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**GUIDELINES TO BACHELOR'S QUALIFICATION  
EXAMINATION**

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Guidelines to Bachelor's Qualification Examination: Textbook. – Uzhhorod, 2021.

The textbook «Guidelines to Bachelor's Qualification Examination» has been elaborated and compiled for the undergraduates of English Philology Department, sitting for their final bachelor's exam. The textbook contains all necessary information concerning the structure of an examination card as well as provides useful recommendations to students for the required content and level of language competences that are being checked. A special attention is paid to the schemes and samples of linguostylistic analysis of a literary text and a newspaper article rendering from Ukrainian into English as students frequently have difficulties while accomplishing these tasks. The authors also outlined plans of linguocultural topics, following which the students avoid mislead but show linguistic and interdisciplinary competences. The appendices provide materials that can be helpful while preparing for a spontaneous speech.

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## FOREWORD

The present manual is aimed at helping the fourth-year day-time students and fifth-year extra-mural students of the English philology department in preparation for their bachelor's examination.

The examination includes the following questions: 1) linguostylistic analysis of a literary text; 2) theoretical question in one of the English philology disciplines defined by the program for bachelor's exam preparation; 3) linguocultural topic that is suggested for discussion; 4) a newspaper article rendering from Ukrainian into English.

Linguostylistic analysis of a literary text is aimed at assessing the students' ability to apply their knowledge of philological disciplines (lexicology, stylistics, grammar and text linguistics) in practice. Answering the second question the student reveals their ability to theoretically substantiate the indicated linguistic phenomenon (its definition, principles of classification, different approaches to its treatment etc.) and apply it in practice, what should be confirmed by sufficient illustrative examples. The discussion of a linguocultural topic is aimed at checking the students' ability to fully and substantially reveal the topic, answer the given questions and discuss the controversial aspects. The last question of the examination card presupposes the control of the students' conversational proficiency to correctly and logically render the socio-political information in the Ukrainian newspaper article into English.

The manual is designed to help the students to prepare for the first, third and fourth questions of the examination card. The given scheme of linguostylistic analysis of a literary text points out the main structural parts of the analysis and indicates the word-combinations and synonyms to be used while analyzing the text. The sample analysis of the text shows the correct application of the scheme of text analysis on the example of an extract from the novel "Fahrenheit 451" by Ray Bradbury. The scheme of a newspaper article rendering suggests aid in discussing the main points of a newspaper article.

In the manual special emphasis is laid on linguocultural topics suggested for discussion enclosing education, political and legal system, etc. of the UK and USA. They are subdivided into several points reflecting the most important aspects of the topic worth enlightening. The appendices of the manual contain conversational texts that can be used in preparation for spontaneous discussion of the specified themes.

# THE SCHEME OF TEXT ANALYSIS

## The Horizontal Level

### 1. The source of the extract

The text (*extract, episode, passage, piece, paragraph*) under analysis (*consideration*) running under the title ... is taken from a novel (*story, short story, essay, poem, tale, play, fable*), written by a famous (*celebrated, outstanding, well-known, prominent*) writer (*poet, dramatist (playwright), essay-writer*)...

### 2. The author, his / her works, creative activity

The author is famous for...

### 3. Functional style of speech

Since the extract under consideration presents a story, it belongs to belles-lettres style, emotive prose substyle ... (Belles-lettres style includes **poetry** [*poem, verse, big poem*], **emotive prose** [*a piece of science fiction, a detective story, a love story, a psychological story*] and **drama** [*drama proper, poetical drama, comedy, tragedy*]).

### 4. The plot of the extract under analysis and its composition (if possible)

The extract concerns (*deals with, touches upon, dwells on, throws light on, describes, depicts, shows, gives coverage to*) ...

The basic theme is ...

The central (*main*) idea is disclosed through (*finds its particularization in*)...

### 5. The point of view

The extract is told from the point of view of:

- the author (the 3<sup>rd</sup> person narration) – it can be proved by the wide usage of the 3<sup>rd</sup> person subjects, expressed by nouns, pronouns in Sg/Pl...
- the main / chief character (the 1<sup>st</sup> person narration) – it can be proved by the wide usage of the 1<sup>st</sup> person subjects, expressed by nouns, pronouns in Sg/Pl...
- the minor character / the onlooker

### 6. Literary representation forms

Narration, description, dialogue / monologue, represented speech, reasoning, quotations, inner speech. The prevailing form of the utterance is ...

### 7. Character drawing

The character drawing is **direct** (when the author describes his characters, their appearances directly through words), **indirect** (the author describes his characters through their actions, attitudes to other personages, their gestures and pantomime, their speech and attitudes, his own attitude to them) and of **mixed type**.

## 8. The prevailing sphere of vocabulary and semantic field of the extract

As far as the extract under analysis deals with (*is devoted to*)... there are many words that help the author to enclose the theme (*to evoke the atmosphere, to excite a feeling (an emotion, a state of mind)*)... (Give the examples of the key words, and explain how they add to the theme exposure).

### The Vertical Level

## 9. Types of speech and lexico-grammatical level of the extract

WRITTEN	SPOKEN
1. On the phonological level	
Full forms of modal and auxiliary verbs prevail ( <i>he cannot, he has been</i> ), particle "not"	Contracted forms of modal and auxiliary verbs prevail ( <i>I'm, he's</i> ), there are abbreviations
2. On the morphological level	
The extract is characterized by past tense forms..., which are mostly used in narrations or descriptions ( <i>exemplify the answer, indicate the tense, explain what action it is used to denote</i> )	Present and future forms prevail. They are mostly used in conversations or dialogues... ( <i>analyze the use of articles as to their meaning, non-finite forms of the verb, modals and moods</i> )
3. On the syntactic level	
Mostly long, compound, complex and composite sentences are used. They prevail in narrations and descriptions (examples)	The extract is characterized by the wide use of short, simple, even elliptical sentences. They are mostly used in conversations and dialogues (examples)
4. On the lexical level	
There are many bookish, foreign literary words (mostly scientific terms and also words which are not understandable to uneducated people) – tell who and why uses these words: the characters, the author. Give examples.	Most of the words are neutral, colloquial or slangy. There are phrasal verbs and informal phrases. Give examples.

**10. Stylistic level of the extract: the analysis of SDs and EMs on phonetic, lexical and syntactical levels, realizing imagery in the extract.**

**11. Esthetic function of a text: the author's message and the effect a text produces on a reader.**

## The Sample

### An extract from Ray Bradbury's novel "Fahrenheit 451"

*The autumn leaves blew over the moonlit pavement in such a way as to make the girl who was moving there seem fixed to a sliding walk, letting the motion of the wind and the leaves carry her forward. Her head was half bent to watch her shoes stir the circling leaves. Her face was slender and milk-white, and in it was a kind of gentle hunger that touched over everything with tireless curiosity. It was a look, almost, of pale surprise; the dark eyes were so fixed to the world that no move escaped them. Her dress was white and it whispered. He almost thought he heard the motion of her hands as she walked, and the infinitely small sound now, the white stir of her face turning when she discovered she was a moment away from a man who stood in the middle of the pavement waiting.*

*The trees overhead made a great sound of letting down their dry rain. The girl stopped and looked as if she might pull back in surprise, but instead stood regarding Montag with eyes so dark and shining and alive, that he felt he had said something quite wonderful. But he knew his mouth had only moved to say hello, and then when she seemed hypnotized by the salamander on his arm and the phoenix-disc on his chest, he spoke again.*

*"Of course," he said, "you're a new neighbour, aren't you?"*

*"And you must be"-she raised her eyes from his professional symbols-"the fireman." Her voice trailed off.*

*"How oddly you say that."*

*"I'd-I'd have known it with my eyes shut," she said, slowly.*

*"What-the smell of kerosene? My wife always complains," he laughed. "You never wash it off completely."*

*"No, you don't," she said, in awe.*

*They walked in the warm-cool blowing night on the silvered pavement and there was the faintest breath of fresh apricots and strawberries in the air, and he looked around and realized this was quite impossible, so late in the year.*

*There was only the girl walking with him now, her face bright as snow in the moonlight, and he knew she was working his questions around, seeking the best answers she could possibly give.*

### The sample example of a linguostylistic analysis of the extract:

#### ***The horizontal level***

The extract under analysis is taken from the novel "Fahrenheit 451" written by a famous American writer Ray Bradbury.

Ray Douglas Bradbury (1920 – 2012) is an American fantasy, science fiction, horror and mystery fiction writer. Best known for his dystopian novel "Fahrenheit 451" and the science fiction and horror stories gathered together as "The Martian Chronicles" and "The Illustrated Man", Bradbury was one of the most celebrated 20th-century American writers. Many of Bradbury's works have been adapted into comic books, television shows, and films.

"Fahrenheit 451" presents a future American society where books are outlawed and "firemen" burn any that are found. The title refers to the temperature at which book paper catches fire and burns itself. The novel has been the subject of interpretations primarily

focusing on the historical role of book burning. Bradbury said: "I wrote this book at a time when I was worried about the way things were going in this country. Too many people were afraid of their shadows; there was a threat of book burning. Many books were being taken off the shelves. I wanted to do some sort of story where I could comment on what would happen to a country if we let ourselves go too far in this direction, where then all thinking stops, and the dragon swallows his tail, and we sort of vanish into a limbo and we destroy ourselves by this sort of action". Bradbury described himself as a "preventor of futures, not predictor of them". He did not believe that book burning was an inevitable part of the future, he wanted to warn against it.

Since the extract under consideration presents a story, it belongs to belles-lettres style, emotive prose substyle, fantasy genre.

The extract is an introduction of the first part of the novel, running under the title "The Hearth and the Salamander" and it depicts the meeting of two main characters of the novel: a fireman Guy Montag, employed to burn the property of those who read outlawed books, and a teenage girl Clarisse McClellan. One fall night while returning from work, he meets his new neighbour girl, whose free-thinking ideals and liberating spirit cause him to question his life and his own perceived happiness. The extract presents a magic description of personages first meeting, shrouded in colours, smells and sounds of autumn night. The main idea is disclosed through a range of semantically connected images representing personages, nature and night: *e.g. her face was slender and milk-white; her face bright as snow in the moonlight; her dress was white; pale surprise; the white stir of her face; the moonlit pavement; the silvered pavement; the circling leaves; the warm-cool blowing night; dry rain.*

The extract is told from the point of view of the author, 3<sup>rd</sup> person narration, which can be proved by a frequent usage of 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular pronouns: *e.g. He almost thought he heard the motion of her hands as she walked, and the infinitely small sound now, the white stir of her face turning when she discovered she was a moment away from a man who stood in the middle of the pavement waiting.*

The prevailing form of the utterance is a description; the author adds the details that help a reader visualize the characters, their appearance and events in the mind's eye. The character drawing is predominantly direct: *e. g. Her face was slender and milk-white, and in it was a kind of gentle hunger that touched over everything with tireless curiosity. It was a look, almost, of pale surprise; the dark eyes were so fixed to the world that no move escaped them. Her dress was white and it whispered. He almost thought he heard the motion of her hands as she walked, and the infinitely small sound now, the white stir of her face turning when she discovered she was a moment away from a man who stood in the middle of the pavement waiting.*

The instances of dialogic speech are also found, for example:

*"Of course," he said, "you're a new neighbour, aren't you?"*

*"And you must be"-she raised her eyes from his professional symbols-"the fireman." Her voice trailed off.*

As far as the extract under analysis deals with the description of main characters who meet late at night, their feelings and emotions are disclosed through the atmosphere of autumn nature, which serves the background of the plot, but contributes a lot to visualization and sensual perception. Thus, the lexical units designating **colour** (e.g. *white, pale, silver, bright as snow, shining, moonlit and dark*), **sound** (e.g. *whisper, small sound, he heard motion of her hands as she walked, a great sound of dry rain*), **parts of a human body** (*her head was half bent, her face was slender, the dark eyes, motion of her hands, his mouth, his arm, his chest, et al*) and **nature** (*autumn leaves, the circling leaves, the trees, the wind, dry rain, the warm cool blowing night, the moonlight*) hold a special focus, being major elements of plot integration.

### The vertical level

WRITTEN TYPE OF SPEECH	SPOKEN TYPE OF SPEECH
1. On the phonological level	
Full forms of modal and auxiliary verbs prevail: <i>e.g. It was a look; as if she might pull back in surprise.</i>	Contracted forms of modal and auxiliary verbs prevail: <i>e.g. "you're a new neighbour, aren't you?"; "I'd-I'd have known it with my eyes shut"</i>
2. On the morphological level	
The extract is characterized by past simple tense form, which is mostly used in narrations or descriptions: <i>e.g. The autumn leaves blew over the moonlit pavement; her head was half bent; her dress was white; they walked in the warm-cool blowing night.</i>	Present forms prevail. They are mostly used in a dialogue: <i>e.g. How oddly you say that. You never wash it off completely.</i>
3. On the syntactic level	
<p>Mostly long, compound, complex and composite sentences are used. They prevail in narrations and descriptions: <i>e.g. The autumn leaves blew over the moonlit pavement in such a way as to make the girl who was moving there seem fixed to a sliding walk, letting the motion of the wind and the leaves carry her forward.</i></p> <p><i>He almost thought he heard the motion of her hands as she walked, and the infinitely small sound now, the white stir of her face turning when she discovered she was a moment away from a man who stood in the middle of the pavement waiting.</i></p>	<p>The extract is characterized by the wide use of short, simple, even elliptical sentences: <i>e.g. "And you must be"-she raised her eyes from his professional symbols-"the fireman." Her voice trailed off.</i></p> <p><i>"How oddly you say that."</i></p> <p><i>"I'd-I'd have known it with my eyes shut," she said, slowly.</i></p> <p><i>"What-the smell of kerosene? My wife always complains," he laughed. "You never wash it off completely."</i></p>
4. On the lexical level	
There are many bookish, common literary and poetic words: <i>e.g. milk-white face, pale surprise, silvered pavement, moonlit pavement, tireless curiosity, gentle hunger, etc.</i>	Most of the words are neutral and common colloquial.



The imagery of the extract under analysis is quite rich and complex, being realized on the phonetic, lexical and syntactic levels. The foregrounding technique of convergence of different level SDs is successfully employed to create an image of Clarisse in a magic night atmosphere:

Phonetic SDs:

Alliteration and assonance are used to produce an effect of sound aimed at creating harmony (euphony): e.g. *Her dress **was white** and it **whispered*** (alliteration); *...her shoes stir the **circling leaves*** (assonance)

Lexical SDs:

Hyperbole: e.g. *the dark eyes were so fixed to the world that no move escaped them.*

... there was the faintest breath of fresh apricots and strawberries in the air.

Meiosis: e.g. *Her head was half bent to watch her shoes stir the circling leaves.*

Metonymy: e.g. *It was a look, almost, of pale surprise.*

Metaphor (simple, cognitive based on personification): e.g. *Her dress was white and it whispered. ...it was a kind of gentle hunger that touched over everything with tireless curiosity. ... letting the motion of the wind and the leaves carry her forward.*

Epithets (unassociated, simple and of-phrase): e.g. *Her face was slender and milk-white...; the white stir of her face; moonlit pavement; silvered pavement, etc.*

Metaphoric epithets based on personification: e.g. *pale surprise; tireless curiosity.*

Simile: e.g. *The girl stopped and looked as if she might pull back in surprise. ... her face bright as snow in the moonlight.*

Oxymoron: e.g. *a kind of gentle hunger; dry rain; warm-cooling blowing night.*

Syntactical SDs:

Inversion, polysyndeton, gradation: e.g. *but instead stood regarding Montag with eyes so dark and shining and alive, that he felt he had said something quite wonderful.*

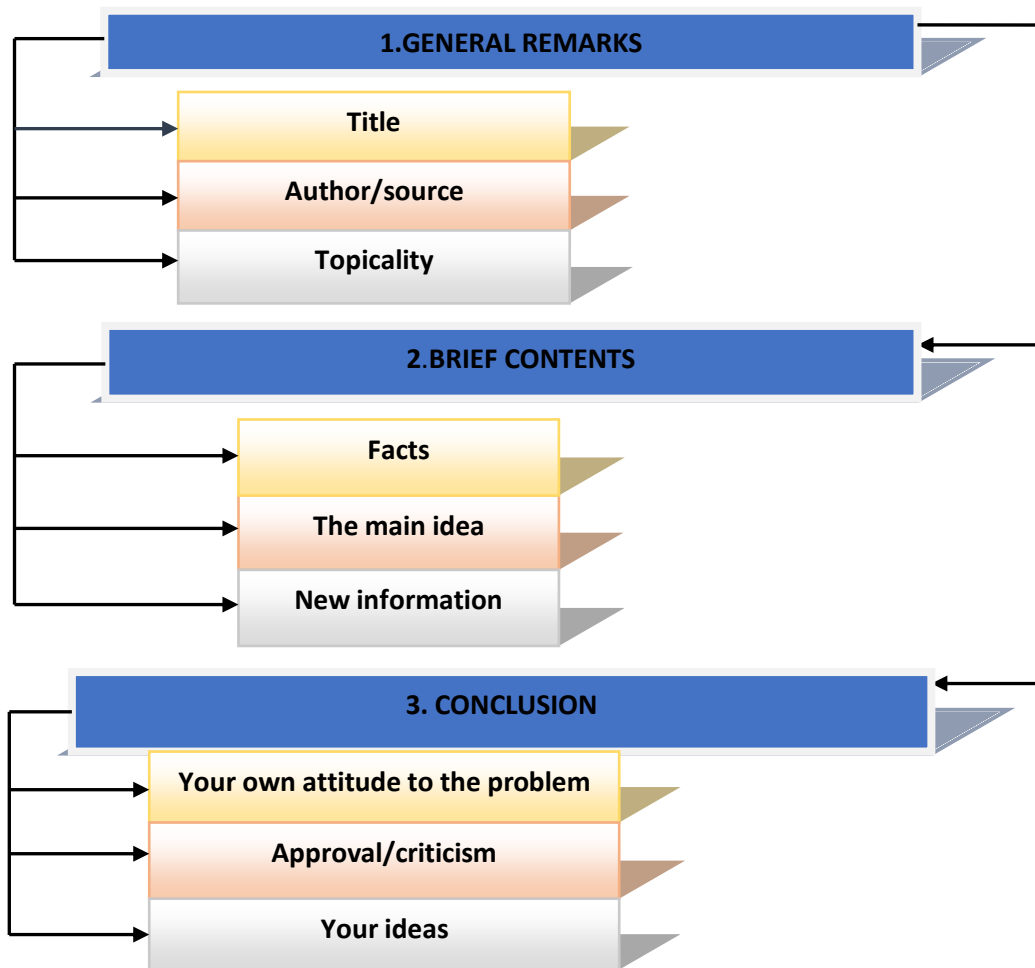
Parallel construction: e.g. *He almost thought he heard the motion of her hands as she walked, and the infinitely small sound now, the white stir of her face turning...*

Detachment: e.g. *There was only the girl walking with him now, her face bright as snow in the moonlight, and he knew she was working his questions around...*

In my opinion, the author's purport is to involve the reader into the worlds of his personages, in particular to depict Clarisse an ardent lover of life and nature. Powered by an insatiable curiosity she then impels Montag toward a painful but necessary self-examination, revealing to him the absence of love, pleasure and contentment in his life.

This chart will help you in discussing the main points of a newspaper article.

### NEWSPAPER ARTICLE (oral presentation)



While presenting the news one may employ the following clichés:

#### 1. The source of the news

<b>1. - The article under review/ - The matter under discussion</b>	Was published/printed/ put out in.../	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Newspaper/paper</li> <li>- Magazine/journal/periodical</li> <li>- A weekly/monthly</li> </ul>
	Appeared in...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Today's issue/ in the issue №... of...</li> </ul>

**2. - It was written by...**

**- The author of the matter is...**

**-The publication date of the article is...**

editor/editor – in – chief/ own correspondent/non-staff correspondent/reporter/ a group of authors. They are...

*e.g. The article under review was published in the “New York Times in its issue №.... Of June, 2012/The matter under discussion appeared in ... dated from June, 8, 2012*

## 2. The headline

**The headline**

- The headline of the article is...
- It is headlined/entitled
- The article is running under the headline/subhead/heading...
- The article is under big/splash/drop headline

## 3. The main idea/key-note

**The main idea**

(The subject-matter of the text and its controlling idea)

- The main idea/key-note/purpose of the article is...
- The purpose of the article / author is to give the reader some information on...
- The aim of the article / author is to provide the reader with some information about.../ to provide the reader with some material / data on.../to inform about.../to compare / determine...;
- The article is devoted to/deals with/ touches upon/
- The article provides the readers with the information on.../gives some information on...
- The basic subject-matter of the script is...
- The article addresses the problem of.../ raises/brings up the problem.../describes the situation.../ assesses the situation...
- The article informs us about... / comments on...
- The headline of the article corresponds to the topic.

#### 4. The contents (a short summary of 5 or 6 sentences)

It presents the plot of the text (on a large scale) and the author's point of view on the problems expressed explicitly or implicitly + important FACTS, NAMES, FIGURES.

<p><b>At the beginning of the article the author</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- States/ depicts/ mentions/recalls/ introduces/ interprets</li> <li>- dwells on/touches upon/calls attention to/</li> <li>- stresses/points out/emphasizes /informs the readers of...enumerates /cites/evaluates</li> <li>- accuses/blames/condemns/criticizes</li> <li>- mocks/ridicules/praises</li> <li>- gives a summary of/ gives a detailed account of/ generalizes about/makes a few critical remarks on/keeps us well-informed of...</li> <li>- The article is written in the form of the monologue, from the first / third person narration.</li> <li>- The author starts by telling the reader that... (writes, states, stresses, depicts, says, informs, underlines, confirms, emphasizes, puts an accent on, accepts / denies the fact, reports, resorts to, hints on, inclines to, points out... and so on)</li> </ul>
<p><b>According to the text/ Then/Next/</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Says</li> <li>- passes on to say that</li> <li>- gives a thorough description of</li> <li>- gives a detailed analysis of...</li> <li>- refers to.../the reference is made...</li> </ul> <p><i>The article can be divided into some parts.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The first part deals with...</li> <li>- The second covers the events...</li> <li>- The third touches upon the problem of...</li> <li>- The fourth part includes some interviews, dialogues, pictures, reviews, references, quotations, figures.</li> </ul>
<p><b>At the end of the report/article</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- draws viewers'/readers' attention to...</li> <li>- makes a conclusion/ draws the conclusion from/ comes to the conclusion that/</li> <li>- emphasizes/concludes/summarises</li> </ul>

#### 5. Your impression of the news/article

<p>-To my mind/ as far as I am concerned /In my opinion/From my point of view</p> <p>-I think/believe/suppose/guess</p>	<p>The news/ the article/the announcement</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- is attention-grabbing/interesting/boring/depressing/completely irrelevant/topical/</li> <li>- of great importance/of great value/of no value/worth</li> </ul>
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-as the title suggests...

-I found...

generally/frankly/roughly/  
speaking...

-what struck me when I read/heard...

-what impresses the most

-I'm under the impression that

-

discussing

- exposes/discloses

- deals in detail with/

produces an impression of...

-There are several solutions of the  
problem ....

It is expected (observed) that ....

## 6. Your personal view on the problem/topic/idea

Your personal view on the problem/topic/idea

-I share the author's opinion on.../I don't share the author's viewpoint

-I agree/don't quite agree/disagree with the author...

-I think special attention should be paid to...

-It is reported (known, demonstrated) that .../It appears (seems, proves) that .../It is likely (certain, sure) ....

-It is possible to obtain .../it is important to verify .../It is necessary to introduce .../It is impossible to account for .../It should be remembered (noted, mentioned)....

-The message of the writer is clear to understand...

-I see the problem in a different way..

## RENDERING THE ARTICLES. SAMPLE

### Ukrainian Newspaper Article Rendering

#### НА ПОРОЗІ ШТУЧНОГО ІНТЕЛЕКТУ: НЕ СТАНЬТЕ ЗАЙВИМИ ЛЮДЬМИ

Юваль Ной Харарі, промова у Давосі, 24.01.2020 (онлайн версія газети BBC)

У третій декаді XXI сторіччя людство зіткнулося з такою безліччю проблем і питань, що тепер на них складно навіть сфокусуватися. Я хочу звернути увагу на три проблеми, які загрожують самому виживанню нашого виду. Це ядерна війна, екологічний колапс і технологічний прорив. Ядерна війна й екологічний колапс – вже знайомі нам загрози, тому дозвольте пояснити, в чому полягає менш відома нам загроза технологічного прориву.

Ми стільки чуємо про користь технологій майбутнього, і це, звичайно, так, але вони також можуть розбалансувати людське суспільство і змінити сам сенс людського життя різними способами — від створення світового зайвого класу людей до виникнення колоніалізму даних і цифрової диктатури.

#### ЗАЙВИЙ КЛАС ЛЮДЕЙ

Спочатку ми можемо зіткнутися з потрясінням на соціальному й економічному рівнях. Автоматизація скоро знищить мільйони робочих місць, і хоч нові робочі місця буде створено, невідомо, чи зможуть люди здобути потрібні знання та навички вчасно. Якщо раніше люди боролися з експлуатацією, то в XXI сторіччі ми будемо по-справжньому боротися з непотрібністю. І набагато гірше бути непотрібним, ніж експлуатованим. Переможені у цій боротьбі поповнять ряди зайвого класу. Звісно, ці люди будуть зайвими не в очах сім'ї та друзів, а з погляду економічної та політичної системи.

#### НЕРІВНІСТЬ КРАЇН І КОЛОНІЇ ДАНИХ

Революція штучного інтелекту може стати причиною безпрецедентної нерівності не лише між класами, а й між країнами. Людство вже є посеред гонки озброєнь у галузі штучного інтелекту, в якій провідні позиції займають США і Китай, а більшість країн плентається далеко позаду. Якщо ми не вживатимемо заходів, щоб розподілити користь і могутність штучного інтелекту між усіма нами, він принесе божевільне багатство кільком технологічним центрам, а інші країни збанкрутують і перетворяться на експлуатовані колонії даних. Йдеться не про сценарій, що зійшов зі сторінок наукової фантастики, де роботи бунтують проти людей. Йдеться про набагато примітивніший штучний інтелект, але якого досить, щоб порушити світову рівновагу. Просто подумайте, що станеться з політикою вашої країни, якщо через 20 років хтось у Сан-Франциско або Пекіні знатиме про

всю медичну й особисту історію кожного політика, судді та журналіста у вашій країні, зокрема всі любовні пригоди, психологічні слабкості та корупційні дії.

Чи буде така країна незалежною чи вона перетвориться на колонію даних?

Коли у вас є достатньо даних, вам вже не треба відправляти кудись солдатів, аби контролювати країну.

#### ФІЛОСОФСЬКА КРИЗА ТА ВТРАТА ПОЧУТТІВ

У прийдешні декади технології можуть змінити не лише економіку, політику, філософію, але і біологію. Штучний інтелект та біотехнології наблизять нас до можливостей, на які здатен тільки Бог, і ми навіть зможемо створювати абсолютно нові форми життя. Результатом цієї трансформації може бути створення раси надзвичайно розумних та високо дисциплінованих людей, позбавлених емпатії, креативності та духовної глибини.

Для того, щоб врятувати світ, ми повинні об'єднатися, бо в решті-решт тільки пацюки залишаться на планеті Земля. Нам потрібно об'єднати зусилля на міжнародному рівні. Всі екзистенційні проблеми, з якими ми стикаємось, є глобальними проблемами, що вимагають спільних рішень. Люди повинні бути не тільки націоналістами, але і глобалістами і піклуватися про нашу планету, як про одне ціле.

**The article under consideration** entitled "On the eve of artificial intelligence: Don't become superfluous people" was published in the online-version of the newspaper "BBC". It was written by the editorial page editor Yuval Harari. The publication date of the given editorial is January 24 2020.

The headline corresponds to the topic, since it addresses negative impact of artificial intelligence on society. The main idea of the article is to inform the reader about different problems which artificial intelligence may cause.

The article may be divided into several parts. At the beginning of the article the author mentions that there are three main problems that threaten the very survival of our species. This is a nuclear war, environmental collapse and a technological breakthrough. We hear so much about the benefits of future technologies, and this is true, of course, but they can also unbalance human society and change the very meaning of human life in various ways.

The second part provides us with the information about a useless class of people. Automation will soon destroy millions of jobs, making a lot of people useless. If in the previous century people used to struggle with exploitation, then in the twenty first century we will really fight against uselessness. And it is much worse to be unnecessary than exploited.

The third part touches upon the problem of the inequality of the countries in the near future and digital dictatorship. The artificial intelligence revolution could cause

unprecedented inequality not only between classes, but also between countries. Countries that industrialize faster will be able to conquer and exploit other countries. Also, the world will be under total control - the higher your position in the hierarchy, the more you are watched. Therefore, all of humanity, including the elite, is interested in preventing the emergence of such digital dictatorships.

The fourth part includes information about philosophical crisis and loss of feelings and emotions. In the coming decades, technology can change not only economics, politics, and philosophy, but also biology. Artificial intelligence and biotechnologies will give us God-like capabilities, and we will even be able to create completely new forms of life. The result may be a race of highly intelligent and highly disciplined people who lack empathy, creativity, and spiritual depth.

At the end of the report he makes a conclusion that, we must begin to act together, or only rats will survive. All we need is international cooperation. All three existential problems that we face are global problems that require joint solutions. People should be not only nationalists but also globalists and take care of our planet as a whole.

To my mind the article is very informative and provides us with information for reflection. I share the authors opinion, that if we continue to act in this way, our existence will come to an end. I believe that the progress we have made over thousands of years cannot be so easily destroyed by the uprising of the machines, or nuclear war. We have to work together to preserve our race and create even better society in the future.



## LINGUO-CULTURAL TOPICS SUGGESTED FOR DISCUSSION

### 1. Overcoming Stereotypes. The English character

Say why people often have the same reaction to a “type” of a person; how these associations are formed; if they are necessarily true; if these generalizations can become dangerous stereotypes. Cover the points:

- the definition of the word “stereotype”;
- examples of provocative stereotypes;
- how stereotypes affect people’s lives.

Describe the national character of the English. Make the following points clear:

- the English as a nation;
- Englishmen as individuals;
- the English sense of humour.

Do you consider the English, Americans and Ukrainian people have much in common?

### 2. Overcoming Stereotypes. The Ukrainian character.

Say why people often have the same reaction to a “type” of a person; how these associations are formed; if they are necessarily true; if these generalizations can become dangerous stereotypes. Cover the points:

- the definition of the word “stereotype”;
- examples of provocative stereotypes;
- how stereotypes affect people’s lives.

Characterize the Ukrainians in the past and nowadays. Include the points:

- Ukrainian mentality;
- Ukrainian character;
- how the Ukrainians see themselves.

Do you consider the English, Americans and Ukrainian people have much in common?

### 3. Overcoming Stereotypes. The American character.

Say why people often have the same reaction to a “type” of a person; how these associations are formed; if they are necessarily true; if these generalizations can become dangerous stereotypes. Cover the points:

- the definition of the word “stereotype”;
- examples of provocative stereotypes;
- how stereotypes affect people’s lives.

What is your attitude to Americans? Dwell on:

- the American character;
- the “Anglo-Saxon” Americans;
- the Native Americans about Europeans.

Do you consider the English, Americans and Ukrainian people have much in common?

### 4. Environmental protection.

Speak on the major environmental problems confronting the world nowadays. What steps are being taken by the international community to prevent environmental pollution?

Cover the points:

- protection of plant and animal species from becoming extinct;
- How successful, in your opinion, are scientists in controlling climate change?

- What can big cities do to improve air quality?
- your personal contribution into protection of environment;
- the major environmental problems confronting Ukraine;
- compare Ukraine's and other countries' environmental policies;
- Ukraine's worst ever natural or man-made disaster;

Which point of view do you agree with? – *Some people think that human race will never disappear. Other people believe that humankind is doomed to extinction.*

## 5. Travelling.

Speak on different kinds of travel you know. Why do people travel? What is your favourite mode of travel? Would you rather go to a foreign country or travel within your own country?

Cover the points:

- describe the most interesting spot you have ever visited;
- describe your best and your worst trip;
- the most important tourist destinations in Ukraine; How important is tourism for our country?
- space tourism; Would you like to travel in space?
- the causes of emigration; What should be done with illegal immigrants entering the country?
- explain the notion of globalization; What is the future of globalization?

Agree or disagree with the statements: *The world is a book, and those who do not travel read only a page.* **Saint Augustine** *Men who travel should leave their prejudices at home.* **Frederick Douglas**

## 6. Health Care.

Speak on the main features of the system of Health Care in Ukraine and compare it with that of Great Britain.

Cover the points:

- What do you think of the reform of health care system in Ukraine?
- Specify on the advantages and disadvantages of the system of insurance medicine.
- What comes to mind when you hear the word doctor?
- What do you think are the worst aspects of being a doctor?
- Where do you think the world's best doctors are?
- Who are the healthiest people in the world and why are they so healthy?

## 7. The System of Secondary Education in Britain.

Speak on the main types of secondary educational establishments in Great Britain. Remember to include the next:

- public schools in GB;
- the advantages and disadvantages of public schools in GB;
- state schools in GB;
- the system of examinations in GB;
- compare the system of secondary education in Great Britain with the one in Ukraine.

## **8. The System of Secondary Education in the USA.**

Speak on the advantages and disadvantages of American secondary education. Cover the points:

- public schools in the USA;
- private schools in the USA;
- compulsory subjects and extra-curricular activities;
- compare the system of secondary education in the USA with the one in Ukraine.

## **9. The System of Secondary Education in Ukraine.**

Describe the system of secondary education in Ukraine. Include the points:

- three stages of secondary education;
- different types of school in Ukraine;
- tell what you know about bringing up children in Ukraine;
- say if you agree that “the school is the answer to all problems”, why yes/why not;
- what you like and dislike about the secondary education in our country;
- differences and similarities between the systems of education in Ukraine, GB and the USA.

## **10. The System of Higher Education in Great Britain.**

Dwell on such main points of higher education in Great Britain:

- teaching and learning in universities of Great Britain (tuition fee, academic year, teaching methods);
- the University of Oxford (the difference between colleges and the university, methods of instruction and exams);
- the history of the University of Oxford;
- Cambridge University;
- what you like and dislike about the higher education in Great Britain.

## **11. The System of Higher Education in the USA.**

Enlarge upon such main points of higher education in the USA:

- different types of colleges and Universities in the USA;
- world famous American higher educational institutions;
- the structure of the American graduate school;
- compare American and Ukrainian Universities.

## **12. The System of Higher Education in Ukraine.**

Enlarge upon such main points of higher education in Ukraine:

- teaching and learning in Ukrainian universities (entrance examinations, tuition fee, academic year, teaching methods);
- famous Ukrainian universities;
- Uzhhorod National University;
- what you like and dislike about the higher education in Ukraine.

## **13. What makes a good teacher. Reflecting the teaching experience.**

Reflect on your recent teaching experience and dwell on the following points:

- in what classes (junior / senior) you conducted lessons;
- describe your efforts in establishing contact with pupils;

- methods of teaching English that you used at your English classes;
- extra-curriculum activities that you conducted at school;
- what qualities should a good teacher possess;
- what you like and dislike about teaching profession.

#### **14. Recent teaching experience: the importance of teaching literature at school.**

Reflect on your recent teaching experience and dwell on the following points:

- why is it necessary to teach literature in general and English literature in particular at school ;
- what methods would you recommend to use in teaching English literature;
- is teaching English literature widespread in our schools;
- the works of what English and American writers would you recommend to study at school;
- give a short sketch of an English lesson dealing with literature.

#### **15. Recent teaching experience: new methods of teaching grammar.**

Reflect on your recent teaching experience and dwell on the following points:

- Why is it necessary to teach English grammar at school?
- What methods would you recommend to use in teaching English grammar?
- What is your impression of teaching English grammar at our schools? Are grammar lessons usually effective?
- What grammar topics are pupils usually fond of?
- Give a short sketch of an English lesson dealing with grammar.

#### **16. The American Legal System. Court System in the USA.**

Describe the system of law-making in the USA. Speak on the main peculiarities of Court System in the USA.

Cover the points:

- the role of Congress in law-making;
- the role of the President in law-making;
- types of the USA Courts;
- state and federal jurisdictions of these courts;
- types of crimes most often committed in the USA.

#### **17. The Legal System in Britain. Court System in the UK.**

Speak on the main peculiarities of Legal System in the UK. Speak on the main peculiarities of Court System in the UK.

Cover the points:

- types of British law;
- the basic principle of law in Britain;
- courts in England;
- the problems in the UK court system;
- the criminal situation in the country and crime prevention.

#### **18. The Ukrainian Legal System.**

Dwell on the main peculiarities of the Ukrainian Legal System:

- fields of Ukrainian Law;

- hierarchy of Ukrainian Law;
- types of courts and their jurisdiction;
- people in the Ukrainian Court.

### **19. Government and Political System in the USA.**

Dwell on three main branches of American Government System:

- the functions of American President;
- the structure of American Congress:
  - a) the House of Representatives;
  - b) the Senate;
- the Judicial Branch of American Government:
  - a) its three levels;
  - b) the role of the Supreme Court and its nine justices.

### **20. The Constitution of the USA. Elections and Political Parties in the USA.**

Dwell on the Constitution of the USA:

- the history of the US Constitution;
- the doctrine on American Constitution;
- the main articles and amendments to the Constitution.

Describe the system of election and Political Parties in the USA:

- federal and state electoral law;
- the Democratic Party and the Republican Party of the USA.

### **21. The Ukrainian Government and Political System.**

Speak on the branches of the Ukrainian Political System:

- the executive branch;
- the legislative branch;
- the judicial branch.

### **22. The Ukrainian Constitution and Party System.**

Dwell on the Constitution of Ukraine:

- the adoption of the Ukrainian Constitution;
- its main articles.

Describe the Ukrainian Party System:

- a multi-party system of Ukraine;
- the parliamentary election.

### **23. The Executive and Legislative Branches of the British Government System.**

Enlarge on the executive branch of the British Political System:

- the role and place of the Monarch in the British Political System;
- functions of the Sovereign;
- the Prime Minister and Cabinet of Ministers.

Speak on British Legislature:

- the House of Commons;
- the House of Lords;
- Parliamentary Procedure in the UK:
  - a) Parliamentary sessions, debates and their participants;
  - b) the role of Opposition in British Parliament.

## **24. The British Theatre. Theatre in London.**

Enlarge upon the main features of British Theatre:

- theatre as an important part in the entertainment of the average Englishman;
- different theatre genres;
- the most famous London theatres;
- the Royal Shakespeare Theatre;
- England's Elizabethan Theatre.

## **25. The Fine Arts. The Still Life.**

Agree or disagree with the statement: "Art is everything that surrounds us". Give your arguments. Include the points:

- the definition of art;
- the artist's responsibility;
- how to appreciate works of art.

Speak on still life painting. Include the following points:

- development in art history, genres;
- give your appreciation of a still-life (subject, composition and drawing; colouring, light and shade effects).

## **26. The Fine Arts. The Landscape Painting.**

Speak on landscape painting. Include the following points:

- What is a landscape?
- its development in art history;
- its genres.

Give your appreciation of a landscape. Make the following points clear:

- subject, composition and drawing;
- colouring, light and shade effects;
- appreciation, judgement and personal impressions.

## **27. The Fine Arts. The Portrait Painting.**

Speak on portrait painting. Include the following points:

- What is a portrait?
- its development in art history;
- its genres.

Give your appreciation of a portrait. Make the following points clear:

- subject, composition and drawing;
- colouring, light and shade effects;
- appreciation, judgement and personal impressions.

## **28. The Fine Arts. The Genre Painting.**

Speak on genre painting. Include the following points:

- What is genre painting?
- its development in art history;
- its genres.

Give your appreciation of a genre painting. Make the following points clear:

- subject, composition and drawing;
- colouring, light and shade effects;

- appreciation, judgement and personal impressions.

### **29. The English School of Painting.**

Speak on the British national school of painting. Make the following points clear:

- its development in art history;
- its genres;
- What are the superb heights of British national school of painting?

Who is your favourite British painter? Make the following points clear:

- What is he famous for?
- his life and artistic career.

### **30. Mass Media in Great Britain.**

Dwell on different kinds of mass media in Great Britain:

- the most popular newspapers in Britain;
- television and radio;
- the role of internet in the life of Englishmen.

### **31. Mass Media in the USA.**

Dwell on different kinds of mass media in the USA:

- the most popular newspapers in the USA;
- television and radio;
- the role of internet in the life of Americans.

### **32. Mass Media in Ukraine.**

Dwell on different kinds of mass media in Ukraine:

- the most popular newspapers in Ukraine;
- television and radio;
- the role of internet in the life of Ukrainians.

### **33. Cinema as an excellent vehicle of culture.**

Pay attention to the items:

- the cinema as a part of the modern way of life;
- the impact of cinema on people;
- the major centres of the film industry;
- movie genres; the genres you prefer and why;
- what role plays cinema in your life;
- your favourite English/American Actor.

### **34. Film review writing.**

Give a review of the movie you have recently seen. Include the following:

- give the title of the film; explain why you have chosen to watch the film.
- give information on the plot, relationships between characters, romance, amusing dialogue / special effects.
- speak on the cast, good acting, special effects, the soundtrack.
- specify a social or ethical problem to think about, reasons why you liked it.
- say whether you would recommend the film or not.

## APPENDICES

### EDUCATION IN UKRAINE

Education is rooted in very old traditions reaching back to the pagan times... In the 16th -18th centuries, an increasing number of schools were set up by national religious-educational communities - "Brotherhoods", for instance, in Lviv (1585), in Kyiv (1615), in Lutsk (1620). The Greek-Slavonic-Latin Collegium, Ukraine's first institution of higher learning, was founded in Ostroh in 1576. At the turn of the 18th century the level of public literacy placed Ukraine ahead of a number of Western and Eastern European countries.

The first universities appeared in Kharkiv (1805), Kyiv (1834) and Odesa (1865). Later, "specialized institutes" were opened for training, industrial, railroad engineers, agronomists, physicians and specialists in other fields.

Present-day independent Ukraine has inherited a rather developed system of education from the previous regime, which answers the standards of the developed countries.

General secondary education in Ukraine is used to be free but compulsory.

Despite today's hardships resulting in the economic crisis, a programme of educational reforms is aimed at integrating the national schooling system into the world's educational medium, at satisfying the people's national-cultural needs and protecting their rights, irrespective of their ethnic origin.

The educational system includes over 23,000 so-called pre-school educational establishments where some 2,000,000 children are taught their mother tongue.

The basic link in the chain of public education in Ukraine is the "general education (grade) school", with 21,350 schools and a student body of 6.9 million. Each has three stages: primary, basic and senior. Nowadays there is a new type of schools in Ukraine: gymnasia/gymnasiums (121), and lycees (124). Over 50 private schools have appeared recently.

There are 1,176 vocational training schools providing almost 800 qualifications. In most of them (69%) the working students are also taught the complete curriculum of secondary education.

Post-secondary education is provided by 754 institutions of what is known as the 1st and 2nd Level of Accreditation, for example, technical schools and colleges training young specialists, and by 161 institutions of higher learning, such as universities, academies, conservatories, institutes. There are 14 classical and 45 technological and branch universities academies and 72 institutes. Ukraine numbers a total of 1.5 million college-and-university students.

Institutions of higher learning enroll some 12,000 foreign students, postgraduates and visiting graduates, of whom 8,000 are on Ukrainian government scholarships. More than 120,000 specialists from 130 countries across the world have graduated since World War II.

Among the well-known Universities in Ukraine are: Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv, Kyiv Polytechnic University, International Independent University "Kyiv-Mohyla Academy", "Kyiv State "orisexiatory", "Kharkiv University", "Vinnytsia State Technological University", "Simpheropol University", "Ivan Franko National University of Lviv", "Donetsk University", "Odesa State Naval Academy", "Odesa State Economic University" and many others.



## BRITISH SECONDARY EDUCATION

There are many different types of schools in Britain, there are however only three main systems.

**Comprehensive system.** More than 90 % of children go to state schools in England & Wales, these are schools of a comprehensive system introduced in the 60-s. Children go to a primary school at the age of 5. Under 5 there are some free nursery school education. However there are not enough nursery school places for all who would like them. Because of the small number of nursery schools parents in many areas may form play-groups where children under 5 can go for a morning or afternoon a couple of times a week. Education in Britain is provided by a LEA which is financed by the local government (property tax). Depending on the policy of the LEA they may go directly to the upper school called comprehensive at age of 11. The comprehensive system is not selective. That means that all children go from one school to another without taking any exams & without being selected according to their abilities. Strictly speaking, this system was introduced in 1965 by the Labour Government.

**The selective system.** In some areas in Britain, you can still find an older system of education introduced in 1940. This is a selective system; children are selected for certain schools according to their ability. All children go to primary school until the age of 11. Then they take the 11 + exam & those who are successful go to a grammar school, where they can receive a more academic education. Those who fail the exam go to a secondary modern school where they receive an education which is less academic, & more intended to train them for a job when they leave at the age of 16.

**The private or independent system.** 7 % of children go to private schools. First they attend a primary school (being from 4 to 8 years old), then a preparatory school (being from 8 to 13). At age of 13 they take an exam and if they pass it they go to a public school where they remain until they are 18. Within the three systems there are several varieties of schools: schools for boys only, schools for girls, mixed schools & various religious schools – Roman-Catholic, Protestant etc.

**Secondary schools** fall into three main types, i.e. comprehensive, grammar & secondary modern.

**In comprehensive schools** they provide all types of secondary education irrespective of the children's supposed intelligence. Here Modern Languages are studied (English, French, Spanish, German), classics (Latin, Greek, Ancient History), Sciences (Physics, Chemistry, Biology), Arts, Domestic Subjects (Needle work, Cookery), Shorthand, Typing, Accountancy, Commercial Geography, Economics, Music, Heavy Crafts (Building work, Woodwork, Metalwork).

**Grammar schools** are of more academic type. They usually choose subjects, but some of them are compulsory, e.g. History, English & Mathematics. The curriculum consists of 6 forms, 5 of which are basic.

**Secondary modern schools** concentrate for the most part on practical work – Metalwork, Woodwork, Domestic Subjects, Commercial Subjects, Technical Subjects (Technical Drawing & Engineering). The certificate on Education is given with emphasis on craft or trade.

**Primary schools** are divided into Infant schools & Junior. In infant schools children from 5 to 7 are accepted. Children become acquainted with RRR in the form of games, they have also Painting & Music. In junior schools they study much more subjects: Nature, History, Geography, Singing, Physical Education, Religious knowledge. They are streamed into A, B, C or D – streams according to the level of their intelligence.

There are also some famous old **public schools** – Eton, Harrow, Rugby, Westminster etc. Like Oxford & Cambridge they are entirely independent. Most of them have two sides: classical (Ancient Languages, History, Philosophy) & Modern (Modern Languages, Sciences, Natural Sciences, Geography).

## **ANCIENT UNIVERSITY**

Kyiv-Mohyla Academy, one of the highest cultural achievements of our state, became one of the most brilliant phenomena of the Ukrainian culture and the Ukrainian spirit. Its history begins at Kyiv Brotherhood School. On October 15, 1615, the noble woman Hlaska Hulevichevna presented her land in Podil in Kyiv to a monastery, hospital and school for children of "all positions and ranks". Yov Boretskyi, a well-known Ukrainian enlightener, became its first rector.

The guardian of the school was Kyiv Brotherhood which supported it both financially and intellectually: almost all Kyiv scientists of that time were its members. Zaporizhian Cossacks led by hetman Petro Sahaidachnyi joined the Brotherhood with the whole army.

Later the school was united with the Lavra School of metropolitan Petro Mohyla: it was declared a higher educational establishment and was named Kyiv-Mohyla, in honour of its patron Petro Mohyla, the most educated man of that era.

Hetman Ivan Mazepa, protector of art and education in Ukraine, did much for the development of the Academy.

Until 1661 the Academy was the only institution of higher learning of Eastern Europe. Kyiv-Mohyla Academy provided a very wide education. The Church Slavonic, Greek, Latin, Polish, French and German languages were studied in the Academy. The curricula comprised poetics, literature, philosophy, geography, mathematics, physics, and from the end of the century also economics and history. Graduates of the Academy became writers, publishers, translators, prominent diplomats and men of the church.

Talented statesmen - Samoilovych, Ivan Mazepa, Pylyp Orlyk were its graduates. The founder of the Russian Academy, Mykhailo Lomonosov, the first professor of medicine of Russia Konstantyn Shchepin, Honourary member of twelve foreign academies Danylo Tuptalo, a prominent portrait painter N. Levytskyi and architect Hryhorovych-Barskyi studied at the Academy at different times.

In 1817, the Academy was closed by a tsar decree. It is impossible to estimate the losses to Ukraine caused by this action. The library, the picture-gallery together with the most valuable archives disappeared. Kyiv-Mohyla Academy only resumed its work in 1991, already as the independent and international University "Kyiv-Mohyla Academy". Four faculties work now in the University: the humanities, social and natural sciences, and law.

The International Sociological Centre is being created together with the American-Ukrainian Ecological Centre, the French-Ukrainian Laboratory of Humanitarian Studies, the Information-Computing Centre, scientific and educational laboratories. The scientific library is being replenished. An art gallery, drama school, and chorus are opened in the Academy. Students have organized Students' Brotherhood and a yacht club.

UKMA is so far the only institution of higher learning in Ukraine, where almost half the courses are being chosen by students. An international meeting of the UNESCO experts was held in May 1993 in the Academy. Consequently UKMA was granted international university status.

### **Petro Mohyla**

Petro Mohyla, born January 10, 1597, died January 11, 1677. Ukrainian metropolitan, noble, and cultural figure. Son of Simeon, hospodar of Wallachia and Moldavia, and the Hungarian princess Margareta. He was tutored by teachers of the Lviv Dormition Brotherhood School and pursued higher education in theology at the Zamostia Academy and in Holland and France. After his return to Ukraine he entered the military service and fought as an officer against the Turks. In 1621 - 1627 he received estates in Kyiv region and through his friendship with Metropolitan I. Boretskyi became interested in affairs of the Ukrainian Orthodox Church. Soon Petro Mohyla was nominated the metropolitan of Kyiv. In 1631 Mohyla established a school at the Kyiv Cave Monastery. In 1632 it was merged with the Kyiv Epiphany Brotherhood School to create a college, which eventually became the largest centre of scholarship and education in Eastern Europe, Kyiv-Mohyla Academy.

## **UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES IN BRITAIN AND THE USA**

### **Going to university in Britain**

After \*school many British students go to university. They apply to several universities through \***UCAS** (Universities and Colleges Admission Service) and receive **offers** of a place on condition that they achieve certain grades in their \*A levels.

Most universities receive some money from the state. The oldest and most famous are \*Oxford and \*Cambridge. Other much respected universities include London, Durham and St Andrew's. Some universities such as Birmingham and Manchester are called **redbrick universities** because they were built in the 19th century with brick rather than stone. The newer universities have their buildings grouped together on a **campus**.

A **first degree**, which is usually an **honours degree**, generally takes three years. Most courses end with exams called **finals**. Results are given as **classes** (= grades): a first is the highest class, seconds are often split between upper second and lower second, and below that is a third. **Graduates** may add the letters **BA** (Bachelor of Arts) or **BSc** (Bachelor of Science) after their name. Some graduates go on to study for a further degree, often a **master's degree** or a **doctorate**.

Students in Britain formerly had their **tuition fees** paid by the state and received a government **grant** to help pay their living expenses. Now, they receive only a loan towards their expenses, and from 1999 most will also have to pay J1 000 a year towards tuition fees. The new arrangements have caused a great deal of concern both among students and among members of the public who believe that education should be free.

### **Going to college in the US**

Americans talk about 'going to college' even if the institution they attend is a university. To Americans the phrase 'going to university' sounds pretentious. Most colleges offer classes only for **undergraduate** students studying for a **bachelor's degree**. \***Community colleges** offer two-year courses leading to an **associate's degree**, and afterwards students transfer

to a different college or university to continue their studies. Universities are larger than colleges and also offer courses for **graduate students** who study in **graduate school**. Many universities also have separate professional schools, e.g. a **medical school** or a **law school**.

American \*high school students who want to study at a college or university have to take a **standardized test**, e.g. the \***SAT** (Scholastic Aptitude Test) or the "**ACT** (American College Test). Students from countries outside the US who are not native speakers of English must also take the \***TOEFL** (Test of English as a Foreign Language). Each college or university decides on the minimum **score** it will accept, though test scores are never the only factor taken into account. Students apply direct to between three and six colleges in their last year of high school. Each college has its own **application form** and most include a question for which the student must write an essay. The student also has to send a **transcript** (= an official list of all the subjects studied and the grades received) and letters of reference.

There are many private colleges and universities but most students choose a public institution because the costs are lower. All universities charge **tuition**, and students pay extra for **room and board**. Prices range from a few hundred dollars a year to well over \$25 000 at some private colleges. Students whose families cannot afford to pay the full amount apply for **financial aid**. Many students receive a **financial aid package** which may be a combination of **grants** from the government, a **scholarship**, a **student loan** and **work-study** (= a part-time job at the college).

The most famous universities are those in the \***Ivy League**, including \*Harvard and \*Yale, but many others have good reputations. Large universities often put most emphasis on research. Smaller colleges tend to concentrate on teaching undergraduates, and many students prefer these colleges because they offer smaller classes and more personal attention from teachers.

### Teaching and learning

The US academic year may be divided into two **semesters** of about 15 weeks or three **quarters** of about 10 weeks each. Students take courses in a variety of subjects, regardless of their main subject, because the aim of the **liberal arts** curriculum is to produce well-rounded people with good critical skills. At the end of their **sophomore** (= second) year students choose a **major** (= main subject) and sometimes a **minor** (= additional subject) which they study for the next two years. Students take four or five courses each semester from the **course catalog**. Courses may consist mainly of **lectures** or may include **discussion sections** or **lab sessions**.

Students are given **grades** at the end of each course. The highest grade is A; the lowest is F, which means that the student has failed the course and will not get **credit** for taking it. To check a student's overall progress, the university calculates a \***grade point average (GPA)**. Students who finish their degree with a high GPA may be awarded **Latin honours**, of which the highest is \**summa cum laude*.

At most British universities the academic year is divided into three **terms**. Students study a main subject throughout their degree course, which is usually a mix of compulsory courses and **electives**. Teaching methods vary between universities. Most students have lectures and **seminars** (= discussion groups) and there are **practicals** for those doing a science subject. At some universities students have individual **tutorials** or **supervisions**.

In Britain a **professor** is the person in charge of a department or a senior member of staff. Other teaching and research staff are called **lecturers**. Junior academic staff may be

called **research associates**. In the US most people who teach at colleges or universities and have a doctorate are addressed as *professor*. **Full professors** are senior to **associate professors**, **assistant professors** and **instructors**. Graduate students working towards a higher degree may teach undergraduate courses at larger universities. These **grad students** are called **TAs** (teaching assistants). In return, TAs do not have to pay for their own tuition and get a small amount of money to live on.

## CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY

The start of the **university** is generally taken as 1209, when scholars from Oxford migrated to **Cambridge** to escape Oxford's riots of "town and gown" (townspeople versus scholars). To avert possible troubles, the authorities in **Cambridge** allowed only scholars under the supervision of a master to remain in the town. It was partly to provide an orderly place of residence that (in emulation of Oxford) the first college, Peterhouse, was founded in 1284 by Hugo de Balsham, bishop of Ely. Over the next three centuries another 15 colleges were founded, and in 1318 **Cambridge** received formal recognition as a *studium generale* from Pope John XXII.

**Cambridge** remained fairly insignificant until about 1502, when a professorship of divinity was founded — the oldest in the **university**. In 1511 Desiderius Erasmus went to **Cambridge** and did much to inculcate the new learning of the Renaissance there. In 1546 Henry VIII founded Trinity College (which was and still remains the largest of the **Cambridge** colleges). In 1570 Elizabeth I gave the **university** a revised body of statutes, and in 1571 the **university** was formally incorporated by act of Parliament. The new statutes, which remained in force for nearly three centuries, vested the effective government of the **university** in the heads of colleges. Membership of the **university** was no longer envisaged without membership of a college.

In 1663 the Lucasian professorship of mathematics was founded under the will of a former member of the **university**, and six years later the first holder resigned in favour of Isaac Newton, then a young fellow of Trinity. Newton held the chair for over 30 years and gave the study of mathematics a unique position in the **university**. When the honours examination came into being in the 18th century, it was primarily mathematical. (It was called the tripos, after the three-legged stool used formerly at disputations; and candidates placed in the first class were known as wranglers from the style of argument at a disputation.) A classical tripos was instituted in 1824, and tripos in natural sciences and moral sciences were added in 1851.

In 1871 the **university** established the Cavendish professorship of experimental physics and began the building of the Cavendish Laboratory. James Clerk Maxwell (second wrangler in 1854) was the first professor, beginning a leadership in physics at the **university** that would be continued by J.J. Thomson and Ernest Rutherford. Here, too, the team of Max Ferdinand Perutz and John Cowdery Kendrew and the team of Francis Crick and James Watson elucidated the structures of proteins and of the double-helix DNA, to found the modern science of molecular biology. Earlier came the work of Sir Frederick Gowland Hopkins, who, more than perhaps any other man, can be hailed as the founder of biochemistry. Noted **Cambridge** scholars in other fields have been the naturalist Charles Darwin, the economist John Maynard Keynes, and the historian G.M. Trevelyan.

The colleges and collegiate institutions of the **university** are: Christ's (1505), Churchill (1960), Clare (1326), Clare Hall (1966), Corpus Christi (1352), Darwin (1964), Downing (1800), Emmanuel (1584), Fitzwilliam (1869), Girton (1869), Gonville and Caius (1348), Homerton (1977), Hughes Hall (1885), Jesus (1496), King's (1441), Lucy Cavendish (1965), Magdalene (1542), New Hall (1954), Newnham (1871), Pembroke (1347), Peterhouse (1284), Queens' (1448), Robinson (1977), St. Catharine's (1473), St. Edmund's House (1896), St. John's (1511), Selwyn (1882), Sidney Sussex (1596), Trinity (1546), Trinity Hall (1350), and Wolfson (1965).

Many of the college buildings are rich in history and tradition. King's College Chapel, begun in 1446, is one of Britain's most magnificent buildings. The mulberry tree under which the poet John Milton is reputed to have written *Lycidas* is on the grounds of Christ's College. Samuel Pepys's library, housed in the original cases, is at Magdalene College. Two of the colleges contain chapels designed by Christopher Wren — Pembroke and Emmanuel. The gardens and grounds of the colleges along the River Cam are known as the "Backs," and together they form a unique combination of large-scale architecture, natural and formal gardens, and river scenery with student boaters.

## HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE USA

There is no national system of higher education in the United States. Instead, there are about 3,300 separate institutions ranging from two-year "junior" colleges<sup>1</sup> and technical institutes<sup>2</sup> to universities. They may be small or large, rural or urban, private or public, religious or secular; highly selective or open to all.

Basically, American higher education developed its own pattern by the adaptation of two traditions: the collegiate<sup>3</sup> tradition of England and the university tradition of the Continent.

The first universities were developed by private charitable organizations, many of which were religious bodies. The private universities are still very important. Of the nation's nearly 1,900 four-year institutions of higher learning, 1,200 are privately controlled.

All higher educational establishments charge fees<sup>4</sup>. Today three out of every four American families expect to send their children to college. How many actually do so? One out of four. A college education is getting more expensive every year. Grants are rare, that is why two out of three college students take part-time jobs during the school year, during summer vacations, or both to pay for their studies.

The American college is an institution which has no counter-part in Europe. It offers courses of instruction over a four-year period, grants a Bachelor's degree and prepares the student for a job. As part of university a college leads to a master's or doctor's degree. There are also many Junior Colleges to which students may be admitted at the end of their high school career, providing only the first two years of university work. They usually offer courses related to local industry, agriculture or crafts.

Obviously, with a total of 156 universities and more than two thousand colleges, there must be great differences in quality and reputation among them. The main universities are: California University, Catholic University of America, Cornell University, Harvard University, Johns Hopkins University, Columbia University, Stanford University, Chicago University, Wisconsin University, Yale University. The best-known of all is Harvard,

Massachusetts, which was founded in 1636. There is much in common between Harvard and Yale, Connecticut, and together they occupy a position in American university life rather like Oxbridge in England.

The methods of instruction in the universities are lectures, discussions and work in laboratory. The academic year is usually of nine months duration, or two semesters of four and a half months each.

Students are classified as freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors<sup>5</sup>. A peculiar feature of American college and university life is numerous students' unions, fraternities and sororities<sup>6</sup>. The Greek alphabet is generally used in their names. These organizations, Greek letter societies, are descendants of the eighteenth century literary and social clubs which flourished in the early American colleges. It has become quite the practice for students of a particular fraternity to reside together during their college course in one house.

A great deal of cultural and recreational life at a university is created by different kinds of student's clubs.

### **STUDENT LIFE IN BRITAIN**

What is it like, being a student at Oxford? Like all British universities, Oxford is a state university, not a private one. Students are selected on the basis of their results in the national examinations or the special Oxford entrance examination. There are many applicants, and nobody can get a place by paying a fee. Successful candidates are admitted to a specified college of the university: that will be their home for the next three years (the normal period for an undergraduate degree), and for longer if they are admitted to study for a post-graduate degree. They will be mostly taught by tutors from their own college.

Teaching is pleasantly informal and personal; a typical undergraduate (apart from those in the natural sciences who spend all day in the laboratories) will spend an hour a week with his or her "tutor", perhaps in the company of the other student. Each of them will have written an essay for the tutor, which serves as the basis for discussion, argument, the exposition of ideas and academic methods. At the end of the hour the students go away with a new essay title and a list of books that might be helpful in preparing for the essay.

Other kinds of teachings such as lectures and seminars are normally optional: popular lecturers can attract audiences from several faculties, while others may find themselves speaking to two or three loyal students, or maybe to none at all. So, in theory, if you are good at reading, thinking and writing quickly, you can spend five days out of seven being idle: sleeping, taking part in sports, in student clubs, in acting and singing, in arguing, drinking, having parties. In practice, most students at Oxford are enthusiastic about the academic life, and many of the more conscientious ones work for days at each essay, sometimes sitting up through the night.

At the end of three years, all students face a dreadful ordeal, "Finals", the final examinations. The victims are obliged to dress up for the occasion in black and white, an old-fashioned ritual that may help to calm the nerves. They crowd into the huge, bleak examination building and sit for three hours writing what they hope is beautiful prose on half-remembered or strangely forgotten subjects. In the afternoon they assemble for

another three hours of writing. After four or five days of this torture they stagger off for the biggest party of them all.

While offering undergraduate courses in virtually all subjects taught at university level, Oxford is one of the major research centres in Britain, and as such, gives unparalleled opportunities to the postgraduate students. It is an exceptional centre at which to conduct research.

Postgraduates (often just called graduates) are busy with research for their thesis, and they spend days in their college libraries or in the richly endowed, four-hundred-year-old Bodleian library. The Bodleian is one of the great national libraries, but until recently the cataloguing was somewhat primitive. Little slips of paper with the details of each volume were stuck on the blank pages of very heavy leather-bound books in (approximate) alphabetical order. Fortunately, eighteenth-century glue was very powerful, and most of these hand-written slips, many of them 300 years old or more, are still safely in place.

Recently they have begun to computerise the catalogue, and though some older senior members are alarmed, postgraduates realize that it should soon be possible to trace the millions of books scattered around the hundred-odd small and large libraries in the decentralized university.

## **HARVARD UNIVERSITY**

### **The Early History of Harvard University**

Harvard University, which celebrated its 350th anniversary in 1986, is the oldest institution of higher learning in the United States. Founded 16 years after the arrival of the Pilgrims at Plymouth, the University has grown from nine students with a single Master to an enrollment of more than 18,000 degree candidates, including undergraduates and students in 10 graduate and professional schools. An additional 13,000 students are enrolled in one or more courses in the Harvard Extension School. Over 14,000 people work at Harvard, including more than 2,000 faculty.

Six presidents of the United States - John Adams, John Quincy Adams, Theodore and Franklin Delano Roosevelt, Rutherford B. Hayes, and John Fitzgerald Kennedy - were graduates of Harvard. Its faculty have produced more than 30 Nobel laureates.

On June 9, 1650, the Great and General Court of Massachusetts approved Harvard President Henry Dunster's charter of incorporation. The Charter of 1650 established the President and Fellows of Harvard College (a.k.a the Harvard Corporation), a seven-member board that is the oldest corporation in the Western Hemisphere.

Harvard College was established in 1636 by vote of the Great and General Court of the Massachusetts Bay Colony and was named for its first benefactor, John Harvard of Charlestown, a young minister who, upon his death in 1638, left his library and half of his estate to the new institution.

During its early years, the College offered a classic academic course based on the English university model but consistent with the prevailing Puritan philosophy of the first colonists. Although many of its early graduates became ministers in Puritan congregations throughout New England, the College was never formally affiliated with a specific religious denomination.

On Sept. 8, 1836, at Harvard's Bicentennial celebration, it was announced that President Josiah Quincy had found the first rough sketch of the College arms - a shield with



the Latin motto "VERITAS" ("Verity" or "Truth") on three books - while researching his History of Harvard University in the College Archives. During the Bicentennial, a white banner atop a large tent in the Yard publicly displayed this design for the first time. Until Quiney's discovery, the hand-drawn sketch (from records of an Overseers meeting on Jan. 6, 1644) had been filed away and forgotten. It became the basis of the seal officially adopted by the Corporation in 1843 and still informs the version used today.

### **New Schools and New Houses**

The 1708 election of John Leverett, the first president who was not also a clergyman, marked a turning of the College toward intellectual independence from Puritanism. As the College grew in the 18th and 19th centuries, the curriculum was broadened, particularly in the sciences, and the College produced or attracted a long list of famous scholars, including Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, James Russell Lowell, William James, the elder Oliver Wendell Holmes, and Louis Agassiz. Charles W. Eliot, who served as president from 1869 to 1909, transformed the relatively small provincial institution into a modern university.

During his tenure, the Law and Medical schools were revitalized, and the graduate schools of Business, Dental Medicine, and Arts and Sciences were established. Enrollment rose from 1,000 to 3,000 students, the faculty grew from 49 to 278, and the endowment increased from \$2,3 million to \$22,5 million.

Under President A. Lawrence Lowell (1909 - 33), the undergraduate course of study was redesigned to ensure students a liberal education through concentration in a single field with distribution of course requirements among other disciplines. Today, 51 fields of concentration are offered to Harvard College students. The tutorial system, also introduced by Lowell and still a distinctive feature of a Harvard education, offers undergraduates informal specialized instruction in their fields.

One of Lowell's most significant accomplishments was the House Plan, which provides undergraduates with a small-college atmosphere within the larger university. After being housed in or near Harvard Yard during freshman year, students go to 1 of 12 Houses in which to live for the remainder of their undergraduate careers. (A 13th House is designed for nonresident students.) Each House has a resident Master and a staff of tutors, as well as a dining hall and library, and maintains an active schedule of athletic, social, and cultural events.

### **Recent History**

Recent presidents James Bryant Conant, Nathan M. Pusey, and Derek Bok have each made significant contributions toward strengthening the quality of undergraduate and graduate education at Harvard while, at the same time, maintaining the University's role as a preeminent research institution. Conant (1933 - 53) introduced a system of ad hoc committees from outside the University to evaluate tenure candidates being considered for faculty positions. Conant also initiated the General Education Program to give undergraduates breadth in fields outside their major study.

Under Pusey (1953 - 71), Harvard undertook what was then the largest fundraising campaign in the history of American higher education, the \$82.5 million Program for Harvard College.

The Program strengthened faculty salaries, broadened student aid, created new professorships, and expanded Harvard's physical facilities. A similar but greatly expanded fundraising effort, the Harvard Campaign (1979 - 84), was conducted under the leadership of Derek Bok (1971 - 91) and raised \$356 million by the end of 1984.

Some of the important educational initiatives Bok undertook include: reform of the undergraduate course of study through the innovative Core Curriculum, the introduction of graduate programs crossing traditional borders of professional disciplines, new approaches to the training of lawyers and doctors, and a renewed emphasis on the quality of teaching and rearming at all levels.

Bok addressed major issues affecting higher education in our time and joined other educational leaders in proposing a renewed partnership between the federal government and higher education to address economic competitiveness, equal education opportunity, improved quality of life, and ethical standards. He also supported the growing international dimension of the University and devoted considerable energy to building up the Kennedy School of Government, both physically and programmatically.

Neil L. Rudenstine took office as Harvard's 26th president in 1991. As part of an overall effort to achieve greater coordination among the University's schools and faculties, Rudenstine set in motion an intensive process of University-wide academic planning, intended to identify some of Harvard's main intellectual and programmatic priorities.

Those goals have become an integral part of the current five-year capital campaign. In addition, Rudenstine has stressed the University's commitment to excellence in undergraduate education, the importance of keeping Harvard's doors open to students from across the economic spectrum, the task of adapting the research university to an era of both rapid information growth and serious financial constraints, and the challenge of living together in a diverse community committed to freedom of expression.

## UNIVERSITIES IN THE UK

### Exams and qualifications

**GCSE** = General Certificate of Secondary Education. The exams taken by most fifteen- to sixteen-year-olds in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. Marks are given for each subject separately. The syllabuses and methods of examination of the various examining boards differ. However, there is a uniform system of marks, all being graded from A to G. Grades A, B and C are regarded as 'good' grades.

**SCE** = Scottish Certificate of Education. The Scottish equivalent of GCSE. These exams are set by the Scottish Examinations Board. Grades are awarded in numbers (1 = the best).

**A Levels** = Advanced Levels. Higher-level academic exams set by the same examining boards that set GCSE exams. They are taken mostly by people around the age of eighteen who wish to go on to higher education.

**SCE 'Highers'** = The Scottish equivalent of A-levels.

**GNVQ** = General National Vocational Qualification. Courses and exams in job-related subjects. They are divided into five levels, the lowest level being equivalent to GCSEs/SCEs

and the third level to A-levels/'Highers'. Most commonly, GNVQ courses are studied at Colleges of Further Education, but more and more schools are also offering them.

**Degree:** A qualification from a university. (Other qualifications obtained after secondary education are usually called 'certificate' or 'diploma'). Students studying for a first degree are called undergraduates. When they have been awarded a degree, they are known as graduates. Most people get honours degrees, awarded in different classes. These are: Class I (known as 'a first') Class II, I ('a 2, 1' or 'an upper second') Class II, II ('a 2,2' or 'a lower second') Class III (Catbird') A student who is below one of these gets a pass degree (i.e. not an honours degree).

**Bachelor's Degree:** The general name for a first degree, most commonly a BA (= Bachelor of Arts) or BSc (= Bachelor of Science).

**Master's Degree:** The general name for a second (postgraduate) degree, most commonly an MA or MSc. At Scottish universities, however, these titles are used for first degrees.

**Doctorate:** The highest academic qualification. This usually (but not everywhere) carries the title PhD (= Doctor of Philosophy). The time taken to complete a doctorate varies, but it is generally expected to involve three years of more-or-less full-time study.

### **The growth of higher education**

In 1960 there were less than twenty-five universities in the whole of Britain. By 1980 there were more than forty, and by now there are well over a hundred institutions which have university status.

### **The sixth form**

The word 'form' was the usual word to describe a class of pupils in public schools. It was taken over by some state schools. With the introduction of the national curriculum it has become common to refer to 'years'. However, 'form' has been universally retained in the phrase 'sixth form', which refers to those pupils who are studying beyond the age of sixteen.

### **The Open University**

This is one development in education in which Britain can claim to have led the world. It was started in 1969. It allows people who do not have the opportunity to be ordinary 'students' to study for a degree. Its courses are taught through television, radio and specially written coursebooks. Its students work with tutors, to whom they send their written work and with whom they then discuss it, either at meetings or through correspondence. In the summer, they have to attend short residential courses of about a week.

### **Nineteen to twenty-two year-olds in full-time education**

There has been a great increase in educational opportunities for people at this age or older in the last quarter of the twentieth century. About half of those who stay in full-time education will have to leave their school, either because it does not have a sixth form

(> The sixth form) or because it does not teach the desired subjects, and go to a Sixth-form College, or College of Further Education. An increasing number do vocational training courses for particular jobs and careers. Recent governments have been keen to increase the availability of this type of course and its prestige (which used to be comparatively low).

In England and Wales, for those who stay in education and study conventional academic subjects, there is more specialization than there is in most other countries. Typically, a pupil spends a whole two years studying just three subjects, usually related ones, in preparation for taking A-level exams (> Exams and qualifications), though this is something else which might change in the near future.

The independence of Britain's educational institutions is most noticeable in universities. They make their own choices of who to accept on their courses. There is no right of entry to university for anybody. Universities normally select students on the basis of A-level results and an interview. Those with better exam grades are more likely to be accepted. But in principle there is nothing to stop a university accepting a student who has no A-levels at all and conversely, a student with top grades in several A-levels is not guaranteed a place.

The availability of higher education has increased greatly in the second half of the twentieth century (> The growth of higher education). Nevertheless, finding a university place is not easy. Universities only take the better students. Because of this, and also because of the relatively high degree of personal supervision of students which the low ratio of students to staff allows, nearly all university students complete their studies — and in a very short time too! In England, Wales and Northern Ireland, it is only for modern languages and certain vocational studies that students take more than three years. In Scotland, four years is the norm for most subjects.

Another reason for the low drop-out rate is that 'full-time' really means full-time. Students are not supposed to take a job during term time (normally about thirty to thirty-four weeks of the year). Unless their parents are rich, they receive a state grant of money which is intended to cover most of their living expenses during these times. This includes the cost of accommodation. A large proportion of students live 'on campus', (or, in Oxford and Cambridge, 'in college') or in rooms nearby, which tends to mean that the student is surrounded by a university atmosphere.

However, the expansion of higher education is putting a strain on these characteristics. More students means more expense for the state. The government's response has been to reduce the amount of the student grant and to encourage a system of 'top-up' loans instead. As a result, many more students cannot afford to live away from home. In 1975 it was estimated that 80% of all university students were non-local. This percentage is becoming lower and lower. In addition, a large number of students are being forced to 'moonlight' (that is, secretly do a part-time job). A further result of increased numbers of students without a corresponding increase in budgets is that the student/staff ratio has been getting higher. All of these developments threaten to reduce the traditionally high quality of British university education. They also threaten to reduce the availability to students from low-income families.

### **Types of university**

There are no important official or legal distinctions between the various types of university in the country. But it is possible to discern a few broad categories.

## **Oxbridge**

This name denotes the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, both founded in the medieval period. They are federations of semi-independent colleges, each college having its own staff, known as 'Fellows'. Most colleges have their own dining hall, library and chapel and contain enough accommodation for at least half of their students. The Fellows teach the college students, either one-to-one or in very small groups (known as 'tutorials' in Oxford and 'supervisions' in Cambridge). Oxbridge has the lowest student/staff ratio in Britain. Lectures and laboratory work are organized at university level. As well as the college libraries, there are the two university libraries, both of which are legally entitled to a free copy of every book published in Britain. Before 1970 all Oxbridge colleges were single-sex (mostly for men). Now the majority admit both sexes.

## **The old Scottish universities**

By 1600 Scotland boasted four universities. They were Glasgow, Edinburgh, Aberdeen and St Andrews. The last of these resembles Oxbridge in many ways, while the other three are more like civic universities (see below) in that most of the students live at home or find their own rooms in town. At all of them the pattern of study is closer to the continental tradition than to the English one — there is less specialization than at Oxbridge.

## **The early nineteenth-century English universities**

Durham University was founded in 1832. Its collegiate living arrangements are similar to Oxbridge, but academic matters are organized at 'university level'. The University of London started in 1836 with just two colleges. Many more have joined since, scattered widely around the city, so that each college (most are non-residential) is almost a separate university. The central organization is responsible for little more than exams and the awarding of degrees.

## **The older civic ('redbrick') universities**

During the nineteenth century various institutes of higher education, usually with a technical bias, sprang up in the new industrial towns and cities such as Birmingham, Manchester and Leeds. Their buildings were of local material, often brick, in contrast to the stone of older universities (hence the name, 'redbrick'). They catered only for local people. At first, they prepared students for London University degrees, but later they were given the right to award their own degrees, and so became universities themselves. In the mid twentieth century they started to accept students from all over the country.

## **The campus universities**

These are purpose-built institutions located in the countryside but close to towns. Examples are East Anglia, Lancaster, Sussex and Warwick. They have accommodation for most of their students on site and from their beginning, mostly in the early 1960s, attracted students from all over the country. (Many were known as centres of student protest in the late 1960s and early 1970s.) They tend to emphasize relatively 'new' academic disciplines such as social sciences and to make greater use than other universities of teaching in small groups, often known as 'seminars'.

## **The newer civic universities**

These were originally technical colleges set up by local authorities in the first sixty years of this century. Their upgrading to university status took place in two waves. The first wave occurred in the mid 1960s, when ten of them (e.g. Aston in Birmingham, Salford near Manchester and Strathclyde in Glasgow) were promoted in this way. Then, in the early 1970s, another thirty became 'polytechnics', which meant that as well as continuing with their former courses, they were allowed to teach degree courses (the degrees being awarded by a national body). In the early 1990s most of these (and also some other colleges) became universities. Their most notable feature is flexibility with regard to studying arrangements, including 'sandwich' courses (i.e. studies interrupted by periods of time outside education). They are now all financed by central government.

## **LEGAL SYSTEM IN BRITAIN**

For historical reasons a different system of law is used in Scotland from that in England and Wales. Northern Ireland law is similar to that in England.

Scots law was greatly influenced by Roman law. When making decisions Scottish courts look for an appropriate general principle and apply it to a particular situation. English law relies more on case law, a collection of previous decisions called precedents. English courts look at precedents for the case being tried and make a similar judgement.

English common law developed in \*Norman times when judges travelled round the country. Later, legal scholars collected together the most significant cases and they became part of case law. Another branch of law, equity, deals with cases involving rights and duties, e.g. in connection with contracts. These two branches were joined in 1873. A third branch of law, statute law, consists of laws made by \*Acts of Parliament. It describes general principles and is superior to case law.

From 1536 Wales became subject to the same laws as England. Law in Northern Ireland is based on case law from England and Ireland, and on British and Irish statutes. By the time of the "Act of Union between England and Scotland in 1707, both countries had well-established legal systems. The Act allowed both systems to continue and this resulted in the different legal practices still in use.

### **Civil and criminal law**

Civil law concerns disagreements between individuals over rights and responsibilities. Many civil cases relate to business contracts. The plaintiff (= the person who claims to have been wronged) brings an action against the defendant (= the person accused) in the hope of winning damages (= a financial payment) or an injunction (= a court order preventing the defendant from doing something that is causing harm). Taking a case to court is expensive, but people who do not have enough money may qualify for "legal aid.

Criminal law deals with offences that involve harm to a person resulting from somebody breaking the law. The most serious offences include murder, manslaughter and theft. Cases are brought against criminals by the state, in England and Wales through the 'Director of Public Prosecutions and in Scotland through procurators fiscal.

A basic principle of law in Britain is that anyone accused is innocent until proved guilty, so it is the job of the prosecution to prove beyond reasonable doubt that the

defendant has broken the law as stated in the charge. If this cannot be proved the accused person must be acquitted (= allowed to go free, with no blame attached).

### **Courts in England and Wales**

Every town has a "Magistrates' Court, where minor cases are judged and more serious cases are examined briefly before being passed to higher courts. Cases are heard by three magistrates, called "Justices of the Peace, who are specially trained members of the public advised by a legally qualified clerk. Young people under 17 are sent to special juvenile courts.

More serious criminal cases are heard in the "Crown Court, which sits at a number of towns in England and Wales. Cases are heard by a judge and a "jury. At the end of a trial the jury decides whether the defendant is guilty or not guilty. If the verdict is 'guilty' the judge decides the punishment.

Minor civil cases, such as divorce and bankruptcy proceedings, are heard in the "County Courts. More serious cases are heard in the "High Court of Justice. This is divided into the "Chancery Division, the "Queen's Bench and the "Family Division. Cases are heard by one or more judges sitting together. Appeals against decisions of the County Courts also go to the High Court.

Appeals from the Crown Court or the High Court go to the "Court of Appeal. A few cases in which a question of law is in doubt are passed on to the "House of Lords. Here the "Lord Chancellor and Lords of Appeal, often called "Law Lords, make a final decision.

### **Courts in Scotland and Northern Ireland**

Criminal cases in Scotland are heard in District Courts by members of the public called lay justices. More serious cases go to regional "sheriff courts, and are heard by the sheriff and a jury. Juries in Scotland can give a verdict of guilty or not guilty, or decide that a case is not proven. This verdict is given when there is not sufficient evidence to convict the accused but when it is probable that he or she is guilty. Appeals go to the "High Court of Justiciary in Edinburgh.

Civil cases begin in the sheriff court and may go on appeal to the "Court of Session. This is divided into two Houses. The Inner House hears appeals from the sheriff courts, while the Outer House hears cases that were too serious to go to the sheriff court.

In Northern Ireland minor cases are heard by magistrates. County Courts hear most civil cases, and Crown Courts most serious criminal cases. They also act as courts of appeal from the Magistrates' Courts. The higher court in Northern Ireland is the Supreme Court of Judicature.

### **The legal profession**

A person who needs legal advice, e.g. when buying a house, usually goes to see a solicitor. Solicitors may represent their clients in Magistrates' Courts and, since 1994, in the higher courts. However, solicitors often use "barristers to represent their clients in the higher courts. Barristers are lawyers who have received special training at "Inns of Court and who have been called to the "Bar. They are not allowed to deal directly with the public and can only talk to their client if a solicitor is present. In court they wear a white curly wig and black robes. The most respected barristers hold the title \*QC (Queen's Counsel). Barristers are called advocates in Scotland, and a solicitor or barrister representing a client in the English or Welsh courts is now often referred to as an advocate.

After many years in the courts barristers may be appointed as judges. Judges wear a white wig and red robes in court. They are highly paid and are sometimes accused of being remote from the rest of society.

## LEGAL SYSTEM IN THE USA

The judicial system is one of the three branches of the US 'federal government. But the legal system operates at many levels, since as well as federal courts there are state, county and city courts.

### **The courts**

Each type of court has its own jurisdiction, i.e. it deals with certain kinds of cases. Some courts hear only criminal cases. Other courts are for civil cases, in which two people disagree over something. Cases are first heard in trial courts. The person accused in a criminal trial, and both sides involved in a civil trial, have the right to appeal against the court's decision, and if they do the case goes to a court of appeals.

Some trial courts have limited jurisdiction. Many states, for example, have family courts where people get divorced, and small claims courts which hear cases involving small sums of money. States have trial courts of general jurisdiction which can hear a wider range of cases. These are often called courts of common pleas. State courts of appeals are called superior courts or district courts, and most states have a supreme court. This is the highest court in the state and hears only the most serious appeals.

States have their own criminal code, but some crimes are federal offences, i.e. against federal law. Crimes may fall under federal jurisdiction if more than one state is involved, e.g. if cars are stolen in one state and then sold in another.

The highest court is the \*Supreme Court in 'Washington, DC, which can hear almost any case on appeal. In fact, it hears only those cases that involve an important principle. When the Supreme Court decides such a case, it sets a precedent which lower courts will use to decide similar cases.

### **The people in a court**

The most powerful person in court is the judge. Most courts have only one judge, but some higher courts have several. In the US Supreme Court, the nine judges are called justices, and the most senior is the Chief Justice of the United States. Many state judges are elected, but federal judges are appointed by the President.

The people on either side of a case are represented by lawyers, also called attorneys-at-law. In a criminal trial the defendant (= the person accused) is represented by a defense attorney. If he or she is too poor to pay a lawyer, the court will appoint a public defender. The prosecution is led by an Assistant District Attorney or, in a federal case, a federal attorney. In each county the people elect a 'District Attorney, who hires other attorneys. In a civil trial the defendant and the plaintiff (= the person who claims to have been wronged) pay their own attorneys. When only a small amount of money is involved people go to a court of common pleas and represent themselves.

Witnesses go to court to testify (= tell what they know about the case). Sometimes one or both sides will pay expert witnesses. The bailiff calls witnesses when it is their turn to come into the courtroom. The court reporter keeps a record of everything that is said.

### **The court in action**

At the beginning of a session, the bailiff calls out, 'All rise,' and everybody stands as the judge enters. Both attorneys make an opening statement to explain their case. Then



each side calls witnesses and presents evidence. As each witness takes the stand (= goes and sits in a special place) the bailiff swears them in. Witnesses promise to tell 'the truth, the whole truth and nothing but the truth'.

Attorneys must not lead the witness by suggesting the answer they want to hear, and they must not keep repeating the question. When one attorney thinks another is breaking the rules he or she shouts 'Objection!' or 'Move to strike!' (= a request that words are deleted from the record).

At the end of a trial the jury deliberate together. In a case that gets a lot of media attention, the judge may sequester the jury (= send them to a hotel where they will not hear others' opinions). In a criminal trial the jury decide the verdict and if the verdict is guilty the judge gives the sentence. In a civil trial the jury decides who wins and may also decide the amount of damages (= money to be paid as compensation).

### **Problems in the system**

Americans often sue, i.e. start a civil trial, for problems that might be solved in other ways. Large numbers of these frivolous suits may mean that people with genuine cases have to wait a long time. Although the 'Constitution says that the law should protect everyone, rich people have an advantage: in civil cases both sides pay their own attorney, so a poor person who has a good reason to sue may not be able to. Some attorneys will work for a contingency fee, a proportion of the money that is awarded if they win the case, and nothing if they lose. A few lawyers, called ambulance chasers, encourage people hurt in accidents to sue because they think they can earn a large contingency fee.

### **The courts and society**

Courts, especially the Supreme Court, are very powerful in the US. 'Congress makes laws and the President approves them, but if the Supreme Court decides that a law is unconstitutional (= goes against the Constitution) it cannot be applied.

The Supreme Court has decided many important issues. For example, the case \*Brown v Board of Education helped to end separate schools for black and white children. For many years the police encouraged people they arrested to confess to a crime, even though they have the right not to. In \*Miranda v Arizona the Court said that the police had to tell people their rights, and now the police Mirandize people they arrest by reading them a formal statement saying that they have the right to remain silent and to see a lawyer.

Most Americans believe that their legal system is fair. The idea of innocent until proven guilty is especially important. Americans also want their legal system to be open. Members of the public can go into the courts, and real trials are shown on television. However, many African Americans think that the system is only fair and open for white Americans. This is a growing problem and one that seems likely remain as long as there is prejudice against African Americans in other areas of life.

## **UKRAINE'S LEGAL SYSTEM**

Ukraine gained its independence in 1991. As a newly independent country, creating a modern and stable legal system became one of Ukraine's top priorities. Today, after almost seven years of independence, certain progress has been made, but the task is far from complete. The current legal system is still undergoing reforms and lacks essential basic components, such as, for example, a modern civil code.

At the same time, there is a common misperception in the West that a legal system and a legal tradition in Ukraine are totally absent, a sort of tabula rasa, a clean sheet of paper. On the contrary, Ukraine always had an established legal system based on continental law. In the United States, this system is referred to as the civil law (European) system as opposite to the common law (Anglo-American) system. Therefore, there is no need to build absolutely every legal institution from scratch.

### **Hierarchy of Legislation**

As with any civil law system, Ukraine's system is based on laws adopted by the Supreme Rada (the Parliament), with the Constitution being the fundamental law, followed by various codes (Civil Code, Criminal Code, Labor Code, Subsoil Code, etc.), followed by laws of general nature and laws of special nature. The general problem with Ukrainian laws is their often inadequate quality and instability. With different laws sometimes contradicting each other and ever-changing legislation, it is difficult for everyone, including judges, to clearly understand which rules are applicable to particular relations at a particular time, or even more so, to plan for the future. The main specific problem in the area of civil legislation is the absence of the modern civil code. The civil code, which is currently in effect, was adopted in 1964 and is not sufficient to regulate modern economic relations. There are various drafts of the new Civil Code appearing and reappearing in the Rada from time to time, but unfortunately until now no serious attempt to adopt a new Civil Code has been made.

The implementation of laws adopted by the Rada is based on subsequent edicts, decrees, regulations, etc., adopted by the President, Cabinet of Ministers, National Bank and various ministries (regulations adopted by the ministries are subject to mandatory review and registration by the Ministry of Justice). It is important to mention one unusual although temporary feature of the current Ukrainian legal system: the President of Ukraine is empowered to issue Presidential Edicts that have in essence the force of a law on economic issues that are not governed by existing laws. Such edicts take effect if they are not vetoed by the Rada within 30 days. This feature was aimed at encouraging a more conservative Rada to speed up adoption of market oriented laws and to allow the President to step in when the Rada was too slow. In practice, however, because such Presidential Edicts often exceed the scope of available authority (for example governing issues already covered by existing laws), they sometimes add to instability and confusion.

It should be mentioned that the body of regulations adopted by the executive branch suffers from the same problems as the body of laws adopted by the Parliament: insufficient quality, instability and over-regulation.

### **The Judiciary System and Enforcement of its Decisions**

As Ukraine's legal system in general, the judiciary system in particular has been undergoing reforms for the past several years. Ukrainian state courts are divided into general courts and arbitration courts. Arbitration courts, despite its misleading name, are not arbitration bodies, but state commercial courts that review business disputes. There is also the Constitutional Court, which is independent and is empowered to interpret the Constitution and review the constitutionality of legislation. Finally, Ukraine allows arbitration tribunals (including international commercial arbitration) whose decisions are generally enforceable.

In general, the judiciary is still quite weak and prone to political influences. Not long ago, for example, a top Government official expressed his outrage at judges who deny the claims of tax authorities against businesses. In addition to a weak judiciary, enforcement remains a top problem in Ukraine. Hopefully, with the adoption of the new Law on Judicial Marshals, who are now included in the Ministry of Justice system, some progress is to be seen in the enforcement area.

### **Ukraine's Participation in International Treaties and Conventions**

One bright spot is that Ukraine has undertaken a growing number of international commitments, some of which were inherited from the Soviet times when Ukraine, as an independent member of the United Nations, participated in most of its conventions. Other commitments have been undertaken since Ukraine gained its independence. Ukraine already is, or plans to become, a member of several major international organizations.

## **UKRAINIAN LEGAL SYSTEM (OVERVIEW)**

The Ukrainian legal system is based on Roman law, consisting mainly of codified laws. Since its independence in 1991 the system has undergone several important legal developments. Ukraine became a member of the European Council in 1995 and adopted a new Constitution in 1996. In 1998 the Partnership and Co-operation Agreement (PCA) with the EU entered into force and an accompanying action plan for legislative approximation was adopted in 2005. Also a working party for accession to WTO has been established in 1993. The Civil Code has been reformed and the new law came into force in 2004. Further towards market-oriented legislation also the Economic Code was adopted together with the new Civil Code.

### **Source and hierarchy of laws**

#### **Constitution:**

The Constitution has the highest legal force. Laws and other normative legal acts shall be adopted on its basis. The acts of the official interpretation as well as court decisions of the Constitutional Court are not formally the source of laws but they may need to be taken into consideration in the judgment of a particular case<sup>1</sup>.

#### **National laws:**

The next highest legislative level is based on laws adopted by Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine<sup>2</sup>. The Constitution (Article 92) defines areas exclusively to be regulated by laws. Specific spheres of legislation are regulated in "codes", such as the Civil Code, the Economic Code, the Criminal Code, the Labour Code etc.

After adoption by the Verkhovna Rada law is to be signed and published by the President or is returned to Verkhovna Rada for further considerations<sup>3</sup>. The law comes into force ten days after its official publication, unless otherwise regulated in the law. The Cabinet of Ministers with the Prime Minister as its head ensures the execution of the law including the implementation of the budget. Local state administration executes the laws on oblast, districts and city level.

**Secondary Legislation:**

State authorities such as President, the Cabinet of Ministers and the ministries adopt secondary legislation which implements general provisions of laws. These secondary legislative acts are:

- Decrees (ukazy) and directives (rozporiadzhennia) of the President of Ukraine
- Resolutions (postanovy) and directives (rozporiadzhennia) of the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine
- Resolutions, directives, regulations, instructions and orders by ministries and other state authorities

Secondary normative acts issued by ministries and other executive state authorities are to be registered at the Ministry of Justice of Ukraine in case they: (i) concern rights, freedoms and lawful interests of citizens or (ii) are of interagency character.

The local state administrations and bodies of local self-government again adopt directives, orders, decisions etc. supervising the implementation of the laws on regional level.

**Fields of law**

In Ukraine law may be categorized in various different fields. Some main categories are:

**Constitutional Law:**

Constitutional law regulates the basic principles of state structure and management in Ukraine, the competencies of main authorities including Verkhovna Rada, the President, the Cabinet of Ministers, other central authorities and the judiciary.

**Administrative Law:**

Administrative law comprises norms regulating the relations between state authorities and municipalities, as well as between them and natural/ legal persons.

**Civil Law**

Civil law comprises provisions regulating the relations between private persons and legal entities. The main act in this regard is the Civil Code.

**Commercial Law**

Commercial law comprises norms regulating the relations between legal and natural persons with regard to their engagement into commercial (entrepreneurial) activity.

**Company Law**

Company law comprises the norms regulating establishment and functioning of different forms of commercial legal entities.

**Criminal Law:**

Criminal law comprises the legal norms defining crimes and criminal penalties according to the Criminal Code of Ukraine.

**Labour Law:**

Labour law comprises norms regulating legal relations between employer and employee, such as labour contracts, safety at work and holidays. The main law in this respect is the Labour Code which was however adopted yet in 1971.

**Health Law:**

Health Law is not widely acknowledged as a separate category of law in Ukraine. Nevertheless, there are several laws regulating health related issues. The Law on Health Fundamentals of Ukraine regulates the main organizational structure of the Health Care system.

**Taxation Legislation:**

Taxation Law comprises norms regulating the tax system of Ukraine.

**Procedural law:**

Procedural Law is a general term for court and sanction procedures in the sphere of civil, commercial, administrative, criminal law. Procedural Law in Ukraine is represented, for instance, by such acts as Civil Procedure Code or Criminal Procedure Code.

<sup>1</sup> - The Constitutional Court of Ukraine is entitled to adopt conclusions and court decisions. Conclusions of the Constitutional Court are the only acts of official interpretation of the Constitution and laws. They are legally binding and must be taken into consideration by courts. Interpretations of other authorities are not considered as official and therefore are not legally binding. It may however be considered by the court while taking a decision in a case. Moreover, the Constitutional Court may take court decisions on correspondence of laws and other legal acts of the highest state authorities (such as President, Parliament, Cabinet of Ministers) with provisions of the Ukrainian Constitution.

<sup>2</sup> - The Autonomous Republic of Crimea has a special place within the legal system and has its own parliament - Verkhovna Rada of the Autonomous Republic of Crimea, which is however not entitled to adopt laws. Moreover, normative legal acts of the Verkhovna Rada of the Autonomous Republic of Crimea and the Council of Ministers of the Autonomous Republic of Crimea shall not contradict the Constitution and other laws of Ukraine

<sup>3</sup> - If nonetheless the law is repeatedly voted for by 2/3 of the Parliament members, President has to sign the law and publish it.

## **ELECTIONS IN THE USA**

### **Running for office**

Elections are held regularly for President of the US, for both houses of Congress and for state and local government offices. **Candidates** usually **run for office** with the support of

one of the two main political parties, the **Republicans** or the **Democrats**. Anyone who wants to run as an **independent** can organize a **petition** and ask people to sign it. Some people run as **write-in candidates**: they ask **voters** to add their name to the **ballot** (= list of candidates) when they vote.

During an **election campaign** candidates try to achieve **name recognition** (= making their names widely known) by advertising on television, in newspapers, and on posters in public places. They take part in **debates** and hold **rallies** where they give speeches and go round '**pressing the flesh**', shaking hands with as many voters as possible. A candidate is helped by **campaign workers**. In the last few weeks before an election, these workers concentrate on '**GOTV**' (**get out to vote**), which involves reminding members of their party to vote.

Election campaigning is very expensive, and the candidate with most money has a big advantage. There are laws limiting the amount of money candidates may take from any one person or group but, except in presidential campaigns, there is no limit to the total that can be spent. In a medium-sized state, a candidate for the Senate might spend ten million dollars on the campaign.

## **Electing the President**

Only a person over 35 who was born in the US can **run for President**. These are the only restrictions but, in practice, presidents have always come from a narrower group of people. They have all been white, and no woman has ever been President, although Geraldine Ferraro ran for Vice-president on Walter Mondale's **ticket** (= in association with Mondale when he was trying to become President) in 1984. John F Kennedy was the first Roman Catholic president. Candidates are usually well-known political figures, such as the governors of large states or members of Congress. Americans believe that a president should be not only a good leader, but also a kind and honest person, so candidates are usually people who know how to seem warm and friendly, especially on television.

Presidential elections are held every four years. Early in election year, the political parties choose their candidates through a series of **primary elections** held in every state. Voters register to vote in either the Republican or the Democratic primary. States hold both primaries on the same day but voters are given different ballots depending on the party they choose. As these **races** take place it gradually becomes clear which candidates are the strongest.

In the summer each party holds a **convention** to make the final choice of candidates for President and Vice-president. Each state sends **delegates** to the conventions but they do not have to vote for the candidates who won the state's primary. The **platform** of ideas that candidates will emphasize during the campaign is decided at the conventions.

Presidential candidates spend tens of millions of dollars on campaigning. In order to prevent rich candidates from always winning, the federal government offers an equal sum of money to the candidates of both parties. Those who receive **federal funding** cannot accept money from other sources. Candidates travel round the US giving speeches and meeting voters. A popular candidate may help others from the same party running for lower offices. This is called the **coat-tail effect**.

In November the people go to vote. Although the President is said to be directly elected, the official vote is made by an **electoral college**. Each state has a certain number of **electors**

in the college, based on the state's population. All the electors from a state must vote for the candidate who got the most votes in the state, and the candidate with at least 270 votes out of a total of 538 becomes President. This system makes states with a large population, such as California, very important.

After the election, the new President goes to Washington for the **inauguration** on 20 January, and takes the **oath of office**. Between the election and the inauguration, the old President has little power and is called informally a **lame duck**.

### **Voting procedures**

US elections are held on the Tuesday following the first Monday of November. This date was selected long ago when most Americans lived in the country, because in early November there was little work on the farms and the weather was good enough to allow people to travel into the city to vote.

Americans over the age of 18 have the right to vote, but only about half of them take part in presidential elections, even fewer in other elections. One explanation for low **voter turnout** is the need to **register** to vote. People who move to another state have to register again after they move. In some places registrations forms are now available in fast-food restaurants.

A few weeks before **election day** registered voters receive a card telling them the address of the **polling station** where they should go to vote, usually a school or church hall. People who will be away on election day, or who are ill, may use an **absentee ballot** and post it to election officials.

Polling stations are open from early morning until night. Voters first have to sign their name in a book that lists all the voters in the **precinct** (= area) and then **cast a vote**. Some states use computerized systems, but the most common method is to use a **voting booth**. This has three sides and a curtain that closes the fourth side. In the booth are lists of candidates for each office. Voters pull down a metal lever beside the name of the person they want to vote for. The levers operate mechanical counters which record the total number of votes for each candidate. It is possible to select all the candidates from one party, and this is called **voting a straight ticket**. But many voters choose candidates from both parties and **vote a split ticket**.

Journalists and **pollsters** are allowed to ask people how they voted and these **exit polls** help predict election results. However, the results of exit polls may not be announced until polling stations everywhere have closed, in case they influence or change the result.

## **ELECTIONS IN GREAT BRITAIN**

### **The electoral system**

Each of the 659 **Members of Parliament**, or **MPs**, in the **House of Commons** represents a particular part of the United Kingdom called a **constituency**. The country is divided into areas of roughly equal population (about 90 000 people). Cities have several constituencies. MPs are expected to be interested in the affairs of their constituency and to represent the interests of local people, their **constituents**, in Parliament. Many hold regular **surgeries**, sessions at which they are available for local people to talk to them. People may also write to their MP if they want to protest about something.

Anyone who wants to become an MP must be elected by the people of a constituency. Before an election one person is chosen by each of the main political parties to **stand for**

**election** in each constituency. People usually vote for the **candidate** who belongs to the party they support, rather than because of his or her personal qualities or opinions. Only the candidate who gets the most votes in each constituency is elected. This system is called **first past the post**.

In a **general election**, when elections are held in all constituencies, the winning party, which forms the next **government**, is the one that wins most seats in Parliament (= has the most MPs), even though it may have received fewer votes overall than the opposition parties. In 1992, for example, the Conservative Party gained more than half the total number of seats but fewer than half of all the votes cast. A proposal that Britain should use a system of **proportional representation**, whereby seats in Parliament would be allocated according to the total number of votes cast for each party, has been put forward on various occasions.

### **General elections**

By law, a **general election** must take place every five years. The government decides when to hold an election, and the Prime Minister may decide to go **to the country** earlier than is legally necessary if there seems to be a good chance of winning.

General elections are always held on Thursdays. After the date has been fixed, anyone who wants to stand **for Parliament** (= be a candidate for election) has to leave a **deposit** of £500 with the **Returning Officer**, the person in each constituency responsible for managing the election. The local offices of the major parties pay the deposit for their own candidates. If a candidate wins more than 5% of the votes, he or she gets the deposit back. Otherwise candidates **lose their deposit**. This is intended to stop people who do not seriously want to be MPs from taking part in the election. Sometimes people who feel very strongly about an issue, e.g. protecting the lives of unborn babies, become candidates and **campaign** specifically about that issue. A few people become candidates for a joke, especially in the constituency which the Prime Minister is defending, because they know that they will get a lot of publicity. One candidate, 'Lord' David Sutch, stood against the Prime Minister in most elections from 1966 until his death in 1999.

Before an election takes place candidates campaign for support in the constituency. The amount of money that candidates are allowed to spend on their campaign is strictly limited. Leading members of the government and the opposition parties travel throughout the country addressing meetings and 'meeting the people', especially in **marginals**, constituencies where only a slight shift of opinion would change the outcome of the voting. Local **party workers** spend their time **canvassing**, going from house to house to ask people about how they intend to vote. At national level the parties spend a lot of money on advertising and media coverage. They cannot buy television time: each party is allowed a number of strictly timed **party political broadcasts**. Each also holds a daily televised **news conference**.

### **By-elections**

If an MP dies or resigns, a **by-election** is held in the constituency which he or she represented. By-elections are closely watched by the media as they are thought to indicate the current state of public opinion and the government's popularity.

### **Voting**



Anyone over the age of 18 has the right to vote at elections, provided that they are **on the electoral register**. This is a list of all the adults living in a constituency. A new, revised list is compiled each year. Copies are available for people to look at in local public libraries. Voting is not compulsory but the **turnout** (= the number of people voting) at general elections is usually high, about 75%.

About a week in advance of an election everyone on the electoral register receives a **polling card**. This tells them where their **polling station** is, i.e. where they must go to vote. On the day of the election, **polling day**, voters go to the polling station and are given a **ballot paper**. This lists the names of all the candidates for that constituency, together with the names of the parties they represent. Each voter then goes into a **polling booth** where nobody can see what they are writing, and puts a cross next to the name of one candidate only, the one they want to elect. Polling stations, often local schools or church halls, are open from 7 a.m. to 10 p.m. to give everyone an opportunity to vote. During a general election, people leaving the polling station may be asked by professional analysts called **pollsters** how they voted. Similar **exit polls** taken all over the country are used to predict the overall election result.

After **the polls** close, the ballot papers from all the polling stations in a constituency are taken to a central place to be counted. In most constituencies **counting** takes place the same evening, continuing for as long as necessary through the night. If the number of votes for two candidates is very close, the candidates may **demand a recount**. Several recounts may take place until all the candidates are satisfied that the count is accurate. Finally, the Returning Officer makes a public announcement giving the number of votes cast for each candidate and declaring the winner to be the MP for the constituency. On general election night, television and radio keep everyone informed of the results throughout Britain and make predictions about the overall result and the size of the winning party's majority in Parliament.

## ADMINISTRATION OF THE USA

The presidency of the United States is the highest governmental office. President of the USA is the head of the State and the Government, he is also the Commander-in-Chief of the US Armed Forces. "Administration" is a popular term to identify the executive branch of the federal government, responsible for administering and executing the laws.

President is assisted by Vice-President and the Cabinet. The President and Vice-President are elected for a term of four years and can be re-elected for another term, but no longer than that, since the Twenty-Second Amendment to the Constitution (1951) limited the President's term of office. US President is assisted in Administration by a Cabinet of 12 members. Cabinet secretaries correspond to European ministers. They are heads of different departments and directly and fully responsible to President who appoints them for an indefinite time. Cabinet officials usually serve during his term. When the President's service ends, it is customary for the Cabinet to resign, so the new President can appoint new chiefs of executive departments. Among the most important departments one should mention the Department of State responsible for American foreign policy, the Department of Defense or the Pentagon, the Department of Justice, the Department of Commerce, etc. The Secretary of State has the duty to negotiate<sup>1</sup> economic and political treaties.

The fifty states all have republican forms of government with a senate and a house. (There is one exception, Nebraska, which has only one legislative body of 49 "senators"). All have executive branches headed by state governors and independent court systems. Each state has also its own constitution. But all must respect the federal laws and not make laws that interfere with those of the other states. Likewise, cities and local authorities must make their laws and regulations so that they fit their own state's constitution.

The Constitution limits the federal government to specific powers. All others automatically belong to the states and to the local communities. The states and local communities in the US have rights that in other countries generally belong to the central government. All education at any level, for example, is the concern of the states. The local communities elect the school board officials, and their local community taxes largely support the schools. Similarly, there is no national police force, the FBI influence being limited to a few crimes, such as kidnapping. Each state has its own police and its own criminal laws. The same is true with, for example, marriage and divorce laws, driving laws and licences, drinking laws, and voting procedures. In turn, each city has its own police force that it hires, trains, controls, and organizes. Neither the President nor the governor has direct power over it. Police chiefs of counties, or sheriffs are elected, but state and city police officials are not.

There are many other areas which are also the concern of cities and villages. Among these are opening and closing hours for stores, street and road repair, or architectural laws and other regulations. Most states and some cities have their own income taxes. Many airports, some of them international, are owned and controlled by cities or counties.

A connecting thread that runs all the way through governments in the US is the "accountability" of politicians, officials, agencies, and governmental groups. This means that information on crimes, fires, marriages and divorces, court cases, taxes, etc. are public information.

American system tries to satisfy the needs and wishes of people at the local level. Although the states control many of the vital questions, they cannot make laws that would go against the Constitution of the USA.

## **MAJOR POLITICAL PARTIES IN THE USA**

The Constitution says nothing about political parties, but over time the US has in fact developed a two-party system.

The popularity of George Washington, who wanted the country to stay a one-party political system, and the good effects of the Constitution on trade prevented the organization of opposing parties until the end of Washington's second term. Then the question of who should be the new President began to divide the people into political organizations backing opposing candidates. Thus the one-party Revolutionary government of the United States split up into a two-party system.

The two leading parties are the Democrats and the Republicans, Minor parties have occasionally won offices at lower levels of government, but they do not play a role in national

politics. In fact, one does not need to be a member of a political party to run in any election at any level of government. Also, people can simply declare themselves to be members of one of the two major parties when they register to vote in a district.

The present-day Democratic Party was founded in 1828, representing Southern planters -slave owners and part of Northern bourgeoisie, as well as groups of petty bourgeoisie and farmers. The Republican Party was founded in 1854. It united industrial and trade bourgeoisie from North-East, farmers, workers, craftsmen who were interested in destroying the political power of the South. During Lincoln's Administration, Republicans supported the agricultural reforms and the abolishment of slavery. Yet after the Civil War of 1861 -1865 the party lost its progressive character and the differences between the two parties disappeared.

The parties chose their own names, Republicans and Democrats, but not their party emblems. The cartoonist Thomas Nast invented the Republican elephant and the democratic donkey in the early 1870s and they soon became fixed types. The parties are not divided by any doctrinal gulf. It is hard to say what the "Republican party view" or the "Democratic Party view" of any political issue is. Outsiders often complain that they find it difficult to distinguish between the two political parties of the US, which appear to support such similar policies.

The main task of the parties is to win elections. Every four years the American parties come together as national bodies in the Presidential nominating conventions and make up the party programs. But once a President is chosen, the parties again become amorphous bodies.

What distinguishes two parties is not so much opinion as position. In 1887 James Russell Lowell' said, "No thoughtful man has been able to see any other difference between the two great parties.. than that the one was in and wished to stay there and the other was out and didn't wish to stay there". It is also true today. Sometimes, however, the Democrats are thought of as associated with labour, and the Republicans with business and industry. Republicans also tend to oppose the greater involvement of the federal government in some areas of public life which they consider to be the responsibility of the states and communities. Democrats, on the other hand, tend to favour a more active role of the central government in social matters.

One of the reasons of the stability of the two-party system is family tradition. Each new generation of Americans inherits its politics and party loyalty from their fathers. National origin plays a role, too. Descendants of northern Europeans tend to the Republican party while those of southern and eastern Europeans prefer the Democratic party.

## **CONGRESS OF THE USA**

Supreme legislative power in the American government lies with Congress, which consists of two chambers or houses - the Senate (the upper house) and the House of Representatives (the lower house). Each state has its own government, following the Washington pattern - State Assemblies or Legislatures with two chambers.

According to the Constitution of the USA, all citizens of both sexes over 18 years of age have a right to vote. There are different demands put to the voters - in some states the voter must be a resident of the state where he votes; he must have paid taxes before voting, etc. Thus in reality the number of voters is much smaller and often even those who can vote do not participate in the election as they do not want to deal with politics.

The main task of Congress is to make laws. The US Constitution also gives Congress the power to impose taxes, to make rules for trade with foreign countries and between states, to coin money, to organize the Armed Forces, to declare war, etc. Another power possessed by Congress is the right to propose amendments to the Constitution whenever two-thirds of both Houses shall consider it necessary. Under the Constitution, the US Senate has some special powers, not given to the House of Representatives. The Senate approves or disapproves major Presidential appointments of such high officials as ambassadors, Cabinet members, and federal judges. The Senate must also ratify, by a two-third vote, treaties between the USA and foreign countries.

The House of Representatives has a special power of its own. Only a member of the House can introduce a bill to raise money, but it must be passed by the Senate before it can become a law.

The Senate is composed of 100 members, two from each of the 50 States, who are elected for a term of six years. Although Congressional elections take place every two years, only one-third of the Senate is re-elected, thereby ensuring continuity.

The Constitution says that a Senator must be at least 30 years old, a citizen of the US for nine years and a resident of the state from which he is elected. The individual seats in the Senate are numbered. Democrats sit in the western part of the chamber - on Vice President's right. Republicans sit on his left. Vice-President presides over the Senate and he conducts debates. The Senate is stabler and more conservative than the House of Representatives, as many Senators are re-elected several times and often they are more experienced politicians.

The House of Representatives, at the present time, has 435 members. The number of Representatives which each state sends to the House depends on its population. The Constitution says that each state, no matter how small in population, must have at least one Representative.

A representative must be at least 25 years of age, a US citizen for several years and live in the state from which he is elected. Congressmen of the House of Representatives do not have individual seats, by tradition Democrats sit on the Speaker's right, Republicans - on his left. The Speaker presides over the House, he conducts debates. The Speaker may vote, but usually he does not do it, except in case of a tie-vote.

Almost all the Congressmen are members of the two big parties. Among Representatives more than 40% are lawyers (Senators - 62%). More than 30% are businessmen and bankers, with a small number of journalists, scientists, landowners, a few trade union representatives.

## **BRITISH CONSTITUTION**

There is no written constitution. A thousand years ago, before the Norman Conquest in 1066, the Anglo-Saxon kings consulted the Great Council (an assembly of the leading men from each district) before taking major decisions. Between 1066 and 1215 the king ruled alone, but in 1215 the nobles forced King John to accept Magna Carta (the Great Charter), which took away some of the King's powers. In later centuries this was seen as the first occasion on which the king was forced to take advice. In 1264 the first parliament of nobles met together. Since then the British Constitution has evolved, in other words, it has grown up slowly, as a result of countless Acts of Parliament. There have

been no violent changes in the constitution since the "bloodless revolution" of 1688. Then, Parliament invited William and Mary to become Britain's first constitutional monarchs. A constitutional monarch is one who can rule only with the support of Parliament, The Bill of Rights (1689) was the first legal step towards constitutional monarchy. This Bill prevented the monarch from making laws or raising an army without Parliament's approval. Since 1689 the power of Parliament has grown steadily, while the power of the monarch has weakened. The Reform Acts of 1832, 1867 and 1884 gave the vote to large numbers of male citizens. Today every man and woman aged eighteen and over has the right to vote.

The British Constitution as an **unwritten** constitution, not being contained in a single legal document, is based on **statutes** and important documents (such as the **Magna Carta**), **case law** (decisions taken by courts of law on constitutional matters), **customs** and **conventions**, and can be modified by a simple Act of Parliament like any other law. It contains two main principles - **the rule of law** (i.e. that everyone, whatever his or her station, is subject to the law) and **the supremacy of Parliament**, which implies that there is no body that can declare the activities of Parliament unconstitutional and that Parliament can in theory do whatever it wishes. The constitutional safeguard of the **separation of powers** between **the Legislature** (the two Houses of Parliament), which makes laws, **the Executive** (the Government), which puts laws into effect and plans policy, and **the Judiciary**, which decides on cases arising out of the laws, is only theoretical.

## CONSTITUTION OF THE USA

The Constitution of the USA was adopted after the War of Independence on September 17, 1787. It lists the set of rules, laws and regulations which provide the practical norms regulating the work of the government. The document embodied the political theories of the Founding Fathers, who represented the interests of a privileged class, as the great majority of those who formulated the Constitution, were men of property. The main principle underlying the Constitution was as follows: private property is the backbone of liberty. It was put forward by a rich plantation owner from Virginia, James Madison, who is known to be the "Father of the Constitution" precisely for this reason.

The Constitution consists of the Preamble and seven articles. Twenty-seven amendments have so far been added to its original text. The first 10 amendments, known as the Bill of Rights, were added in a group in 1791, as a result of growing popular demands. These amendments establish the individual rights and freedoms to all people of the "States, including freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom of worship<sup>1</sup>, the right to peaceful assembly, etc. some of the amendments are now relatively unimportant, but the Fifth Amendment retains its significance in the fight of the American people for their civil rights. It provides that "no person shall be deprived of life, liberty or property, without due process of law", and no person "shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself.

All the amendments adopted by the Congress become an integral part of the Constitution. Mention should be made of some of them. The Thirteenth amendment abolished slavery. The Fourteenth and Fifteenth adopted in 1868 and 1870 defined citizenship and gave the vote to all male citizens, regardless of race, colour or previous condition of servitude<sup>2</sup>. The Nineteenth gave the vote to women, and was adopted in 1920. The Twenty-second amendment, adopted in 1951, makes it impossible for any

President to hold office for more than two terms. The 26th amendment was adopted in 1971, it lowered the voting age to 18 years.

Americans feel that of all freedoms proclaimed in the Constitution there is only one freedom - freedom of enterprise.

## **THE CONSTITUTION OF UKRAINE**

Governed by the Act of Ukraine's Independence of August 24, 1991, the Verkhovna Ra-da of Ukraine on behalf of the Ukrainian people adopted the Constitution - the Fundamental law on June 28, 1996.

The Constitution establishes the country's political system, assures rights, freedoms and citizens, and is the basis for its laws. It asserts that Ukraine is a sovereign and independent, democratic, social, legal state. It is a unitarian state with single citizenship.

Ukraine is a republic. The people are the only source of power which is exercised directly and through the bodies of state power and local self-government.

The state language in Ukraine is Ukrainian.

The state symbols of Ukraine are the State Flag, the State Emblem and the State Anthem of Ukraine. The State Flag is a blue and a yellow banner made from two equal horizontal stripes. The main element of the Great State Emblem of Ukraine is the Sign of the State of Prince Volo-dymyr the Great (the Small State Emblem of Ukraine). The State Anthem of Ukraine is the national anthem with the music of M. Verbytsky.

The capital of Ukraine is Kyiv.

The Constitution states that every person has the right to the free development his/her personality, and has obligations before society where free and full development of the personality is assured. Citizens have equal Constitutional rights and freedoms and are equal before the law. There are no privileges or restrictions based upon (face, color of skin, political and other beliefs, gender, ethnic and social origin) property, ownership, position, place of residence, language, religion.

The articles of the Constitution guarantee the rights to life, personal inviolability of dwelling, noninterference in private and family life free choice of residence, work, rest, education, social security, housing, health protection, medical care and medical insurance, legal assistance, a safe and healthy environment.

Defense of the Motherland, of the independence and territorial integrity of Ukraine, and respect for the state's symbols are the duty of citizens. Citizens of Ukraine perform military services in compliance with the law. No person may damage the environment, cultural heritage.

Every person shall pay taxes and duties in the order and amount determined by law.

The Constitution outlines the structure of the national government and specifies its powers and duties. Under the Constitution the powers of the government are divided into three branches -the legislative which consist of the Verkhovna Rada, the executive, headed by the President, and the judicial, which is led by the Supreme Court,

The parliament - the Verkhovna Rada is the only body of the legislative power in Ukraine. There are 450 people's deputies who are elected for a term of four years on the basis of universal, equal and direct suffrage by secret ballot.

The Verkhovna Rada's main function is making laws. Law drafting work is performed by its Committees. The Verkhovna Rada adopts the State Budget for the period from

January 1 to December 31 and controls the execution of it. The monetary unit of Ukraine is the Hryvnia.

The President of Ukraine is the head of the state and speaks on behalf of it. He is elected by the voters for a term of five years with no more than two full terms.

The highest body of the executive power is the Cabinet of Ministers. It is responsible to the President and is accountable to the Verkhovna Rada. It carries out domestic and foreign policy of the State, the fulfillment of the Constitution, as well as the acts of the President, develops and fulfills national programs on the economic, scientific and technological, social and cultural development of Ukraine.

Justice in Ukraine is exercised entirely by courts. It is administered by the Constitution Court and by courts of general jurisdiction. The Supreme Court of Ukraine is the highest juridical body of general jurisdiction.

The Constitution defines the territorial structure of Ukraine. It is composed of the Autonomous Republic of Crimea, 24 oblasts, rayons, cities, rayons in cities, settlements and villages. Cities of Kyiv and Sevastopol possess a special status determined by law.

The Constitution of Ukraine consists of 15 chapters, 161 articles. The day of its adoption is a state holiday - the Day of the Constitution of Ukraine.