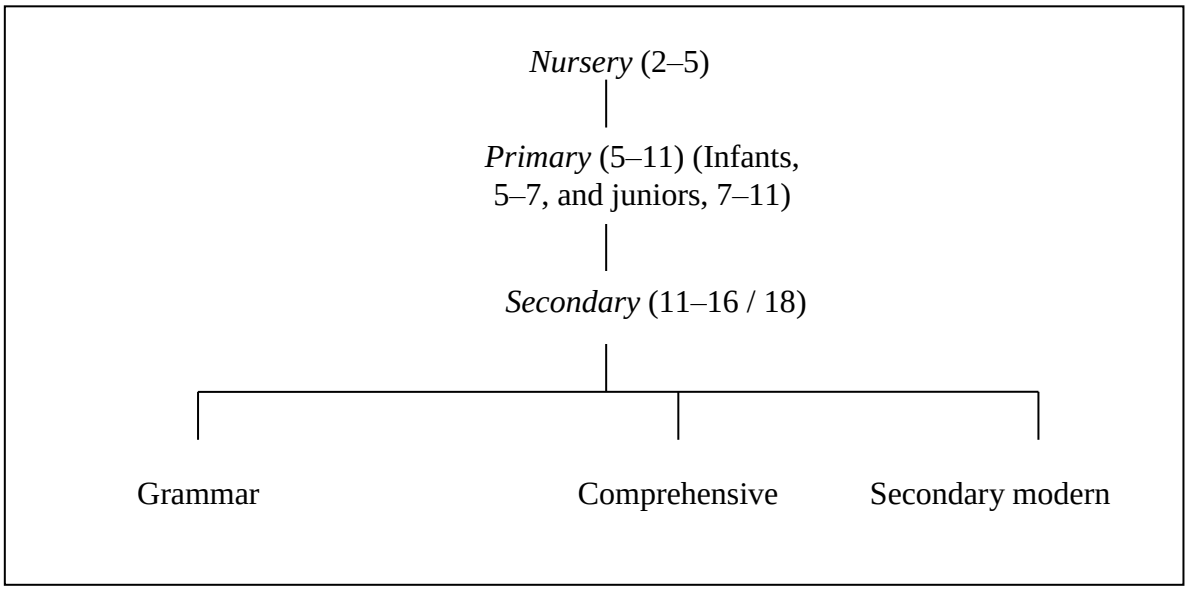
This overall situation has been considerably changed by the Conservative government's Education Acts of 1986 and 1988. Headteachers have been given financial control over their school budgets and have taken on management roles; greater powers of decision-making have been transferred to school governors;

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.

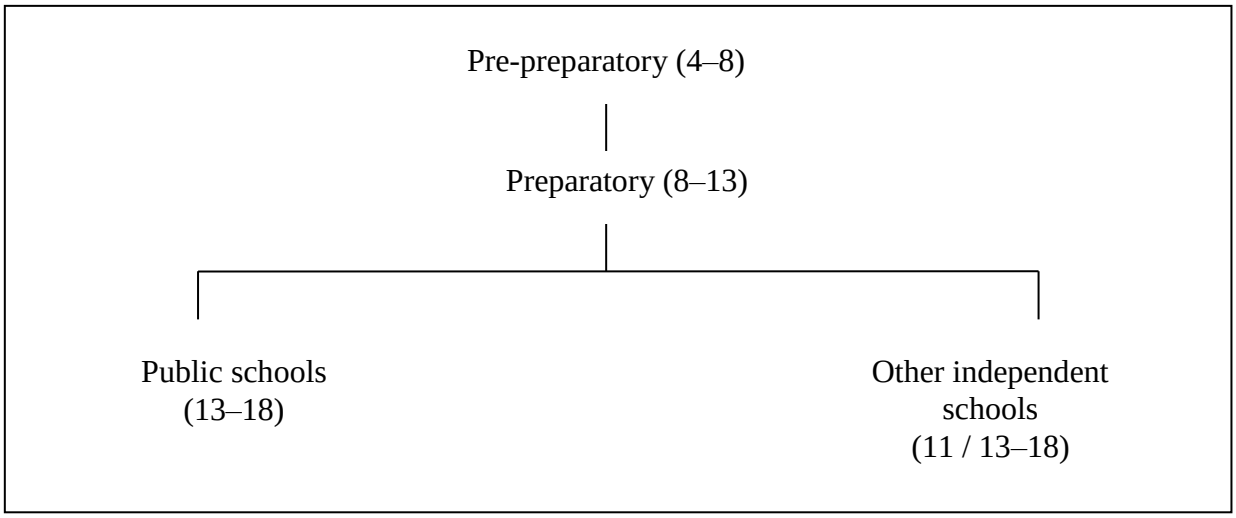
Schools grouped by admission categories

- **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.

(Source: www.bbc.co.uk/schools)

1. Say it in 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. Say it in 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
- To take … 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
- 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.

(Source: www.bbc.co.uk/schools)

1. Say it in 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. Say it in 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. Give 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. Consider the following issues:

- 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 are the purposes of national exams?
- 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

Grammar Schools: Back to Bad Old Days of Inequality

By Chris Horrie

May 04, 2017

A brilliant early summer Saturday in 1967, as I recall. A knock on the front door. A kid who had been in the same class as me at Parr Lane primary school in Unsworth, a 1960s housing development centred on a long-neglected mill village in a stretch of country heading towards the Pennine hills. The area might be known to you as the blur of mid-rise housing, crinkly tin sheds, barbed wire, drainage ditches and litter you see from the M66 if, for some reason, you should take it upon yourself to drive from Manchester to Burnley.

It was mid-morning, and I was supposed to have turned up at the school grounds to play in a game of softball. My visitor's nickname was Spud – universally thought of as being dumb, the victim of countless playground hoaxes and practical jokes. Spud had been sent to get me. I was needed to make up the numbers. I said I didn't feel like it. Spud persisted. It would spoil things if they didn't have enough players to make two equal teams. Anyway, everyone was having a laugh because they'd got their 11-plus letters and, as it turned out, the whole team had passed. Spud hesitated and checked if I had got mine. I told him that I had not received my letter. This was a lie.

Earlier that morning the postman had called, and my mum and dad had opened the letter. I had failed the 11-plus. This was a shock. At age 11 it had been scientifically determined that I was stupid. I remain to this day a member of that segment of the British population who are not only dim-witted but officially clueless, with a letter from the government to prove it. That was just the way of it – a stone-cold, independently verified, rock-hard fact. I went upstairs to my bedroom, drew the curtains and sobbed for days.

There was a token right to appeal. But the local grammar school was so oversubscribed that, during a trip to my headmaster's office the following Monday, it became clear that this was purely theoretical. The headmaster candidly explained that the grammar school basically never took kids on appeal

because it was too much trouble and, anyway, they didn't need to. "Sometimes life throws you a googly," he smiled, sympathetically. "The thing is to keep a straight bat." I had no idea what this meant, and I still don't.

Part of my problem was that I not been aware that you were supposed to game the system. I had not practised the 11-plus in advance. This was probably my downfall. As recently as March 2017, the former headmaster of Manchester grammar school popped up on Radio 4's The Moral Maze to explain that no child who had not seen the verbal reasoning tests that formed the basis of the 11-plus before attempting them would have a "hope in hell" of passing them. The headmaster said that he had organised selection by academic merit, and dispensed with the 11-plus as "worthless". Instead he used personal interviews. "If you can detect a sense of irony in an 11-year-old, then you know they are clever," he said.

When I was 10, my parents had moved from Stretford to Unsworth: "the countryside", as they thought of it, and part of a different education authority. The kids I joined had been drilled in the 11-plus until it was coming out of their ears. And I had not. Neither my family nor I had any idea that you could buy little booklets from newsagents that showed you how to pass the exam and contained lots of past papers with all the answers provided.

My parents had been at primary school in the 1930s and although intelligent, were clueless about how to work the education system. Had they known about the practice booklets, the 11-plus might well have been a doddle – as it was, even for Spud. Without the booklets… well, as the headmaster said, you didn't have a "hope in hell".

At her first press conference after becoming prime minister, in September 2016, Theresa May announced that secondary education policy was about to be turned upside down. A new era of meritocratic fairness was to be inaugurated. The key to this would be, of all things, the reintroduction of selection, including the building of new grammar schools.

The debate about selection and grammar schools had run on for years. A system that used a single test to cream off the top tier of pupils for the better schools had come to be widely accepted by the educational establishment and by most politicians as grossly unfair. The creation of grammar schools that could select their own pupils condemned the rest to vastly inferior secondary moderns – which sometimes did their best despite having the system stacked against them – and technical colleges. Data has proven that the two- or three-tier system was a disaster. But the test was retained in a few places including Kent and, ironically from my point of view, Stretford (now under the control of the Trafford local authority).

The drive for comprehensive secondary education had been part of a postwar consensus that saw education as part of a Scandinavian-style egalitarian social democratic society. Most kids would go to their local secondary school, where they would encounter a range of people from different social and cultural

backgrounds, which would help to foster a strong, diverse society in the following generations. This was the general social good for which the comprehensive system aimed. It was inextricably linked to similarly comprehensive provision in healthcare and housing.

May's vision is very different. Parents, she said, had been operating a system of "selection by house prices" in the secondary system. She would put an end to that by reintroducing "selection by academic merit".

"Politicians – many of whom benefited from the very kind of education they now seek to deny to others – have for years put their own dogma and ideology before the interests and concerns of ordinary people," she said. Her answer was to overturn the nostrums of the anti-selective "educational elite" and bring back selective grammar schools.

Her government, she said, would be all about creating opportunities for "ordinary working-class families" – the sort of people who had been ignored and even despised by a national elite of policymakers and other shadowy and ill-defined power-brokers. The chief characteristic this elite exhibited was hypocrisy: they opposed selection and grammar schools, but sent their own kids to private schools or used their higher salaries to move to the catchment areas of popular or successful comprehensive schools, leaving failing schools behind to be occupied by the poor.

In her speech, May said the reintroduction of grammar schools and selection would not lead to the simultaneous reintroduction of secondary modern schools. She gave vague assurances that selection did not imply any sort of superiority or inferiority. There would be "parity of esteem" between the two types of institution. The difficulty is that this was exactly what was said when the grammar school and secondary modern system was set up in 1944.

There was one group missing from the debate on grammar schools: those who had failed the 11-plus and ended up at secondary modern schools. Between 1944 and 1976 around 30 million people took the test. More than 20 million of us failed. The nostalgia for grammar schools is confined to those who passed the exam, and felt it gave them a chance in life. But the experience of those who failed is rarely – if ever – heard first-hand, for the very good reason that hardly any of them went on to higher education or positions in life where they had any sort of voice at all.

It turns out that I am the same age as Theresa May. Our birthdays are separated by a matter of days. And so we would have sat the 11-plus on the same day in 1967. She presumably passed. She went to Holton Park girls' grammar school in Oxfordshire (which became Wheatley Park comprehensive a year after she arrived), and then to Oxford University, where she studied geography. I failed, and went to Wellington county secondary modern school, a red-brick Edwardian institution resembling a prison and located in the centre of Bury, a stupendously ugly and rundown mill town to the north of Manchester.

Wellington had slits for windows, and upper internal galleries and walkways overlooking an assembly area somewhat on the Strangeways prison model. Wellington school – "Welly", as it was universally derided – has been demolished and not a trace of it remains. The highest achiever from Wellington, at least in my era, is Alan Whitehead, who played professional football for Bury and Brentford FC at centre-half.

What I remember about Welly most of all was the cold. The heating was ancient and rarely worked. And the noise. The prison-like layout of the place meant there was a steady background cacophony from whichever class was at that moment in open revolt. Every hour a bell would ring and bedlam would ensue. It was co-educational in theory, but strictly segregated, with separate entrances and playgrounds for boys and girls.

Having failed the 11-plus, there was yet more selection to come. This time, it came in the form of rigid streaming, which seemed to have more to do with social segregation than even the pretence of any assessment of ability. I found myself in a stream with other kids who primarily came from overflow estates in the south of Bury, closer to Manchester. The resulting growth in school numbers meant that we were accommodated in a series of cheap and freezing improvised annexes similar to Portakabins.

Our presence was resented on the grounds that we were stealing school places and housing, as is always the way with economic migrants. The other stream consisted mainly of locals whose families came from solidly yokel Bury mill and farm labourer stock. Some of these people were extremely hard, and had accents so thick that we incomers could hardly understand what they were saying. Many students had come to the conclusion that they were in effect being imprisoned until the day they left, in order to comply with the school leaving age, which was about to be raised from 15 years to 16, and the various factory acts that, much to their regret in some cases, outlawed child labour. The change to 16 was made in 1972, so my last year at Welly was spent in the company of some extremely disgruntled hard cases who, as they saw it, had arbitrarily had their sentences increased.

I liked a lot of the teachers, but many had difficulty exerting even basic control over their classrooms. There was a constant air of violence about the place, and physical attacks on teachers were not unknown. For a time, there was also an improvised isolation unit in the style of an animal pen, knocked up with four-by-two and chipboard in the assembly area. It was known as the "sin bin". You could walk along the gallery on the upper floor and look down to see some kid sitting inside the pen staring at the wall, Alcatraz-style, with teachers standing guard on a rota.

Three subject areas were taken seriously by the school: religious education, woodwork for boys and domestic science for girls. Metalwork seemed to disappear from the curriculum after the tough kids turned the lathe area into a weapons factory, manufacturing a steady stream of improvised but

deadly-looking crossbows. Girls were not allowed to do woodwork because it was too dangerous and "unladylike". Instead they had a specially arranged workshop set out like a kitchen with rows of ironing boards, where they could practise doing things such as washing dishes and ironing clothes. Many of the girls had evidently bought into the trainee housewife role, so it was a truth universally acknowledged that they were on the lookout not so much for a boyfriend, but an actual husband – meaning someone considerably older than me. In subjects such as maths and English, many of the girls – not all – would sit at the back of classroom knitting, casting withering glances, crocheting or reading Jackie magazine – the definitive 1970s guide on how to land a proper boyfriend (ie not me).

The staff were an odd bunch. Taking a position in a secondary modern school by the late 1960s must have amounted to professional suicide for any schoolteacher. We tended therefore to get older ones from the local area who were, frankly, either crazy or borderline alcoholic and couldn't get hired by a grammar school. They tended to teach the core subjects such as woodwork, domestic science or some other soon-to-be redundant vocational skill such as, my own particular favourite, technical drawing. This was a marvellous thing where you needed to stand at drawing boards doing super-accurate scaled floor plans of imaginary power stations. Nobody mentioned the existence of an activity called architecture, however.

Then there was a group of younger teachers fresh from college. This being 1968, the student revolution was in full swing, and many of these younger teachers were pioneering advocates of the counterculture. A lot of them smoked weed, or at least talked about it. I recall an English teacher who was permanently hungover and whose lesson plan often consisted of throwing away the set text, lighting up a blunt one and playing Bob Dylan records on the grounds that this was poetry. At one point, there was a crackdown and the headmaster tried to get him to at least use an ashtray and to plough through some novel or other. It was later discovered that he was by profession a long-distance lorry driver who had forged his teaching certificate. There was a brilliant history teacher who looked exactly like Janis Joplin – a sort of raving haystack of hair and communist sloganeering. She was an enthusiastic Maoist, who actually brought a copy of the Little Red Book into class for "show and tell".

Secondary education in the 1930s – my parents' generation – had not been universal. The system of ancient public schools leading towards university education was well established for those who could afford it. For the rest, there was a chaotic patchwork of private and state-funded schools. It was Rab Butler's 1944 Education Act, or rather its implementation by a Labour government between 1945 and 1950, which produced the 11-plus and "tripartite" division of secondary education between grammar, technical and secondary modern schools.

There would be a number of grammar schools as an option for the more academically inclined. A larger number of technical schools would specialise in teaching trade skills, followed by more advanced craft training to become a skilled worker in newfangled professions such as electrical engineering. For the rest, secondary modern schools were to prove a broad, general education. Most children would attend these schools until the age of 14 or 15, after which it was envisaged they would get a job and probably become an apprentice or continue to receive some sort of on-the-job training from their employer. All that remained was to provide a scientific method of accurately matching each child with the role most appropriate for them in the emerging brave new world of the technological society.

Few people have touched the lives of so many so directly as Cyril Burt, the educational psychologist who devised those parts of the 11-plus designed to test the general intelligence of one child against another. He remains a controversial figure, though his role is hardly known outside the world of clinical psychology and educational theory. Burt's entire life was a quest to define and measure human intelligence, and thus to make the process of education scientific. He came to prominence in 1909 after publishing a paper showing that "general intelligence" (as opposed to ability to perform some specific task) was primarily – and perhaps entirely – a matter of genetics and inheritance. The same study also demonstrated that men and women were equal in terms of general natural intelligence. If it was possible to accurately determine the general intelligence of a person, then it would be possible to devise a programme of education perfectly suited to them as an individual, just as a doctor would diagnose a patient and give the appropriate medicine.

Before the first world war, Burt had developed a machine to diagnose "slow-witted" children (who thus qualified for special needs education), while working as school psychologist for the London county council. The machine produced stimuli such as flashing lights and clicking noises and measured response and reaction times, down to differences measured in fractions of a second.

Through the 1920s and 30s, Burt turned to timed paper and pencil tests requiring abstract non-verbal reasoning – essentially the ability to spot patterns in series of symbols and draw valid inferences quickly. Performance in these tests would be used to rank a person's general intelligence, providing a score that, when combined with other tests, would come to be known as an intelligence quotient, IQ. But herein lies the central objection to IQ testing in principle. A person can easily be trained to perform well in an IQ test if they know they are going to be required to take one.

Even if the three-way division were accepted as making sense, the problem of detecting each type of person and selecting them for the right type of institution arises. Eventually, the 11-plus would be used for this purpose. But this was not the plan at first. Cabinet papers from the period show that the

intention was that the process of selection would be a form of careers advice or counselling, taking the educational and career ambitions and expectations of the parents and the children into account – a process in which intelligence testing would be used as one of several ways of making a decision as part of civilised and considered process.

During the second world war, Burt worked with the Cambridge academics planning the post-war tripartite secondary system to develop the 11-plus test – not as a gateway selection test, but as a diagnostic tool to help people come to informed decisions about their educational needs. The 11-plus, just like Burt's earlier "thinking-speed" detector, would certainly identify people with either very high or low cognitive abilities. What forced the 11-plus centre stage was not ideology, psychology or educational theory, but economics and demographics. In some years in the 1950s, the number of babies born was almost double that of the worst years of the 1930s. I am one of those babies, or used to be anyway.

Through the 50s and 60s, such additional grammar school places as the government could afford to provide were insufficient to keep up with demand. Couples kept having babies and the government had to find places to put them. And so, although it had started life as a diagnostic tool useful for making an informed decision, the 11-plus became a means of rationing a scarce resource, easily manipulated by means of cramming in order to capture a position on the educational ladder. As the social cachet of grammar school places rose, so the stock of the standard secondary modern and the technical schools declined. They quickly came to be seen not as a valid alternative choice, but as second-, third- or fifth-rate versions of grammar schools. The 11-plus test came to be widely feared and disliked as a crude rationing mechanism that the well-informed could manipulate.

The whole idea of the IQ test was damaged by the public career of Burt's most famous pupil, Hans Eysenck. Through the 1960s and 70s, Eysenck linked Burt's contention that intelligence was a matter of inheritance and not environment to racial differences and supposed "scientific proof" of differences in intelligence between races that would not be eradicated by education. This led to a backlash against the whole idea of IQ among some educationalists and the development of rival schools of thought that fought it out in the universities and academic literature. This was ideological bedrock: a version of the age-old "nature v nurture" debate. Did personality, including intelligence and other aptitudes, mainly arise from biological differences? Or was it the result of social and cultural factors that could be corrected or built upon for both the private and public good? By the time Cyril Burt died in 1971, the "nurture" school was in the ascendant. The wheel of intellectual respectability had turned. His reputation was further damaged by allegations that he had faked test results used in academic research.

The row over the "Burt affair" rumbles on in academia to this day. By 1976, when the 11-plus was being phased out across the country, some 30 million people had taken the test.

One galling aspect of selection and the grammar school system is the impossibility of providing a single form of final school-leaving qualification for all pupils that makes sense. If teenagers at different types of school are following different curriculums, then they cannot very well take the same final examinations when they are finished. Theresa May's reinstituted grammar schools will create pressure for their own final examinations and qualifications. These, inevitably, will be seen as superior to whatever examinations are offered by secondary moderns, or whatever they will be called for PR reasons. Equal-but-different kids following tailored-to-needs curriculums will require equal-but-different qualifications at the end. And these qualifications will have a lifelong effect.

This was the way of it before the abolition of selection in most parts of the country. Grammar schools offered the General Certificate of Education at two levels – Ordinary at the end of the fifth year and Advanced (university entrance) at the end of sixth form. But, as a secondary modern student, I simply was not allowed to either follow the O-level curriculum or to take the examinations, and my school did not offer A-levels at all. Instead I was required to take Certificate of Secondary Education examinations, based on different curriculums. These qualifications were, of course, said to have been "equal but different" to O-levels, but nobody believed that for a moment. Eventually, the difference was ratified by a grading system that ranked the highest grade in CSE exams as equivalent to the lowest possible passing O-level grade. I do recall a sense of absolute fury at a system that was so obviously and nakedly fixed.

The bureaucrats, however, had left a loophole in the system, which I decided, out of sheer rage, to exploit. If you took the compulsory – but worthless – CSE exams, you could in addition take the GCE exams with the permission of your school. In some subjects – such as history, some of the sciences and art – the material to be learned was similar, and so it was easily manageable. With maths and English, I ended up having to master two curriculums, which was harder, but still doable. That year, I took something like 40 exam papers over a period of a few weeks. I ended up with top grades in around 24 subjects and a write-up on the front page of the Bury Times. My plan had been to strike back at an unjust system by reducing it to ridicule, and, to a degree, it worked. Here was an education system that had classified me as officially one of the stupidest people in the country, and, at the same time, as one of the cleverest.

I remember when I failed the 11-plus, my dad looked achingly disappointed, but resigned. He comforted my mum by saying that he would be able to get me an apprenticeship in the printers where he worked in Salford. He was a welder in the maintenance department. But he reckoned I would be able to

train as a print machine minder. That was a well-paid job and a step up in the social pecking order. It was a reasonable plan at the time, but fortunately it was not implemented. If I had gone that way, the apprenticeship would have led to five or six years of graft, losing the habits of education and learning a trade that became entirely redundant in about 1980. Both my cousins worked in "the print" for a while, but they never found regular work after the industry collapsed. They suffered terrible health problems and died young. Others I knew at Welly had a series of increasingly desperate semi-skilled or unskilled jobs, which disappeared in the great recessions of the 1980s.

There is much affectionate nostalgia now for the idea of craft apprenticeships. But like the 11-plus itself, few of the people expressing this fondness actually experienced either selection for non-academic education, or an apprenticeship, themselves. The apprenticed craft for which I might have been prepared – that of a skilled print worker – was superseded when computers came along. It strikes me that apprenticeships may have made more sense in the less dynamic economy of, say, the 16th century, when the role of, say, dung collector, was passed down through the generations as a feudal title, protected by the restrictive practices of a trade guild. But the pace of technical change is now so rapid that any skill you might now train to acquire is likely to become redundant before you have finished training for it. The government agency tasked with training is, I see, still offering an apprenticeship in being a heavy goods vehicle driver (at two levels – basic and intermediate) when everyone thinks that most driving jobs will be fully automated in the near future. A heavy goods vehicle driving apprenticeship – like, ultimately, all other apprenticeships – merely puts the journeyman on an economic road to nowhere.

This story has a happy ending of sorts, for me at least. Fifty years ago on that sunlit day when I received my 11-plus letter I was nearly put on a very different path, on that would have been catastrophic – even fatal – for me, as it was for so many millions of others. However, the fact that I had very little formal education, at least as it would now be recognised, meant that I learned the art of a sort of aggressive self-education and the ability to quickly brief myself on any topic. When school was finished, I had an entry interview at the University of Warwick, and managed to talk myself into a place – just about. One final system-imposed hurdle was the weird and apparently random combination of A-level qualifications I had obtained, which did not hang together in any coherent way. They were based on whatever reading had grabbed my attention at the time, rather than any sort of plan to get into university. I managed to explain all this to skeptical admissions tutors. I got in and had a ball.

But this was not the case for most 11-plus failures. They were more inclined than me to turn the other cheek and accept defeat. Most of them probably gave up thinking, on the simple and reasonable grounds that it was an activity for which people with fancy titles in officialdom had found them to be

entirely unsuited. Many were crushed by the experience of failing the 11-plus, as I almost was. Most of the kids I was with at Welly were at least as intelligent as me, and many were brilliant. Some were probably dyslexic, before the condition was really recognised. Few of them went on to higher education. Who will speak for them?

(Source: https://www.theguardian.com)

1. Answer the following questions.

1. What does the author say about his experience of taking 11-plus?
2. Why did Theresa May want to reintroduce selection at schools?
3. What subject areas were prioritized by the secondary modern school the author attended?
4. How did the economics and demographics affect the introduction of the 11-plus?
5. Why was it next to impossible for those who attended secondary modern schools and technical colleges to go on to higher education?
6. What loophole in the system did the author use to be admitted to a university?
7. What does the author think about craft apprenticeship?
8. How does the title of the article reflect the author's message?

2. Say it in English.

Заранее готовиться к экзамену, отбор по академическим способностям, натаскивать кого-либо к экзамену, чудовищно несправедливый, сдавать экзамен в тот же самый день, сильный акцент, домоводство, отмена отбора по способностям, быть в полном разгаре, нанести ответный удар по несправедливой системе, реализовать план, самообразование, иметь своего рода счастливый конец.

3. Say it in Russian.

Mill town –
A token right to appeal –
To dispense with the 11-plus –
Reintroduction of selection –
To be the highest achiever –
To exert control over their classrooms –
To be more academically inclined –
To have high or low cognitive abilities –
To follow different curriculums –
To leave a loophole in the system –
To supersede –
To have a lifelong effect –

4. Paraphrase the following expressions.

- To cream off the top tier of pupils for the better schools
- To foster a strong, diverse society
- To have arbitrarily had their sentences increased
- Soon-to-be redundant vocational skills
- A gateway selection test
- The nature v nurture debate
- To turn the other cheek
- To be crushed by the experience of failing the 11-plus
- To get in and have a ball
- The social pecking order
- Ideological bedrock

5. Insert prepositions.

To be drilled … the exam
To go … … higher education
To comply … the school leaving age
To test the general intelligence of one child … another
To perform well … an IQ test
To keep … … demand
A backlash … the whole idea of IQ
To end … … top grade … 24 subjects
To brief oneself … any topic

6. Consider the following issues.

1. Does drilling predetermine the results of scholastic aptitude tests?
2. Can self-education substitute for formal education provided by schools?
3. Can IQ tests accurately portray children's intelligence?
4. Should they use personal interviews instead of tests to select schoolchildren by academic merit?

UNIT V

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.

(Source: The Observer, 16 December 2001)

1. Say it in 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. Say it in 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 harbor 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 VI

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****.*

11 August 2003

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.

(Source: https://www.theguardian.com)

1. Say it in English.

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

2. Say it in 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. Consider the following issues:

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

UNIT VII

Should Schoolchildren Have Jobs?

Having a Saturday job used to be a rite of passage for children, but growing pressures at school mean this trend is dying out...

By Jasmine Watkiss

4 Dec 2017

The number of school-aged children with a part-time job has fallen by a fifth in the past five years, new figures show.

Experts have put the decline down to both the pressure to do well at school and a fall in the number of jobs available to young people. Stats from more than 140 local authorities show the number of child employment permits issued between 2012 and 2016 has steadily declined across the country.

The findings come from a Freedom of Information (FOI) request by the BBC to all local authorities across the UK responsible for issuing child employment permits, which employers have to have if they want to hire staff under the age of 16.

Dr Angus Holford, from the Institute for Social and Economic Research at the University of Essex, said he believed young people in compulsory education are fearful that a part-time job could hinder their performance at school.

He told the BBC: “Teens are being told evermore that you need to get good GCSEs and A-levels to get a good job in the long term. Passing the exams you need now is looming larger in people's concerns.”

Geoff Barton, general secretary of the Association of School and College Leaders, thinks part-time work is a good idea – unless it interferes with school work and rest time.

He told the BBC: “Properly regulated part-time work is a good way of helping young people learn skills that they will need in their working lives. It is vital that young people, and their parents, ensure that any part-time work they are undertaking leaves them with sufficient time for study and rest.”

The drop in children working part-time isn't just about academic pressures. It could also come down to changing consumer habits.

Middlesbrough has seen one of the biggest drops in employment permits issued, which the council puts down to a decline in the number of people in the area who had a newspaper delivered to their door.

Many teenagers value having a part-time job, saying it helps them to be better organised or gives them a sense of independence.

Rachel, 13, works in a discount shop in Manchester. She told the BBC: “I enjoy my job because I'm earning money and it helps my confidence speaking to people and socialising with people I work with. I have to be quite organised with my homework, so I'll often do some at lunchtimes and then do the rest as soon as I get home from work.”

Other people are convinced having a part-time job early in life is a marker for future professional success.

Sir Martin Sorrell, chief executive of advertising and public relations firm WPP, told the BBC: “I was very lucky. My dad gave me a part-time job whilst at school.”

“I was a salesman in one of his stores in Harlesden, selling radios, TVs, radiograms, fridges and vacuum cleaners, amongst other electrical accessories. I also spent several weeks reviewing credit analyses for hire-purchase agreements ... business was an inherent part of our lives, perhaps to an unusual degree.

There weren't many other kids who read the Financial Times on the bus to school."

Gareth Lewis, the chair of the National Network for Children in Employment and Entertainment, which sets guidelines and good practice for employers, said it was beneficial for children to have some form of part-time work.

He told the BBC: "(This decline) is not something we have been made aware of … it is hard to see why there may be a trend."

Some research has even shown that not taking on a Saturday or holiday job could be detrimental to a person later on in life.

A 2015 study by the UK Commission on Employment and Skills found that not participating in part-time work at school age had been blamed by employers' organisations for young adults being ill-prepared for full-time employment.

It also said this had negative implications for workforce productivity. Employment regulations state that work for 13 to 15 year-olds must be light duties only and between the hours of 7am and 7pm (including holidays).

Jobs that need a permit include retail work, newspaper rounds, waiting on tables, office or clerical work, and leaflet delivery. The rules are different for baby-sitting or the odd job for families and individuals.

(Source: https://www.cambridge-news.co.uk)

1. Answer the following questions.

1. How has the number of children with a part-time job changed in recent years?
2. What are the reasons for it?
3. How do changes in consumer habits affect part-time work for schoolchildren?
4. Why do teenagers find it important to have part-time work?
5. How can having a part-time job early in life influence one's career?
6. What are the employment regulations for 13 to 15 year-olds?

2. Say it in English.

Уменьшиться на 20 %, неуклонно снижаться, мешать выполнению домашнего задания, электроприборы.

3. Say it in Russian.

To issue child employment permits –
To undertake part-time work –
To come down to changing consumer habits –
To review credit analyses for higher-purchase agreements –
To be detrimental to a person later in life –
Light duties –

4. Paraphrase the following expressions.

- A rite of passage
- To pit the decline down to something
- To loom larger in people' concerns
- To set guidelines and good practice for employers

5. Insert prepositions.

Growing pressures … schools
A fall … the number of jobs
To hire staff … the age … 16
A drop … children working part-time
To have negative implications … workforce productivity

6. Consider the following issues.

1. What are the advantages of having a part-time job?
2. Do you agree that having no holiday job could be detrimental to a person later on in life?
3. Do teenagers try to get part-time work in our country? Have you ever had a holiday job?

UNIT VIII

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.

(Source: www.bbc.co.uk/learning)

1. Say it in 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. Say it in English

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

3. Insert prepositions

To 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 IX

Health of the Nation

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

17 July 2001

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 higher education: 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 higher education, 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.

(Source: The Guardian, 17 July 2001)

1. Say it in 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. Say it in 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. Consider the following issues:

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

UNIT X

Can You Afford to Go to University?

Louise Tickle

20 August 2013

"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.

(Source: https://www.theguardian.com/education)

1. Say it in 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. Say it in 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 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.

By 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.

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

(Source: The Guardian, 13 April 2011)

1. Say it in 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 заставить своих отпрысков серьезнее относиться к высшему образованию.

В отдаленном будущем им придется возвращать ссуду.

2. Say it in 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 … 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. Consider the following issues:
1. In your view, should university applicants choose those subjects that offer high returns?
2. Should universities charge different tuition fees for high-return and low-return subjects?
3. What was your choice of a university course based on? Do you think it a good investment?
4. Are the rates of return different for male and female graduates in our country?

UNIT XII

Two-year University Degrees: Trimming the Fat or a Bad Deal for Students?

Government thinks accelerated degree courses will improve perceptions of value for money. But it's not clear they're worth it for universities or for students.

Lucy Hodson

26 Jul 2017

In his robust defence of the current fee regime on 20 July, universities minister Jo Johnson returned to the accelerated degrees which he last mentioned in February. But universities have already warned him that his proposed model might not be workable – and nothing has changed since then.

In a consultation on the issue in May 2016, universities agreed that there are a range of inherent difficulties in delivering these new products, the most insurmountable of which is cost. Johnson mooted that the fee cap would be lifted for these accelerated degrees – to a level where the student would never be paying more for a two-year degree in tuition fees than he or she would for a three-year degree. This means that annual fees could be up to £13,500. The supposed savings to the student (and the taxpayer) will come from lower spending on maintenance costs – two years in student digs instead of three – whether paid for through earnings, loans or grants.

There are number of providers in England already offering accelerated degrees. At Buckingham, a private university, two-year degrees are charged at around £12,000 a year, against which students can get fee loans of just over £6,000 per annum. They are the bedrock of their business model. Another private provider, Greenwich School of Management, charges £8,000, compared to £6,000 for its three-year programmes. Coventry University charges £9,000 for two-year degrees as part of its University College Coventry set-up – where three-year degrees cost under £6,000 a year, significantly cheaper than the £9,250 charged by its main operation.

These may be seen as prescient pilot schemes, but I doubt they are making any significant contribution to the bottom line. Will the raising of the fee cap increase the interest among universities in the shortened course?

A costly option

Two-year degrees are still going to be expensive to run. In recent years, most universities have been quietly extending the length of undergraduate degrees, through foundation years, integrated masters and the like, rather than shortening them. The immediate worry will be the additional cost of teaching outside the academic year. While some providers will have the contractual flexibility to require more teaching from lecturers, most universities will need to hire more staff to deliver teaching and assessment from June to September.

For many universities, there could be considerable set-up costs. Facilities are usually either hired out or undergoing refurbishment in the summer, so more teaching space may be needed. Current e-learning, e-assessment and feedback arrangements may also not be up to scratch for the quicker turnaround and more blended styles. Accelerated degrees don't make much use of exams, preferring module by module coursework. And there will be need to be investment in staff, processes and student records to administer enrolment, assessment and graduation of these differing cohorts at "unusual" times of the year.

The pending far-reaching changes to the Higher Education Statistics Agency annual student record gathering process (due to go live in 2019) also does away with the concept of the academic year. This is to encourage greater flexibility of provision, but new concepts of a full-time student – which drive funding – will need to be developed.

An intellectual journey cut short

Academic quality and rigour is another issue. Can the actual content be delivered and can the student physically do enough self-directed study? Two-year degrees are mostly offered in business and management, or in education. Both are areas where learning through placement is key and where there is little need for expensive equipment and technical staff. Much reading is undertaken by students on these programmes, but nowhere near as much as is required for some humanities disciplines. Where degrees are about developing skills,

students may not get enough hours in the science or language lab to gain proficiency.

In a three-year degree, there are clear progressive steps of conceptual difficulty, sophistication and complexity between levels 1, 2 and 3 of an undergraduate degree. The assessments submitted in the year of a degree are deliberately weighted more heavily in final degree classifications, reflecting the output of an individual who is more knowledgeable, wiser, more skilful and more useful generally. Can the same methodology be applied for a shorter intellectual journey?

This maturity is also developed through two key elements now increasingly common in UK degrees and valued by employers: a block of work experience and an extended final-year research project. Providing these important learning tools in a two-year degree could be hard (some two-year degrees already offer an optional 3rd placement year) – leading to a weaker CV and reduced employability. As a result of these issues, learning outcomes may need to be altered, if equivalence between two- and three-year degrees is to be maintained.

Equivalence is an issue also when we consider the currency of the Bologna framework of European qualifications. It was difficult enough to sell the idea of the three-year bachelors degree to continental Europe, and there is now some backlash. The Bologna documents, and their counterparts in the UK, all talk in terms of number of years of study as key measure of qualification level. We will need to find another way to assure content and quality to enable international employers to retain confidence in the value of UK degree.

A compromised student experience

Instead of the benefits outlined by Johnson, could the student be losing out? They will be paying a high level of fee, which will be in part funding infrastructure, (some) research, libraries, technology, as well as other facilities such as sports and performance, which they may not have the time to benefit from. They will have intense formal contact time, but may miss out on the informal interaction with staff, subject societies, and ad hoc seminars which can all contribute to intellectual development. And what will happen if a student fails a key progression milestone – will they need to repeat the whole expensive, intensive year?

The answer is unlikely to be simple: I can see two-year degrees taking on different flavours and structures in different universities. But whatever happens, the transparency of information for the candidate about the pros, cons and financial implications of choosing between the two-year degree and its longer counterparts will be of utmost importance.

(Source: https://www.theguardian.com/higher-education-network)

1. Answer the following questions:

1. What proposal did the universities minister make?
2. What was the reaction of UK universities to it?
3. What difficulties can the introduction of a shortened course entail?
4. What types of universities have already started offering accelerated degrees?
5. What helps universities to extend the length of a degree course?
6. What measures should universities take to deliver teaching and assessment from June to September?
7. How different are accelerated courses in terms of teaching?
8. How will the concept of an academic year change with accelerated degrees?
9. How can the shortening of a degree course affect the quality of education?
10. What disciplines require more than two years to gain proficiency?
11. What methodology is currently used to assess the undergraduates' knowledge?
12. What elements of course work are valued by employers?
13. How can the shortened degree affect the graduates' employability?
14. How can the lack of time affect students' interaction with staff?
15. What aspects should the students consider while choosing between the two-year degree and a three-year course?

2. Say it in English.

Ускоренный курс обучения, интерес к сокращенному курсу; расходы на учебники, питание и проживание; далеко идущие последствия, служить основой, непреодолимый, изучать самостоятельно, обладающий знаниями, остаться на второй год.

3. Say it in Russian.

To be workable –
To moot –
Inherent difficulties –
Per annum –
To deliver teaching and assessment –
A cohort –
Pending changes –
Academic quality and rigour –
Robust defence –
To gain proficiency –
A weak CV –
To alter learning outcomes –
To maintain equivalence –
Ad hoc seminars –
A backlash –

4. Paraphrase the following expressions.

- To trim the fat
- To lift the fee cap
- Prescient pilot schemes
- Foundation year
- To be up to scratch
- Blended styles
- To weigh more heavily in final degree classifications
- Reduced employability

5. Insert prepositions.

Lower spending … maintenance costs
To be paid … … earnings
To make a contribution … the bottom line
Changes … the student record gathering process
To do … … the concept of the academic year
To benefit … some facilities
To retain confidence … the value … UK degree
To miss … … the informal interaction … the staff
To take … different flavours and structures
To contribute … intellectual development

6. Consider the following issues:

1. What are the benefits of accelerated degree courses?
2. What are the disadvantages of a shortened degree course?
3. How long should a first degree course last for the students to gain proficiency, in your view?

UNIT XIII

Graduate with 2:1 Sues Oxford for £1m

21 November 2017

An Oxford graduate's failure to get a top degree cost him a lucrative legal career, the High Court has heard.

Faiz Siddiqui alleges “inadequate” teaching on his modern history course resulted in him getting an upper second degree in June 2000. He blames staff being absent on sabbatical leave and is suing the university for £1m.

Oxford denies negligence and causation and says the case is "massively" outside the legal time limit.

Mr Siddiqui also alleges medical information about him was not submitted to examiners by a tutor. The 39-year-old studied at Brasenose College and singled out the teaching on the Indian special subject part of his course for criticism.

His counsel Roger Mallalieu told Mr Justice Foskett that Mr Siddiqui had been a "driven young man" aiming at a postgraduate qualification at an Ivy League university.

He said: "Whilst a 2:1 degree from Oxford might rightly seem like a tremendous achievement to most, it at a postgraduate qualification and was, to him, a huge disappointment."

Mr Mallalieu said his employment history in legal and tax roles was "frankly poor" and he was now unemployed, rather than having a career at the tax bar in England or a major US law firm.

Mr Siddiqui also said his clinical depression and insomnia have been significantly exacerbated by his "inexplicable failure".

Julian Milford, for Oxford University, told the court Mr Siddiqui complained about insufficient resources, but had only described the teaching as "a little bit dull". He added the student received exactly the same amount of teaching as he would have in any other year.

The seven-day hearing is concerned only with liability – with damages to be assessed later if Mr Siddiqui succeeds.

(Source: www.bbc.com/news)

1. Answer the following questions:

1. Why did Mr Siddiqui file a law suit?
2. What was Oxford university's reaction to the accusations?
3. What information should have been submitted to his examiner, according to Mr Siddiqui?
4. What degree did he obtain in Oxford and what did he feel about it?
5. What was Mr Siddiqui's employment history?
6. How does he explain his failure?
7. What link does he establish between his university degree and his health problems?
8. Why was he dissatisfied with resources and teaching at Oxford?

2. Say it in Russian.

Lucrative legal career –
A sabbatical leave –
To deny negligence and causation –
To be outside the legal time limit –
To allege –

To aim at a postgraduate qualification –
To fall short of his expectations –
To have a career at the tax bar –
To exacerbate –
Inexplicable –
Hearing –

3. Insert prepositions.

Teaching … his modern history course
To sue the university … £1m
To single … something … criticism
To be concerned only … liability

4. Consider the following issues.

1. Can universities be responsible for their graduates' employment history?
2. Should examiners be warned about the candidates' health condition?
3. Should Oxford pay damages to Mr Siddiqui, in your view?

5. Read the information about types of degrees that British universities award. Get ready to explain the differences between them.

Degree Classification

Nearly all students will be awarded a degree with honours at the end of their course. If a student is awarded an ordinary (or pass) degree (i.e. a degree without honours) this is usually because they have failed the honours examination, or significant parts of it. If this is the case some universities will allow the student to retake the examination for a pass degree only.

Most universities award a class of degree based on the average mark of the assessed work the student has completed. Below is a list of the possible classifications with common abbreviations. Rough percentages for each class are also listed, these percentages vary between subjects and universities.

- **First-Class Honours** (First or 1st) (70 % and above) **(OPEN UNIVERSITY 85 %+)**
- **Upper Second-Class Honours** (2:1, 2.i) (60–70 %) **(OPEN UNIVERSITY 70–85 %)**
- **Lower Second-Class Honours** (2:2, 2.ii) (50–60 %) **(OPEN UNIVERSITY 55–70 %)**
- **Third-Class Honours** (Third or 3rd) (40–50 %) **(OPEN UNIVERSITY 40–55 %)**
- Ordinary degree (pass) (OPEN UNIVERSITY AWARDED AT 300 CATS POINTS)

- Fail (no degree is awarded)
- Unclassified (some degrees aren't classified, e.g. medicine or masters degree)

First-Class Honours

In most universities, First-Class Honours is the highest honours which can be achieved, with about 15 % of students achieving a First nationally.

A minority of universities award First-Class Honours with Distinction, informally known as a starred first.

A Double First can refer to first class honours in two separate subjects, e.g. Classics and Mathematics, or alternatively to first class honours in the same subject in subsequent examinations, e.g. subsequent Parts of the tripos at the University of Cambridge.

Second-Class Honours

The bulk of university graduates fall into Second-Class Honours, which is sub-divided into Upper Second-Class Honours and Lower Second-Class Honours. These divisions are commonly abbreviated to 2:1 (pronounced two-one) and 2:2 (pronounced two-two) respectively. Despite 2:1s and 2:2s just being subdivisions of the same class (though a large one), the perceived difference between them is high (employers usually only make the distinction between graduates with 2:1s and above or 2:2s and below).

Third-Class Honours

Third-Class Honours is the lowest honours classification in most modern universities (though until the 1970s, Oxford used to award Fourth-Class Honours degrees, although they did not divide Second-Class Honours and so still had four classes like everyone else).

Aegrotat degrees

A student who is unable to take their exams because of illness can sometimes be awarded an aegrotat degree; this is an honours degree without classification, awarded on the understanding that had the candidate not been unwell, he or she would have passed.

The degree classification system does allow for a small amount of discretion and students may be moved up to the next degree class if their average mark is close and they have submitted many pieces of work worthy of the higher class. However, they may be demoted a class if they fail to pass all parts of the course even if they have a high average. If you're unsure as to how this could affect you, then it's worth confirming with your personal tutor or exam officer.

There are also variations between universities (especially in Scotland, where honours are usually reserved only for courses lasting four years or more)

and requirements other than the correct average are often needed to be awarded honours.

When a candidate is awarded a degree with honours, they can add “Hons” to their class of degree, such as BA (Hons) or BSc (Hons).

Progression to postgraduate study

Regulations governing the progression of undergraduate degree graduates to higher-degree programmes vary between universities, and the rules are often flexible. A candidate for a postgraduate master's degree is usually required to have at least a 2:2 honours degree (though some institutions specify a 2:1). Candidates with third class honours or pass degrees are sometimes accepted, provided they have acquired satisfactory professional experience subsequent to graduation. A candidate for a doctorate/doctoral programme who does not hold a masters degree is nearly always required to have a First or 2:1.

Oxford & Cambridge

At University of Oxford and University of Cambridge, honours classes apply to examinations, not to degrees. In Cambridge, where undergraduates are examined at the end of each part of the tripos, a student may receive different classifications for different parts. The classification of the final part is usually considered the classification of the degree. At Oxford, the Final Honour School results are generally applied to the degree.

Why are some students awarded a Certificate of Higher Education?

In some universities, students who successfully complete one or more years of degree-level study, but choose not to or fail to complete a full degree, may be awarded a lower qualification – a Certificate of Higher Education or Higher National Certificate for one year, or a Diploma of Higher Education or Higher National Diploma for two years.

Undergraduate degree honours slang

Rhyming slang has developed from degree classes, relying on the names of famous people that sound similar to the classes:

- A First is known as a Geoff Hurst / Damien Hirst (as “First” sounds like “Hurst” or “Hirst”)
- A 2:1 is known as an Attila the Hun (as “2:1” sounds like “the Hun”)
- A 2:2 is known as a Desmond Tutu (as “2:2” sounds like “Tutu”)[2][3]
- A Third is known as a Douglas Hurd / Thora Hird (as “Third” sounds like “Hurd” or “Hird”)

According with the conventions of rhyming slang, only the person's first name is used. Thus, one can be awarded a Geoff (First), Attila (2:1), Desmond (2:2), or a Douglas (Third).

(Source: https://www.thestudentroom.co.uk)

UNIT XIV

The Challenges Facing Universities in 2018

Sean Coughlan

1 January 2018

It's been a bad year for universities.

The row over vice-chancellors' pay has been a long, drawn-out box set of disasters for universities, with the highest-paid leader, the head of the University of Bath, stepping down, in a moment that was both unprecedented and deeply symbolic.

Tuition fees have been frozen and an imminent major review of student funding has cast a cloud of financial uncertainty.

From Monday, a new higher education regulator comes into force, with the Office for Students charged with ensuring value for money.

Instead of being seen as undisputed forces for public good, universities have faced accusations of looking out of touch and self-serving.

It's a very unfamiliar and uncomfortable position for universities. And one that they will want to escape in 2018.

So how will universities reverse out of the swamp?

Tuition fee review

An early crunch point will be the forthcoming review of university funding.

This was promised after Jeremy Corbyn's Labour Party revived the student vote with a promise to scrap tuition fees, with swings to Labour of over 20 % in some university seats.

It's a political response from the government but it will be universities that will be watching nervously.

There might be a strong push for the prime minister to make a popular appeal to young voters rather than listen to universities defending the intricacies of their funding mechanisms.

And after the board of the Social Mobility Commission walked out in protest over a lack of progress, the government will want to show it's serious about removing barriers.

The level of fees, interest rates, the sale of student debt, the return of maintenance grants, the length of repayments could all be under scrutiny.

There will be warnings that changes to fees could mean reintroducing limits on student numbers and questions about attracting more mature and part-time students.

There will also be calls for more substantial changes, such as switching from fees and loans entirely to a graduate tax or some kind of graduate contribution scheme.

But universities have made something of a Faustian pact with tuition fees.

They craved the reliable income. But they thought that they could completely change their funding but not really change much else.

They didn't really see themselves having to become consumer-friendly businesses with millions of young customers who are keenly aware of how their money is being spent.

At the beginning of the year, universities were pushing for fees to increase every year with inflation, which would soon have seen annual fees passing £10,000.

They thought they were getting on to a financial launchpad. But it turned out that they were crowding on to a trapdoor.

Instead of getting financial independence, the next fee increase was cancelled and their future funding was seen to be entirely dependent on the shifting political sands.

The head of Oxford University attacked “tawdry politicians” for linking vice-chancellors' pay with increases in tuition fees.

But the Universities Minister, Jo Johnson, now seems to be the universities' best hope for protecting their fees.

This political slow-burner, an increasingly confident figure, seems committed to defending the core architecture of the tuition fees system.

But the future of tuition fees is now as unpredictable as the politics of a minority government.

Pay scandals

The dispute over vice-chancellors' pay was toxic for universities.

And with stories about big bonuses, housekeepers, chauffeurs and grace-and-favour residences, it was difficult for universities to be taken seriously over other concerns, whether it was research funding or worries about losing European staff and students after Brexit.

But a deal on senior pay seems to have been reached, with a new fair pay code to be introduced in the new year. University heads have moved to put their own house in order before a new regulator, the Office for Students, could apply more direct pressure.

There could be further difficult stories about pay and perks – but assuming there is some rigour to the new rules, at least university leaders can claim to have listened.

Financial independence

Many of the biggest pitfalls for universities are around the lack of reliable, long-term funding – and one of the most quietly significant moves in 2017 was Oxford University's raising of £750m from a bond issue.

This was about major UK universities' desire to have financial security of the kind taken for granted by their big US counterparts.

While Oxford haggles over fees set by the government, Harvard University can rely on an income from an endowment standing at $37bn (£28bn).

Expect to see more UK universities trying to find ways to get money that is not reliant on fees or politicians.

Value for money

This year's survey of student attitudes, carried out by the Higher Education Policy Institute, showed only 32 % of students in England thought their courses were good value for money.

This is something that universities will really need to address – including questions about how many hours students are taught, the quality of teaching and whether there are facilities that were promised.

For the first time this year, a number of universities were warned by the advertising watchdog that they had made claims that could be misleading.

And Central St Martins refunded students their fees after complaints about how their course was delivered.

Offering customer service, while maintaining academic rigour, will be a tricky balancing act.

And a first-class education can't just mean everyone getting a first-class degree.

Or will other universities follow Surrey, which was revealed this year to have given first-class degrees to more than 40 % of students?

Free speech

Universities can get irritated by claims they're not doing enough to protect free speech, a theme picked up recently by the universities minister. They say that legal requirements are already in place and until recently they were being accused of allowing too much free speech, in the form of campus extremism.

But there are really thorny issues around how controversial ideas and beliefs are debated at universities and how some student politics seems to be about shutting down some opposing voices in favour of “safe spaces” and “no-platforming” policies.

Much of this is about the rise of the identity politics of race, gender and sexuality, as much as university governance. It's about who controls the conversation.

Expect more shadow boxing over symbols, statues and language. But universities are going to have to find a middle way through such headline-grabbing, polarising disputes.

Finding an identity

Universities remain an aspiration for families, a priority for a modern economy and a major export business.

But somewhere along the way they seem to have suffered some kind of identity crisis. What are they for? Who are they meant to serve? And who should pay for them? Maybe their biggest challenge is to find a renewed sense of purpose and to make a new contract with the public about how they can support one another.

(Source: http://www.bbc.com/news/education)

1. Say it in English.

Неизбежный, вступить в силу, общественное благо, предстоящий, вводить в заблуждение, преподавать курс.

2. Say it in Russian.

To reverse out of the swamp –
To scrap tuition fees –
Mature and part-time students –
A financial launchpad –
Shifting political sands –
Grace-and-favour residences –
A pitfall –
To raise money from a bond issue –
Advertising watchdog –
To refund students their fees –
Headline-grabbing disputes –
An aspiration for families –
Self-serving –

3. Paraphrase the following expressions

- A long, drawn-out set of disasters
- To cast a cloud of uncertainty
- With swings to Labour of over 20 % in some university seats
- To make a Faustian pact with tuition fees
- To crowd on to a trapdoor
- Political slow-burner
- To haggle over fees
- A thorny issue
- Shadow boxing over something

4. Insert prepositions

To look … … touch
To walk … … protest
To be committed … defending something
A dispute … vice-chancellors' pay
To be taken … granted
To rely … an income … an endowment
To be reliant … fees
Legal requirements are already … place

5. Compress the article to 200 words. Summarize it using 50 words.

PART II

GLOBAL EDUCATION

UNIT XV

Are Study-abroad Programmes Vacation or Education?

By Kathleen Kingsbury

6 June 2013

Study abroad? Seems like a no-brainer in today's global economy. Indeed, colleges and universities have been selling the idea that a term overseas is an unparalleled chance for students to learn cross-cultural skills and pick up valuable credentials for the job market.

The UK is a popular destination for Indian students, but the appeal of a degree in Britain has lost some of its shine.

Among some academics however, there are concerns that these programmes are not meeting many of their goals. Research shows that cultural gaps are not being narrowed. Campuses are no more diverse, according to other studies, and costs continue to grow, now topping more than $60,000 per year for certain destinations.

"We sell the idea that if students study abroad, they automatically return with some nuanced, marketable international skill set," said Mark Salisbury, the director of institutional research and assessment at the US's Augustana College in Illinois. "But, given the price tag, what if we've oversold the benefits?"

The number of participants and the revenues schools reap from some programmes have soared as students are attracted to the idea of improving foreign language skills and forming valuable international relationships. Too often, surveys show, the students who can afford these trips are already well travelled and from well-to-do families. Furthermore, foreign students are often segregated into their own living quarters, which undermines the ostensible goal of mingling with locals. Finally, the high cost of the programs may not pay off with increased marketable skills, given the findings of a 2008 survey by Michigan State University which showed that a majority of employers put little stock in the study-abroad experience.

This has led many to question the purpose and value of study-abroad programs. Do they truly prepare students for an increasingly global world? Or do they merely represent an extended fun trip to another country?

Challenges ahead

Despite the worries raised by critics such as Salisbury, many who have studied abroad speak of it as a life-changing experience. By getting outside their comfort zone, students can experience personal and academic growth and they often seek out additional chances to live, study or work abroad, said advocates.

"It's something that bites people and doesn't let go," said Spencer Jones, vice president of institutional relations and development for Council on International Educational Exchange (CIEE), a non-profit that administers international programmes. Participants can refine foreign-language skills and be exposed to new instructional methods, he said.

Yet Jones conceded that there may need to be more accountability and reflection on what students gain. For example, just 22 % of study abroad programs take steps to measure language acquisition, according to a recent survey by the Forum on Education Abroad, a non-profit association which develops and promotes good-practice guidelines for the field of education abroad.

Programs too frequently take their cues from students, said Lilli Engle, president and on-site director of the American University Center in Provence, which offers French immersion programmes.

"The primary motivator to study abroad now is not necessarily to learn, but instead to have a great adventure," Engle said. "Study abroad programs are happy to oblige."

Expenses soar

International recruitment has become a multibillion-dollar business. In the US, some 765,000 foreign students contribute more than $20 billion annually to the country's economy through tuition and living expenses, according to the US Department of Commerce. A government panel in Canada recently recommended the country double its current crop of just over 100,000 international students by 2022 in order to capitalize on the CAD8 billion ($7.8 billion) in revenues and 86,000 jobs the sector created in 2010. In the small British city of Sheffield alone, international students at the local university contribute about £120 million ($182 million) over a single year to the surrounding economy, according to one recent study.

The average tuition at a US private, non-profit university this past year is $29,056, according to the College Board, a not-for-profit, college-preparatory organization. International students generally pay full freight.

Some European, Canadian and Australian schools are just as expensive, or even more spendy. At McGill University in Montreal, Canada, an international student studying business pays CAD35,019. Cambridge University in the United Kingdom charges the same student £20,790 ($31,616), and Australia's University of Melbourne charges AUD33,344 ($32,483).

Financial assistance is not usually offered to undergraduates abroad; instead, personal and family contributions fill college coffers.

"It requires a certain level of price insensitivity," Salisbury said. Translation: undergrads who could not afford foreign travel before college are not likely join a programme once there.

While participation has more than quadrupled worldwide since the early 1980s, according to UNESCO, the profile of students who study abroad are little changed. Among Americans overseas, that profile is predominantly white women, usually well-off, and often already well-travelled, according to numerous studies which have examined US study-abroad programmes**.** This undermines the belief that those who study abroad bring diversity and democratization with them.

"We're still interested in diversifying the campus, but we're also interested in improving the bottom line," wrote Jim Miller, past president of the National Association for College Admission Counseling, in a June, 2011, issue of the Chronicle of Higher Education. NACAC is an Arlington, Virginia-based organization which helps students who are considering post-secondary education**.**

Study-abroad programs are not bringing much diversity to American campuses, either. More than 50 % of all foreign students come to the US from four nations: China with a quarter of the total, trailed by India, Saudi Arabia and Korea, according to the most recent figures from the non-profit Institute for International Education, the world's largest international education and training provider, which has offices around the globe.

Foreign students corralled

Once students are on a foreign campus, emphasis on language skills is increasingly unusual, several studies since 2009 suggest. Short-term programmes of one or two weeks, as opposed to a semester or academic year, are a growing trend, Jones said.

Engle described foreigners corralled into their own dormitories, taught in separate classrooms, and given little to no chance to mix with domestic classmates. She noted a proliferation of English-speaking programmes that cater to American students, allowing them bypass instruction in the local language.

"We know from surveys that students are shying away from home stays," Engle said. "They want to go to a different country but don't want to get too close to the people who live there."

Students may also feel isolated from their local peers. Almost 40 % of international students in the US, regardless of from where they hailed, said they had no close American friends, according to a study published last year in the Washington, D.C.-based Journal of International and Intercultural Communication.

Get a job

Study abroad has diversified away from traditional academic study. Students can dig for archaeological artefacts in Turkey for a summer at Minnesota's St Olaf's College, head to the Bahamas to scuba dive during spring break through State University of New York at Brockport or learn tango during a semester in Argentina for Texas A&M University.

All of these programmes offer students great life experiences, to be sure [KK1], but it may be hard to sell employers on the sought-after job skills obtained along the way. According to the 2008 Michigan State University report, 61 % of US employers put little to no value in the importance of studying abroad.

"A student wants to put on their CV that they've been to China," Engle said. But, she added, "If their time there is not unsettling or different, there's no reason to go."

Katherine Bellows, executive director of the Office of International Programs at the US's Georgetown University in Washington DC, would like to see study abroad "inserted into curricular structures" to provide a more robust learning experience that starts preparing students from freshman year and continues through graduation. Bellows also said students overseas should take more time to contemplate. "You must dedicate the time to reflect. It's essential to the learning process," she said. "It doesn't happen nearly as often as it should. Students are too often rushing from one place to the next to make space for reflection."

(Source: http://www.bbc.com/capital/story)

1. Answer the following questions.

1. Why do colleges and universities promote study-abroad programmes?
2. What do academics think about the value of these programmes?
3. Why do students opt for these programmes?
4. What are the downsides of studying abroad?
5. Why do the advocates of studying abroad think it to be a life-changing experience?
6. What motivates students to study abroad?
7. What impact on revenues does international recruitment have?
8. Who covers all the expenses?
9. What is the profile of students who study abroad?
10. Where from do the majority of international students come to the USA?
11. What prevents international students from developing their language skills?
12. Why do students avoid home stays?
13. How different is study abroad from traditional academic study?
14. What do employers think about studying abroad?
15. How can such programmes be improved?

2. Say it in English.

Тесно общаться с местными, не решать поставленные задачи, усовершенствовать владение иностранным языком, идти вразрез с устоявшимся мнением, увеличиться в четыре раза, улучшить финансовые показатели, указать в резюме, ставить под вопрос целесообразность обучения за рубежом.

3. Say it in Russian.

To learn cross-cultural skills –
To reap revenues –
To narrow cultural gaps –
An unparalleled chance –
To undermine the ostensible goal –
To experience personal and academic growth –
To concede –
To measure language acquisition –
To capitalize on it –
To be spendy –
To corral students –
The proliferation of such programmes –

4. Paraphrase the following expressions.

- To pick up the necessary credentials for the job market
- To be no-brainer
- Nuanced, marketable international skill set
- To put little stock in the study-abroad experience
- It bites people and doesn't let go
- To be happy to oblige
- To pay full freight
- To diversify the campus

5. Insert prepositions.

To mingle … locals
To pick … credentials
To be exposed … new instruction methods
To put little stock … it
To contribute 120 million … a single year … the surrounding economy
To cater … American students
To bypass the instruction … the local language
To shy away … … home stay
To head … some country
To put little … no value … the importance … studying abroad

To put it … their CV
To make space … reflection

6. Consider the following issues:
1. What do you think about the values of studying abroad?
2. If you were an international student, would you prefer a home stay or living on campus?
3. What are the benefits of having foreign students in our university? Do you think they integrate into our academic environment?

UNIT XVI

Educationism: a Hidden Bias We Often Ignore

A subtle form of discrimination exists towards those who are less educated and it divides society in a number of ways: welcome to "educationism".

By Melissa Hogenboom

20 December 2017

The first time Lance Fusarelli set foot on a university campus, he felt surrounded by people who seemed to know more than him – about society, social graces and "everything that was different".

He attributes these differences to his upbringing. While he didn't grow up poor, it was in a working-class town in a small rural area in Avella, Pennsylvania. He was the first in his family to go to university – his mother got pregnant and had to drop out of school, while his father went to work in a coal mine in his mid-teens. He lived in an environment where few stayed in education beyond high school.

It worked out well for him. Fusarelli is now highly educated and a professor and director of graduate programmes at North Carolina State University. Occasionally he's reminded of how he felt in those early days, when a colleague innocently corrected his imperfect grammar. "He wasn't being mean, we were good friends, he just grew up in a different environment," he says. "Sometimes I will not always talk like an academic. I tend to use more colourful language."

While Fusarelli has risen through the ranks of academia despite his background, his experiences have highlighted the social divide that can exist in education. For those who are less educated due to their disadvantaged background, they face a subtle but pervasive bias. A new report in the Journal of Experimental Social Psychology named the term "educationism" and for the first

time found clear evidence for what Fusarelli and many others have long suspected: educated people are implicitly biased against the less educated. And this has unfortunate, unintended consequences that often stem from the gap between the rich and poor.

It's a "societal level" issue that creates a significant divide, says Toon Kuppens of the University of Groningen in the Netherlands, part of the team who coined the term. "It needs to be addressed."

The idea that people are biased against the less educated is not a new one. In the 1980s the French socialist Pierre Bourdieu called it the "racism of intelligence… of the dominant class", which serves to justify their position in society. Bourdieu pointed to the fact that the education system was invented by the ruling classes, with middle-class knowledge and questions appearing in tests.

Education also appears to divide society in many ways. Higher levels of educational attainment are linked to greater income, better health, improved well-being and elevated levels of employment. Educational status also reveals political divides. Those with lower qualifications were more likely to vote for Britain to leave the European Union, for example. One report even found that education level played a bigger role in the Brexit vote than age, sex or income.

Despite this long-held understanding, the existence of such a strong educational bias is rarely addressed head on, argues Kuppens, though there are numerous studies on gender, ethnicity and age prejudices.

To address this, Kuppens and colleagues set up several experiments to understand individuals' attitude towards education. They asked subjects outright how positive and warm they felt about others, but they also asked indirectly by describing several individuals' jobs and education background, which participants then had to evaluate positively or negatively.

The results were clear – individuals who attained higher levels of education were liked more, both from high and lower-educated subjects. Participants who were more highly educated were clearly not "inherently more tolerant" than the lower-educated, as is commonly believed, says Kuppens.

What's more, he says that one of the reasons the bias exists is that education level is somehow perceived to be something people can control. "We are evaluating people – giving them negative attitudes – even though we know that in reality they cannot be blamed for their low education."

The reason people cannot be blamed for low levels of education is due to its link to poverty. Those from poor backgrounds quickly fall behind their classmates at school and fewer teens from disadvantaged backgrounds go to university.

It is now becoming clearer that there are complex reasons for this – namely that poverty effects day-to-day decision making in previously unforeseen ways. Jennifer Sheehy-Skeffington of the London School of Economics, says that a lack of resources is "psychologically constraining". It also adds a sense of stigma and shame that creates low self-esteem, a pattern she says is more likely in societies

with meritocratic ideologies, where an individual's achievement is seen as being based largely upon intelligence and hard-work.

Poverty even affects decision making. In one revealing study, Sheehy-Skeffington randomly assigned middle-income participants to different groups – some were told they were doing badly in society while others were successful. Those who were told they were "low status individuals" performed worse on both financial decisions and basic cognitive tasks.

"That's saying the cognitive skills you need in order to make good financial decisions aren't readily available when you're facing the stress of realising you're doing worse than others," she says. It's not that their mental processes shut down, but rather that individuals were more focussed on the present threat to their status rather than concentrating on tasks at hand.

In her analysis on the psychology of poverty, Sheehy-Skeffington has found that those on low incomes feel a diminished sense of control over future life outcomes. "If you think you can't control your future it makes sense to invest what limited energy or money you have to improve your present situation," she says.

Work like hers reveals a cycle that is hard to break: performance on mental tasks suffer when faced with financial constraints. And once these constraints exist, the ability to plan for the future and make sensible decisions is also negatively affected. This clearly plays out in the education system. Those who live in the present have less incentive to do well at school or plan for a higher education.

One team of researchers goes even further, however, arguing that the education system is "motivated to maintain the status quo" – where the children of highly-educated parents go to university, while children with less exposure to education go into vocational training or apprenticeships. This was highlighted in a 2017 study led by social psychologist Fabrizio Butera of the University of Lausanne in Switzerland. His team showed that "examiners" scored individuals lower on the same task when they were told that the pupil came from a less privileged background.

"It's like they consider a kid from a lower background shouldn't be on that track, and therefore they effectively hinder their prospects as far as the continuation of education is concerned," says Butera. "Perpetuating the status quo is a way to maintain the privilege that these classes have." And even if individuals from a working-class do reach higher education, they often have to "discard the original parts of their identity in order to become socially mobile", explains Erica Southgate from the University of Newcastle in Australia. She has studied the stigmas faced by individuals who are the first in their family to reach higher education. She found that in subjects such as medicine, there's a prevailing assumption from classmates that everyone comes from a similar social background. "It wasn't so much overt stigma, but the hidden injuries of social class that kept emerging – people kept having to explain themselves."

So, what could help overcome the education divide? One view is that different ways of scoring tests could help even the playing field. In several

studies, Butera's team showed that giving children graded tests or exam scores actually reduces motivation and performance in reasoning and decision making. If there are no graded scores it also reduces social comparison, which we know can often negatively affect performance, as Sheehy-Skeffington's work revealed.

If detailed feedback on how to improve is given instead of simple graded scores, it helps "focus on assessment as a tool for education" rather than assessment for selection, Butera argues. In other words, children learn to further their knowledge, rather than learn to do well on tests.

"Our team has shown that one viable solution is to create a classroom environment where assessment is part of the learning process," says Butera. "This appears to reduce social class and gender inequalities, and promote a culture of solidarity and cooperation."

Some alternative schools place less emphasis on exams, such as the Montessori, Steiner and Freinet schools, while in Finland there are no standardised tests in primary schools. These examples are in the minority and not to everyone's taste. Many parents want to see grades, and without them it can be hard to assess how children are doing. "Here in Switzerland they abolished grades in one place but there was an uprising mainly due to parents who all of a sudden couldn't figure out how their kids were doing," says Butera.

For Fusarelli, the most important thing is for both parents and teachers to expect the best from children at a young age to reinforce the idea that "they can do this and succeed".

"If you have low expectations of the kids they'll sink to the level of expectations," he says. A study has even shown that low-income students do worse when teachers expect them to do badly in maths, reading and vocabulary. That's why he tells prospective low-income students to "trust your ability and believe you belong".

Of course, biases in the education system won't go away overnight. What's worse is that most of us don't realise that these biases exist. The meritocratic attitude that hard workers will succeed is still pervasive, despite evidence to show that many factors beyond an individual's control can hinder potential.

And unfortunately, it is those who are better educated, and who should be sensitive to discrimination, who can benefit – often unknowingly – from the very inequality they helped to create.

(Source: www.bbc.com)

1. Answer the following questions.

1. What example does the author use in the introductory paragraph of his article?
2. What reasoning does it support?
3. What does "educationism" mean?
4. What does the term "the racism of intelligence" refer to?
5. How does education divide society?
6. What did the experiments carried out by Kuppens and his colleagues reveal?

7. What are the reasons for low levels of education, in the researcher's view?
8. What experiments prove that poverty can affect decision making?
9. Some researchers believe that the education system is motivated to maintain the status quo. Spell it out.
10. What are the possible ways to overcome education divide?
11. Why do parent tend to disapprove of the abolition of grades?
12. What effect do low expectations of the kids have on their performance?
13. What factors can hinder potential, in the author's view?
14. What conclusion does the author draw?
15. How does the title reveal the author's message?

2. Say it in English.

Ступить на территорию студенческого городка, исправить грамматическую ошибку, придумать термин, предвзято относиться к кому-либо, оценивать положительно, стимул, ограничения финансового характера, явный, расширять знания, находиться в меньшинстве, быть не каждому по вкусу, не ожидать от детей многого.

3. Say it in Russian.

To highlight the social divide –
Disadvantaged background –
To be implicitly biased –
Long-held understanding –
To undress head on –
To attain higher levels of education –
A sense of stigma –
To concentrate on tasks at hand –
Diminished sense of control over future life outcomes –
To break the cycle –
To hinder one's prospects –
Viable solution –

4. Paraphrase the following expressions.

- To attribute these differences to one's upbringing
- To stay in education beyond high school
- To face a pervasive bias
- To stem from the gap between the rich and the poor
- To be linked to elevated levels of employment
- To be inherently more tolerant
- To pay out in the education system
- To maintain the status quo
- To be on the track

- To discard the original part of their identity
- To even the playing field
- To hinder potential
- To be sensitive to discrimination

5. Insert prepositions.

To be reminded … how he felt … those early days
To work … well … somebody
To fins clear evidence … it
To be biased … the less educated
Studies … gender
To set … experiments
A link … poverty
To fall … their classmates … school
Those … low incomes
Analysis … the psychology of poverty
To score them lower … the same tasks
To do well … tests
To do badly … maths

6. Consider the following issues:

1. Do you think that there is a bias against less educated in our society?
2. What do you think about financial constraints for those who plan for a higher education?
3. Does education promote social mobility or does it preserve the class system?
4. Why are grades so important both for kids and their parents? Should we place less emphasis on exams?

UNIT XVII

The Web Has Deluded You, and Don't Pretend It Hasn't

The internet can give us the illusion of knowledge, making us think we are smarter than we really are. Fortunately, there may be a cure for our arrogance, writes psychologist Tom Stafford.

By Tom Stafford

20 October 2015

The internet has a reputation for harbouring know-it-alls. Commenters on articles, bloggers, even your old school friends on Facebook all seem to swell

with confidence in their understanding of exactly how the world works (and they are eager to share that understanding with everyone and anyone who will listen). Now, new research reveals that just having access to the world's information can induce an illusion of overconfidence in our own wisdom. Fortunately the research also shares clues as to how that overconfidence can be corrected.

Specifically, we are looking at how the internet affects our thinking about what we know, a topic psychologists call metacognition. When you know you are boasting, you are being dishonest, but you haven't made any actual error in estimating your ability. If you sincerely believe you know more than you do then you have made an error. The research suggests that an illusion of understanding may actually be incredibly common, and that this metacognitive error emerges in new ways in the age of the internet.

In a new paper, Matt Fisher of Yale University, considers a particular type of thinking known as transactive memory, which is the idea that we rely on other people and other parts of the world – books, objects – to remember things for us. If you've ever left something you needed for work by the door the night before, then you've been using transactive memory.

Part of this phenomenon is the tendency to then confuse what we really know in our personal memories, with what we have easy access to, the knowledge that is readily available in the world, or with which we are merely familiar without actually understanding in depth. It can feel like we understand how a car works, the argument goes, when in fact we are merely familiar with making it work. I press the accelerator and it goes forward, neglecting to realise that I don't really know *how* it goes forward.

Fisher and colleagues were interested in how this tendency interacts with the internet age. They asked people to provide answers to factual questions, such as “Why are there time zones?”. Half of the participants were instructed to look up the answers on the internet before answering, half were told not to look up the answers on the internet. Next, all participants were asked how confidently they could explain the answers to a second series of questions (separate, but also factual, questions such as “Why are cloudy nights warmer?” or “How is vinegar made?”).

Sure enough, people who had just been searching the internet for information were significantly more confident about their understanding of the second set of questions. Follow up studies confirmed that these people really did think the knowledge was theirs: they were still more confident if asked to indicate their response on a scale representing different levels of understanding with pictures of brain-scan activity (a ploy that was meant to emphasise that the information was there, in their heads). The confidence effect even persisted when the control group were provided answer material and the internet-search group were instructed to search for a site containing the exact same answer material. Something about actively searching for information on the internet specifically generated an illusion that the knowledge was in the participants' own heads.

If the feeling of controlling information generates overconfidence in our own wisdom, it might seem that the internet is an engine for turning us all into bores. Fortunately another study, also published this year, suggests a partial cure.

Amanda Ferguson of the University of Toronto and colleagues ran a similar study, except the set-up was in reverse: they asked participants to provide answers first and, if they didn't know them, search the internet afterwards for the correct information (in the control condition participants who said "I don't know" were let off the hook and just moved on to the next question). In this set up, people with access to the internet were actually less willing to give answers in the first place than people in the no internet condition. For these guys, access to the internet shut them up, rather than encouraging them to claim that they knew it all.

Looking more closely at their judgments, it seems the effect wasn't simply that the fact-checking had undermined their confidence. Those that knew they could fall back on the web to check the correct answer didn't report feeling less confident within themselves, yet they were still less likely to share the information and show off their knowledge.

So, putting people in a position where they could be fact-checked made them more cautious in their initial claims. The implication I draw from this is that one way of fighting a know-it-all, if you have the energy, is to let them know that they are going to be thoroughly checked on whether they are right or wrong. It might not stop them researching a long answer with the internet, but it should slow them down, and diminish the feeling that just because the internet knows some information, they do too.

It is frequently asked if the internet is changing how we think. The answer, this research shows, is that the internet is giving new fuel to the way we've always thought. It can be both a cause of overconfidence, when we mistake the boundary between what we know and what is available to us over the web, and it can be a cause of uncertainty, when we anticipate that we'll be fact-checked using the web on the claims we make. Our tendencies to overestimate what we know, to use information that is readily available as a substitute for our own knowledge, and to worry about being caught out are all constants on how we think. The internet slots into this tangled cognitive ecosystem, from which endless new forms evolve.

(Source: http://www.bbc.com/future/story)

1. Answer the following questions.

1. What does the author think about internet users?
2. What creates an illusion of overconfidence in our own wisdom?
3. What is understood by a metacognitive error?
4. What is transactive memory?
5. What type of experiment did Matt Fisher carry out?
6. What were its results?
7. What study did Amanda Ferguson run?

8. What made people less self confident?
9. What recommendation does the author give to make people more cautious in their initial claims?
10. Is the internet changing the way we think, according to the author?

2. Say it in English.

Иметь доступ к информации, совершить ошибку, путать что-то с чем-то, оценить свои способности, искать ответ в интернете, вводить в заблуждение.

3. Say it in Russian.

To swell with confidence –
To press the accelerator –
To indicate their response on the scale –
A ploy –
To generate an illusion –
Fact-checking –
To undermine one's confidence –
To make claims –
To worry about being caught out –

4. Paraphrase the following expressions.

- To harbor know-it-alls
- To induce an illusion of confidence
- To let off the hook
- To generate an illusion of confidence in our own wisdom
- To fall back on the web to check the correct answer
- To give new fuel to the way we've always thought
- Tangled cognitive ecosystem

5. Insert prepositions.

Overconfidence … our own wisdom
To make an error … estimating your ability
To remember things … us
To understand … depth
To look … the answer … the internet
To provide answers … factual questions
To search the internet … information
To turn us all … bores
To show … their knowledge
To substitute … your own knowledge

6. Compress the article to 100 words. Get ready to present your compression in class.

UNIT XVIII

How Germany Abolished Tuition Fees

Sean Coughlan

3 September 2015

More than a million young people will be enrolling in universities in England and Germany this autumn. But in financial terms their experience couldn't be more different. In Germany tuition fees have been abolished, while England has the most expensive fees in Europe, with every indication that they are likely to be allowed to nudge even higher. But what difference does it make to their universities? The Higher Education Policy Institute's director, Nick Hillman, has published an analysis – "Keeping up with the Germans?" – which looks at the impact of these contrasting funding systems.

The biggest difference is that a much smaller proportion of young people go to university in Germany. In Germany, about 27 % of young people gain higher education qualifications. In the UK, the comparable figure is 48 %. The expansion in university entry in the UK has been one of those changes that has been so big that no one really notices.

Degrees of "free"

But it would be wrong to think that the absence of fees means that the German system is starved of funding. Germany spends a slightly higher proportion of GDP on higher education, there are more academic staff in German universities and Germany is significantly ahead in spending on research and development, both from public and private sources, investing 3 % of GDP compared with 1.7 % in the UK.

Students muttering about what had happened to their £9,000 might be relieved that spending per student is about 20 % higher in the UK than in Germany. In terms of quality, there are more UK universities at the top end of international league tables. But this is because league tables do not always include research institutes which do not teach or award degrees – and Germany has a much more distinct separation between teaching and research universities.

Report author Mr Hillman says that if the elite German science institute, the Max Planck Society, were included in global rankings it would overtake both Oxford and Cambridge. The biggest difference seems to be not the outcome but the political decision about who pays. In Germany it's the taxpayer, in England the individual student gets the bill. And that poses different types of question for what happens next. Can the German university system afford to expand and produce more graduates under the current taxpayer-funded "free" model?

Value for money?

For the English system, the questions are for the students who have to pay. How much is too much? Even with a system of loans and deferred repayment, when do the costs outweigh the benefits?

Questions about value for money – and warnings about debts – have been recurrent since fees were introduced in the 1990s. They've risen in volume as fees have risen rapidly from about £1,000 to £3,000 and then £9,000.

While tuition fees have stolen the headlines, the biggest financial challenge for families might often be the low level of maintenance loans for living costs. Adding to these money worries are stories about graduates who cannot get graduate jobs or who are unemployed.

A report from the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development last month claimed that more than half of graduates were overqualified for their jobs. In contrast, the institute said that only 10 % of German graduates were in non-graduate jobs. But such anxieties about the cost of going to university tend to overlook the cost of not going to university or getting high-level vocational skills.

Figures last week from the Higher Education Statistics Agency showed unemployment for graduates had fallen back to pre-recession levels, with 2.6 % of graduates unemployed. Rising numbers of graduates did not mean more graduates without jobs. There is no breakdown of graduate and non-graduate jobs, but 86 % of graduates were satisfied with their careers. The international evidence from organisations such as the OECD has remained steadfastly in favour of the financial benefits of higher education. The economic think tank has argued that an increasing proportion of jobs will require high levels of skills and qualifications – and it rejects the idea that there is an over-production of graduates.

“Precariat”

The OECD has warned that the biggest risk is not to disgruntled graduates, but to young people with few qualifications competing for an evaporating pool of unskilled work.

In the US, the Pew research group highlighted that while graduates might have had a tougher time during the recession, the real losers were those with few qualifications. The so-called “precariat” – those trapped in low-skilled, low-pay, insecure jobs – might not get the same attention as under-employed graduates, but they are the other side of this polarisation of the workforce.

While such economic viewpoints tend to take an overview of the labour market, for individuals it's about personal ambitions and family aspiration, rather than percentages. And in the UK there has been a seemingly irresistible rise in demand for university. Despite the surge in tuition fees in England, this week's figures on higher education participation show no sign of a reduction in demand.

These latest figures show 47 % of people entering higher education in England, up from 43 % the year before. Among young women, the proportion is 51 %. It's now an expectation for a majority of young women.

Don't expect the arguments about value for money to go away, but don't expect any fall in demand for places.

(Source: http://www.bbc.com/news/education)

1. Answer the following questions.

1. How different are tuition fees in Great Britain and in Germany?
2. What proportion of young people gain higher education qualifications in Germany?
3. What proportion of young people go to university in Great Britain?
4. How is German system of higher education funded?
5. How does spending per student in Britain compare to that in Germany?
6. How do British and German universities compare in terms of quality?
7. What can restrict the expansion of the German university system?
8. What worries British students with the increase in tuition fees?
9. What is the biggest financial challenge for British students' families?
10. What proportion of British graduates are overqualified for their jobs?
11. How many German graduates are in non-graduate jobs?
12. What is the level of unemployment for graduates in the UK?
13. What facts can prove that there is no overproduction of graduates?
14. What group of young people faces the biggest risk at the job market?
15. How has the increase in tuition fees affected the demand for university in the UK?
16. How has the enrolment in English universities changed in recent years?
17. Does the British higher education system prove effective, in the author's view?

2. Say it in English.

Ввести плату за обучение, поступление в университет, цена соответствует качеству, переизбыток людей с высшим образованием.

3. Say it in Russian.

To nudge the fees even higher –
Costs outweigh the benefits –
Recurrent fees –
The low level of maintenance loans for living costs –
To be overqualified for a job –
Economic think tank –
Disgruntled graduates –
Precariat –

4. Paraphrase the following expressions.

- To be starved of funding
- Deferred repayment
- To steal the headlines

- An evaporating pool of unskilled work
- An irresistible rise in demand for university
- To get the bill

5. Insert prepositions.

To enroll … universities
The expansion … university entry
To produce more graduates … the current taxpayer-funded "free" model
To rise … volume
To be … non-graduate jobs
To be trapped … low-skilled jobs
A surge … tuition fees
A fall … demand … places

6. Consider the following issues:

1. Compare and contrast British and German higher education systems.
2. Who should subsidize university education in our country: tax-payers or students' families?
3. Is there a correlation between the quality of education and spending per student?
4. What proportion of young people should go to universities, in your view?
5. Will vocational skills be in demand on the labour market?

UNIT XIX

Asia's Parents Suffering "Education Fever"

By Yojana Sharma

22 October 2013

Zhang Yang, a bright 18-year old from a rural town in Anhui province in China was accepted to study at a prestigious traditional medicine college in Hefei. But the news was too much for his father Zhang Jiasheng.

Zhang's father was partly paralysed after he suffered a stroke two years ago and could no longer work. He feared the family, already in debt to pay for medicines, would not be able to afford his son's tuition fees.

As his son headed home to celebrate his success, Zhang Jiasheng killed himself by swallowing pesticide.

Zhang's case is an extreme. But East Asian families are spending more and more of their money on securing their children the best possible education.

In richer Asian countries such as South Korea and emerging countries like China, “education fever” is forcing families to make choices, sometimes dramatic ones, to afford the bills.

There are families selling their apartments to raise the funds to send their children to study overseas.

“Extreme spending”

Andrew Kipnis, an anthropologist at Australian National University and author of a recent book on the intense desire for education in China, says the amount spent on education is “becoming extreme”.

It is not just middle-class families. Workers also want their children to do better than themselves and see education as the only means of ensuring social mobility. Some go deep into debt.

“Families are spending less on other things. There are many cases of rural parents not buying healthcare that their doctors urge on them... Part of the reason is that they would rather spend the money on their children's education,” said Mr Kipnis.

“Parents may be forced to put off building a new house, which they might have been able to do otherwise,” said Mr Kipnis who did the bulk of his research in Zouping district in Shandong province, among both middle-class and rural households.

“It can be very intense. They often borrow from relatives. Of course some people have difficulty paying it back,” said Mr Kipnis.

A Euromonitor survey found that per capita annual disposable income in China rose by 63.3 % in the five years to 2012, yet consumer expenditure on education rose by almost 94 %.

Tiger grandparents

It's not just the parents' incomes. Educating a child has become an extended-family project. “It goes beyond tiger mothers, it also includes tiger grandmothers and grandfathers,” said Todd Maurer, an expert on education in Asia and partner at the consultancy firm, Sinica Advisors.

There is evidence of high levels of education spending in China, South Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong and Singapore. Spending is also increasing in India and Indonesia.

In South Korea, where the government believes “education obsession” is damaging society, family expenditure on education has helped push household debt to record levels.

According to the LG Economic Research Institute, 28 % of South Korean households cannot afford monthly loan repayments, and are hard pressed to live off their incomes.

A huge proportion of that income – 70 % of Korean household expenditure, according to estimates by the Samsung Economic Research

Institute in Seoul, goes toward private education, to get an educational edge over other families.

Families cut back on other household spending “across the board,” said Michael Seth, professor of Korean history at James Madison University in the US and author of a book on South Korea's education zeal. “There is less money to spend on other things like housing, retirement, or vacations.”

“Every developing country in Asia, specially China, seems to have a similar pattern,” said Prof Seth.

A highly competitive examination system and rising aspirations are often blamed.

“The Korean education system puts enormous pressure on children,” said Prof Seth. “The only way to opt out of the system is not to have children. It is so expensive to educate a child that it is undoubtedly a factor in South Korea's very low birth rate,” he said.

Cram schools

The education obsession is so all consuming that the South Korean government has unsuccessfully tried to curb it, concerned about family spending on extra-curricular lessons and cram schools for ferociously competitive exams.

While not yet at South Korean levels, China's education fever also puts pressure on family spending. A recent survey by market research company Mintel, found that nine out of 10 children from middle class families in China attended fee-charging after-school activities.

Parents believe these activities will help their children when it comes to university entry.

Children are being tutored for longer, starting younger. Where before it was for a year or two before the university entrance exam, now it can start in middle school or even primary.

Matthew Crabbe, Asia research director at Mintel, says that people in China are using the savings that might have been put aside for healthcare.

“But because the cost of education has risen and the competition for places at good universities have become so much more intense, they are investing more of their savings to make sure the child can get the grades they would need to get in.”

Massive burden

It does not stop there. Nearly 87 % of Chinese parents said they were willing to fund study abroad.

In the past an overseas education was confined to the most privileged. Now many more want foreign degrees to give them a shortcut to success.

According to the Chinese Academy of Social Sciences, a third of Chinese students studying abroad in 2010 were from working-class families.

This is a massive financial burden and parents may not realise the true costs.

According to Zhang Jianbai who runs a private school in Yunnan province, parents in small provincial cities often sell their apartments to fund their children's study overseas.

“Parents decide very early on that their children are going to go abroad and that requires quite a bit of money because [the preparation] cannot be acquired through the public education system,” said Mr Maurer.

It can include intensive English lessons, study tours to the US and significant payments for student recruitment agents.

Last year an estimated 40,000 Chinese students travelled to Hong Kong to take the US college admissions exam, the Scholastic Assessment Test (SATS), which is not offered in mainland China.

Chinese education company, New Oriental Education, organises SAT trips to Hong Kong for $1,000 (£627) on average, and parents spend up to $8,000 (£5,020) on tutoring.

Gambling on results

Once confined to affluent Beijing and Shanghai, it is an expanding market. The company expects its revenue to grow by over 40 % in China's second and third tier cities.

“Parents are surrendering their last resources to wager them on a child's future by sending them abroad,” said Lao Kaisheng, an education policy researcher at Capital Normal University in Beijing.

It means that when young people graduate there is great pressure on them to start earning.

This is particularly an issue as record numbers of students graduate, seven million this year, and an overseas degree no longer has the status it had in the past. Many graduates languish in non-graduate jobs.

But it is not easy to dampen education fever. In South Korea as in other East Asian countries, “it is deeply embedded in the culture. It's also based on reality that there is no alternative pathway to success or a good career other than a prestige degree, this was true 50 years ago, and it's just as true today”.

“As long as that's the case it's actually rational for parents to spend so much and put so much pressure on their children,” said Prof Seth.

(Source: http://www.bbc.com/news/business)

1. Answer the following questions:

1. What case is described at the beginning of the article?
2. What tendency does it exemplify?
3. Why do some families go deep into debt to secure their children good education?
4. What sacrifices do they make for this purpose?

5. How has consumer expenditure on education changed in China in recent years?
6. Why is educating a child believed to be an extended-family project?
7. What countries have shown an increase in education spending?
8. What effect has the education obsession had on the South Korean society?
9. What proportion of Korean household expenditure goes to private education?
10. What stimulates this education zeal?
11. Why do the overwhelming majority of children from middle class families in China attended fee-charging after-school activities?
12. When do they start children's tutoring?
13. Why do so many Chinese parents want their children to be educated abroad?
14. What do they do to fund study abroad?
15. What do their education expenditures include?
16. What pressure do young people experience on graduation?
17. How has the status of an overseas degree changed?
18. Why is it so difficult to reduce the education zeal in Asian countries?

2*. *Say it in English.

Собирать средства, на душу населения, низкий уровень рождаемости, всеобъемлющий, дополнительные уроки, платные внеклассные занятия, получить необходимые для поступления в университет баллы, девять из десяти детей, являться культурной традицией, не существует иной дороги к успеху.

3. Say it in Russian.

To secure their children the best possible education –
Emerging countries –
Consumer expenditure on education –
Rising aspirations –
Cram schools –
When it comes to university entry –
Mainland China –
To be confined to affluent cities –
Ferociously competitive exams –
Second and third tier cities –

4. Paraphrase the following expressions.

- To ensure social mobility
- To give somebody a shortcut to success
- To languish in non-graduate jobs
- To dampen education fever
- Annual disposable income
- An extended-family project

- To be hard pressed to live off their income
- To get an educational edge over other families
- Educational zeal
- To curb the education obsession
- To gamble on results
- To wager their last resources on a child's future

5. Insert prepositions.

A resent book … the intense desire … education
To go deeply … debt
To borrow … relatives
To rise … almost 90 %
An expert … education
Family expenditure … education
To cut … … one's household spending
To be confined … the most privileged
To opt … … the system

6. Consider the following issues:

1. Is the education zeal as strong in our country as in Asian countries?
2. Do societies benefit from it? Does it stimulate the country's development?
3. What are the downsides of such an obsession?
4. Do you think it pays to get an overseas degree?

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EDUCATION ISSUES

ПРОБЛЕМЫ ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ

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