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ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

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Составил: ст. преподаватель Л. Н. Юркевич.

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UNIT I SOCIAL SCIENCES

Social science is the branch of science devoted to the study of the social life of human individuals and how they relate to each other in all types of groups.

The social sciences are those subjects which examine and explain human beings. Sometimes 'social science' and 'behavioral science' are used as equivalents. The major social sciences are Anthropology, Geography, Economics, Politics, Psychology, Linguistics, Archaeology, History, Law and Sociology. Social Work and Youth Work also come / fall under the 'social sciences' umbrella (Figure 1).

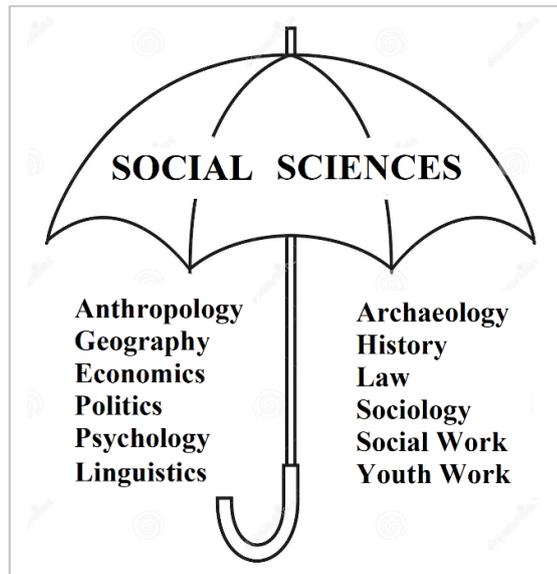


Fig.1. The 'social sciences' umbrella

SOCIAL SCIENCE JOBS

- 1 Work in small groups. List the social science jobs you know.**
- 2 Make sentences using the model below.**

An anthropologist is | a professional engaged in the practice of
a scientist whose area of study is
someone who practices | anthropology.
an expert in
a person who has a special knowledge of |

A geographer – geography; an economist – economics; a politician – politics; a psychologist – psychology; a linguist – linguistics; an archaeologist – archaeology; a historian – history; a lawyer – law; a sociologist – sociology; a social worker – social work; a youth worker – youth work.

- 3 Complete the sentences using job names.**

1) A person who works with young people to facilitate their personal and social development through informal education, care or leisure approaches is a ...

2) A professional who helps individuals and families improve their quality of life by ensuring access to basic needs such as food, shelter and safety is a ...

3) A person who studies society and social behavior by examining the groups, cultures, organizations, social institutions and processes is a ...

4 Read and translate the job descriptions below:

Sociologist: Job Description

Sociologists are social scientists who study human society and social behavior by examining the groups and social institutions that people form, as well as various social, religious, political, and business organizations.

Sociologists study how people interact in society. They design research projects and collect data through surveys, observations, and interviews. They analyze the data to make conclusions that can impact policy decisions or community responses to societal problems, including health, crime, and poverty.

Sociologists are able to work in government departments, scientific services for research and development, consulting firms, and social advocacy organizations.

These professionals may work as teachers, policy analysts, criminologists, demographers, survey researchers, and statisticians.

Social worker: Job Description

Social workers support individuals and their families through difficult times and ensure that vulnerable people are safeguarded from harm.

Social workers' duties involve assessing people's needs and wishes; working with adults, children and families directly to help them make changes and solve problems; organizing support, making recommendations to other services, and keeping detailed records.

Social workers may work with children in care, young offenders, children who are at risk of abuse, children with disabilities – and with their families. They may also work with older people, and people with disabilities.

Social workers are able to work in government departments, correctional facilities, social housing organizations, schools, advocacy organizations, hospitals, nursing homes, etc. These professionals may work as school social workers, consultants, inclusion specialists, human resources managers, and probation officers.

Youth Worker: Job Description

Youth workers help young people develop the skills to make positive changes in their lives. Often, they provide specific services to youth with particular problems. Services might include accommodation, education, training, employment, or counselling. Youth workers may also perform outreach work, run arts-based activities, outdoor education and sporting activities to engage with high-risk young people aged between 11 and 25. They assess the needs of young people to correctly plan and deliver programs related to areas such as health, fitness, smoking, drugs, relationships, violence, and bullying. Youth workers work in partnership with

families, as well as with social care, health, police, education, youth offending teams and local authorities, in order to build a strong support network.

These professionals are mainly employed in council-run community centres, voluntary organizations, youth centres, schools, colleges and other educational institutions. Youth workers may work as facilitators, animators, or coaches.

5 Read the job descriptions in ex. 4 once again, and articulate the similarities and differences between sociologists, social workers and youth workers. Fill in the table “Sociology vs Social Work vs Youth Work”.

	Sociology	Social Work	Youth Work
Similarities			
Differences			

Mind your grammar:

Present Simple Active V / V-s (es) – 3rd person, singular	Present Simple Passive am / is / are + V-ed / V³
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e.g. Sociology, Social Work and Youth Work have some similarities. These disciplines focus on ...

Sociology, Social Work and Youth Work also have differences. Sociology deals with ... Sociologists ... Social Work focuses on ... Social workers ... Youth Work is aimed at ... Youth workers ...

6 What is a sociologist / social worker / youth worker? Give your own definitions of these jobs.

7 Work in small groups. List the qualities that are essential for a future sociologist / social worker / youth worker.

8 Start working on your professional vocabulary. Find useful phrases and terms used in your field of study and arrange them in an alphabetical order. Organize your professional vocabulary in an orderly way:

№	Word	Transcription	Translation	Example
A				
1	allowance	[ə'laʊəns]	денежное пособие	
B				
2	background	['bækgraʊnd]	фон; корни (происхождение)	
C				
3	care	[keə]	забота; уход; попечение	He needs special care. <i>Ему нужен особый уход.</i>

9 Project: MY DREAM JOB

Think of your dream job. Create a project and present it to the group.

It's important to be able to articulate your dream job. Not just for personal reasons, but also for when you're asked about it in job interviews.

These tips will be helpful:

1. Mention your current strengths and skills and how they relate to the job.

Example: "My teachers told me I work well with people and have strong communication skills, so I would like to apply these skills ... I'd also love to improve my ... skills by learning more about ...".

2. Read the job description and mention what interests you.

Example: "I would love to have a job that helps people and makes a difference in their lives. I'm interested in work that ... and ... I would love to be part of a team that finds innovative ways to ...".

3. Mention your values.

Example: "I value teamwork and communication, so I would love to work in a job setting where everyone works together well. I take a positive view, and I guess my coworkers will all benefit from it".

UNIT II SOCIOLOGY

TEXTS FOR SUMMARIZING

TEXT 1 Major Perspectives in Sociology

Sociologists analyze social phenomena from different perspectives: the symbolic interactionist, the functionalist, and the conflict perspectives.

The symbolic interactionist perspective, also known as symbolic interactionism, directs sociologists to consider the symbols and details of everyday life, what these symbols mean, and how people interact with each other. Although symbolic interactionism traces its origins to Max Weber's assertion that individuals act according to their interpretation of the meaning of their world.

According to the symbolic interactionist perspective, people attach meanings to symbols, and then they act according to their subjective interpretation of these symbols. Symbolic interactionists give serious thought to how people act, and then seek to determine what meanings individuals assign to their own actions and symbols, as well as to those of others.

Critics claim that symbolic interactionists may miss the larger issues of society by focusing too closely on the “trees” (for example, the size of the diamond in the wedding ring) rather than the “forest” (for example, the quality of the marriage). The perspective also receives criticism for slighting the influence of social forces and institutions on individual interactions.

According to *the functionalist perspective*, also called functionalism, each aspect of society is interdependent and contributes to society's functioning as a whole. The government, or state, provides education for the children of the family, which in turn pays taxes on which the state depends to keep itself running. That is, the family is dependent upon the school to help children grow up to have good jobs so that they can raise and support their own families. In the process, the children become law-abiding, taxpaying citizens, who in turn support the state. If all goes well, the parts of society produce order, stability, and productivity. If all does not go well, the parts of society then must adapt to recapture a new order, stability, and productivity.

Functionalists believe that society is held together by social consensus. Emile Durkheim suggested that social consensus takes one of two forms: mechanical and organic solidarity. Mechanical solidarity is a form of social cohesion that arises when people in a society maintain similar values and engage in similar types of work. Organic solidarity is a form of social cohesion that arises when the people in a society are interdependent, but hold to varying values and beliefs and engage in varying types of work.

The conflict perspective originated primarily out of Karl Marx's writings on class struggles. It focuses on the negative, conflicted, and ever-changing nature of society. Unlike functionalists who avoid social change, conflict theorists encourage social change, and believe rich and powerful people force social order on the poor and the weak.

Conflict theorists note that unequal groups usually have conflicting values, causing them to compete against one another. This constant competition between groups forms the basis for the ever-changing nature of society. Critics of the conflict perspective point to its negative view of society.

(Retrieved from <https://www.cliffsnotes.com/study-guides/sociology>)

TEXT 2 Social institutions

A social institution is an interrelated system of social roles and social norms, organized around the satisfaction of an important social need or social function. Social institutions are universal. They vary from time to time and across cultures, in terms of complexity, formality and organization. But their basic nature and purpose are similar everywhere.

Sociologists use the term "institution" to describe normative systems that operate in five basic areas of life, which may be designated as the primary social institutions. These five basic institutions are called the family, education, religion, state, and economy.

The institution of family is one of the oldest social institutions on the earth. Although families differ widely around the world, they also share certain common concerns in their everyday lives. The examples of the secondary institutions of family include: the nuclear family (parents and children), the extended family (relatives of parents and children), marriage, divorce, monogamy, polygamy, etc.

The institution of education is responsible for the systematic transmission of knowledge, skills and cultural values within a formally organized structure. It is one of the most influential institutions in contemporary societies. The examples of the secondary institutions of education are schools, colleges, universities and others.

The institution of religion is composed of a unified system of beliefs, symbols, and rituals that guides human behavior, gives meaning to life, and unites believers into a community. The secondary institutions of religion are abbeys, churches, mosques and others.

The institution of state or politics is the distribution system of power and authority which is used to maintain social order. The examples of the secondary institutions of state include democracy, monarchy, political parties and so forth.

The economy is the social institution that organizes the production, distribution, and consumption of a society's goods and services. It consists of three sectors: the primary sector, the secondary sector, and the tertiary sector. The secondary institutions of economics would be banking, businesses, corporations, capitalism, socialism, etc. These institutions, though diverse, are interrelated and interdependent.

(Adapted from

<http://www.uop.edu.pk/ocontents/SOCIAL%20INSTITUTIONS.pdf>)

TEXTS FOR ABSTRACTING

TEXT 1 Family

A family is a group of two or more people who are related by blood, marriage, adoption, or a mutual commitment and who care for one another.

As a social institution, the family is a universal phenomenon. Many types of families exist now, such as nuclear family, extended families, one-parent families, etc. The nuclear family has existed in most societies with which scholars are familiar. An extended family, which consists of parents, their children, and other relatives, has a nuclear family at its core and was quite common in prehistoric societies. Many one-parent families begin as two-parent nuclear families that dissolve upon divorce or the death of one of the parents.

Sociological perspectives on the family fall into functional, conflict, and social interactionist approaches. Functional theory emphasizes the several functions that families serve for society, including the socialization of children and the economic support of family members. Conflict theory emphasizes the ways in which nuclear families contribute to ongoing gender, class, and race inequality. Social interactionist approaches examine family communication and interaction to make sense of family life.

During the American colonial period, different family types abounded, and the nuclear family was by no means the only type. Nomadic Native American groups had relatively small nuclear families, while Nonnomadic groups had larger extended families.

Moving much forward in US history, an important change in American families occurred during the 1940s after World War II ended. As men came home after serving in the military in Europe and Japan, books, magazines, and newspapers exhorted women to have babies. People got married and the birth rate soared, resulting in the *baby boom generation*. Meanwhile, divorce rates dropped. The national economy thrived as auto and other factory jobs multiplied, and many families for the first time could dream of owning their own homes. Suburbs sprang up, and many families moved to them.

During the 1960s and 1970s, women began to enter the labor force. They did so to increase their families' incomes and to achieve greater self-fulfillment. More than 60 percent of married women with children under 6 years of age are now in the labor force, compared to less than 19 percent in 1960.

Changes in the American family had begun, and along with them various controversies and problems.

TEXT 2 Data Collection Techniques

Social researchers collect data using specific techniques. They fall into two categories – quantitative or qualitative.

Techniques for quantitative data collection include experiments, surveys, content analyses, and existing statistics.

Experiments. There are two main types of experiments: lab-based experiments and natural or field experiments. In a lab setting, the research can be controlled so that more data can be recorded in a certain amount of time. In a natural or field-based experiment, the generation of data cannot be controlled but the information might be considered more accurate since it was collected without interference or intervention by the researcher. To set up a lab-based experiment, sociologists create artificial situations that allow them to manipulate variables. They select a set of people with similar characteristics, such as age, class, race, or education. Those people are divided into two groups. One is the experimental group and the other is the control group. The experimental group is exposed to the independent variable(s) and the control group is not. To test the benefits of tutoring, for example, the sociologist might expose the experimental group of students to tutoring while the control group does not receive tutoring. Then both groups would be tested for differences in performance to see if tutoring had an effect on the experimental group of students.

Surveys. A survey collects data from subjects who respond to a series of questions about behaviours and opinions, often in the form of a questionnaire. The survey is one of the most widely used positivist research methods. The standard survey format allows individuals a level of anonymity in which they can express personal ideas. Surveys give the researcher a picture of what many people think or report doing. Survey researchers often use a sample or a smaller group of selected people (e.g., 150 students), but generalize results to a larger group (e.g., 5,000 students) from which the smaller group was selected.

Content Analyses. A content analysis is a technique for examining information, or content, in written or symbolic material (e.g., pictures, movies, etc.). In content analysis, a researcher first identifies a body of material to analyze (e.g., books, newspapers, films, etc.) and then creates a system for recording specific aspects of it. The system might include counting how often certain words or themes occur. Finally,

the researcher records what was found in the material. Researchers can use content analysis for exploratory and explanatory research, but primarily it is used for descriptive research.

Existing Statistics. Sometimes sociologists do not gather their own data but instead analyze existing data that someone else has gathered. The U.S. Census Bureau, for example, gathers data on all kinds of areas relevant to the lives of Americans, and many sociologists analyze census data on such topics as poverty, employment, and illness. In existing statistics research, a researcher locates previously collected information, then reorganizes the information in new ways to address a research question. Existing statistics research is most frequently used for descriptive research.

Techniques for qualitative data collection include *field research* and *historical-comparative research*.

Field Research. Sociologists seldom study subjects in their own offices or laboratories. Rather, sociologists go out into the world. Field research refers to gathering primary data from a natural environment without doing a lab experiment or a survey. It is a research method suited to an interpretive approach rather than to positivist approaches. To conduct field research, the sociologist must be willing to step into new environments and observe, participate, or experience those worlds. In fieldwork, the sociologists, rather than the subjects, are the ones out of their element. The researcher interacts with or observes a person or people, gathering data along the way. The key point in field research is that it takes place in the subject's natural environment, whether it's a coffee shop or tribal village, a homeless shelter or a care home, a hospital, airport, mall, or beach resort.

Historical-Comparative Research. Historical-comparative researchers put historical time and cross-cultural variation at the center of the research question, data collection and data analysis. Using these methods requires developing a thorough knowledge of the history and culture surrounding your research question. Researchers often gather a wide array of evidence, including existing statistics and documents (e.g., novels, official reports, books, newspapers, diaries, photographs, and maps) for study. In addition, they may make direct observations and conduct interviews. Many classic historical-comparative studies examine large-scale processes such as the transition to capitalism or the formation of modern states. Others study more specific social or cultural processes, such as the emergence of the working class or the professionalization of medicine.

TEXTS FOR RETELLING

TEXT 1 Sociology as a Social Science

Sociology is one of the core disciplines of the social sciences. Sociology studies human societies, their interactions, and the processes that preserve and change them. It does this by examining the dynamics of such parts of societies as institutions, communities, populations, gender, race, and age groups. Among the most basic institutions are economic, religious, educational, and political institutions, as well as more specialized institutions such as the family, the community, the military, peer groups, clubs, and volunteer associations. Sociology also studies social status or stratification, social movements, and social change, as well as societal disorder in the form of crime, deviance, and revolution.

Sociology can help us understand the social forces that affect our behavior, beliefs, and life chances. Sociology as a social science relies on systematic research that follows the standard rules of the scientific method. The methods of inquiry and the models of explanation include quantitative analysis of large data sets ('large-N' approach), qualitative analysis of a small number of cases in depth ('small-N' approach), micro-sociological investigation, process-tracing, functionalism, structuralism, and others.

Sociology, as a generalizing social science, has close relationship with all other social sciences – anthropology, economics, political science, and others. Anthropology provides knowledge about ancient societies. Economics studies the economic activities of people. Political science studies politically organized society. Psychology studies mental processes. Thus, all these disciplines use research to understand various aspects of human thought and behavior. Sociology's distinguishing feature is its practice of drawing on a larger societal context to explain social phenomena.

TEXT 2 Sociological Theorists

Sociologists study society, and they develop theories to explain social occurrences. The main sociological theories are *structural functionalism*, *conflict theory* and *symbolic interactionism*. Structural functionalism and conflict theory attempt to explain how societies operate as a whole. Symbolic interactionism focuses on interactions between individuals.

Structural functionalism grew out of the writings of **Herbert Spencer** (1820–1903), who compared society to a living organism with interdependent parts – the social institutions. Spencer used the Darwin's concept of evolution of animals to explain how societies change over time. **Emile Durkheim** (1858–1917) applied Spencer's theory to explain how societies change over time. He was the first one who

applied scientific methods to sociology. He formulated his conclusions about the causes of suicide based on the analysis of large amounts of statistical data collected from various European countries.

Karl Marx (1818–1883) is believed to be the father of *conflict theory*, in which social conflict refers to the struggle for limited resources. Marx claimed that economic inequalities cause conflict. Some individuals and organizations are able to obtain more resources than others, and they use their power to maintain social institutions. **Weber** (1864–1920) agreed with Marx but also believed that, in addition to economic inequalities, inequalities of political power and social structure cause conflict. He suggested his method of ‘empathetic understanding’ which allows sociologists to interpret individuals’ behaviors.

George Herbert Mead (1863–1931) is considered a founder of *symbolic interactionism* which focuses on the relationships among individuals within a society. According to Mead, consciousness is not separated from action and interaction, but is an integral part of both. Mead focused on ‘the self’ which is developed through three activities: language, play, and game.

Among the most influential contemporary sociologists are Robert Merton, Erving Goffman, Pierre Bourdieu and others. **Merton** developed notable concepts, such as ‘unintended consequences’, ‘reference group’, ‘role model’ and “self-fulfilling prophecy”. **Goffman** developed such sociological perspective as dramaturgy. **Bourdieu** introduced such concepts as ‘cultural, social, and symbolic forms of capital’, the ‘cultural reproduction’, the ‘habitus’, the ‘field or location’ and ‘symbolic violence’.

Sociological theories are important because they give us ways to interpret various behaviors. Many of the facts that we take for granted about ourselves as human beings have come to us through the study of sociological theories.

UNIT III SOCIAL WORK

TEXTS FOR SUMMARIZING

TEXT 1 Social service

Robert A. Pinker, Encyclopaedia Britannica

Social service, also called welfare service or social work, is any of numerous publicly or privately provided services intended to aid disadvantaged, distressed, or vulnerable persons or groups. The term social service also denotes the profession engaged in rendering such services. The social services have flourished in the 20th century as ideas of social responsibility have developed and spread.

The basic concerns of social welfare – poverty, disability and disease, the dependent young and elderly – are as old as society itself. The laws of survival once severely limited the means by which these concerns could be addressed; to share another's burden meant to weaken one's own standing in the fierce struggle of daily existence. As societies developed, however, with their patterns of dependence between members, there arose more systematic responses to the factors that rendered individuals, and thus society at large, vulnerable.

Religion and philosophy have tended to provide frameworks for the conduct of social welfare. The edicts of the Buddhist emperor Asoka in India, the sociopolitical doctrines of ancient Greece and Rome, and the simple rules of the early Christian communities are only a few examples of systems that addressed social needs. The Elizabethan Poor Laws in England, which sought relief of paupers through care services and workhouses administered at the parish level, provided precedents for many modern legislative responses to poverty. In Victorian times a more stringent legal view of poverty as a moral failing was met with the rise of humanitarianism and a proliferation of social reformers. The social charities and philanthropic societies founded by these pioneers formed the basis for many of today's welfare services. Because perceived needs and the ability to address them determine each society's range of welfare services, there exists no universal vocabulary of social welfare.

In some countries a distinction is drawn between "social services," denoting programs, such as health care and education, that serve the general population, and "welfare services", denoting aid directed to vulnerable groups, such as the poor, the disabled, or the delinquent. According to another classification, remedial services address the basic needs of individuals in acute or chronic distress; preventive services seek to reduce the pressures and obstacles that cause such distress; and supportive services attempt, through educational, health, employment, and other programs, to maintain and improve the functioning of individuals in society. Social welfare services originated as emergency measures that were to be applied when all else

failed. However, they are now generally regarded as a means of fostering a society's ongoing, corporate well-being.

The majority of personal social services are rendered on an individual basis to people who are unable, whether temporarily or permanently, to cope with the problems of everyday living. Recipients include families faced with loss of income, desertion, or illness; children and youths whose physical or moral welfare is at risk; the sick; the disabled; the frail elderly; and the unemployed. When possible, services are also directed toward preventing threats to personal or family independence.

Social services generally place a high value on keeping families together in their local communities, organizing support from friends or neighbours when kinship ties are weak. Where necessary, the services provide substitute forms of home life or residential care, and play a key role in the care and control of juvenile delinquents and other socially deviant groups, such as drug and alcohol abusers.

TEXT 2 Major areas of concern

Social worker client groups can include families, children and young people, the elderly, groups of persons, and communities. The social services in different societies offer assistance to them with variable programs.

Family welfare

Family welfare programs seek to preserve and strengthen the family unit. Personal assistance services include marriage counseling; maternal, prenatal, and infant care programs; family planning services; family-life education; "home-help" or "homemaker" services; and care of the aged through such programs as in-home meal services, transportation, regular visitation, and reduced-cost medicines.

Child welfare

A paramount concern in all family welfare programs is the welfare of children. Income assistance to parents may help ensure the basic security of the family structure. Maternal, prenatal, and child health-care programs are important in all societies but especially so in those affected by widespread disease and malnutrition; infant and maternal mortality rates are in fact the most basic indexes of child welfare. The increasing number of working mothers worldwide has given rise to day-care services ranging from simple custodial supervision to educational and health-care programs. The child-welfare programs must also address the special needs of unwed mothers and their children, broken families, foster families, and children whose families are sources of abuse and neglect.

Youth welfare

The aim of most social welfare services for young people is to prepare them for the assumption of responsible roles in the adult world. The majority of programs provide adult-supervised leisure-time group activities, which may range from cultural

events to hiking and camping. Participation in such programs is high in most European countries. The former Soviet youth organizations, called Pioneers and Komsomol, were the largest in the world. Some programs, such as Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, have spread nearly worldwide, stimulating the formation of similar groups tailored to local needs. While the above services are intended to provide constructive outlets for the energies of young people, there remain many destructive influences in society. Social services have directed increasing attention to the problem of delinquency in an effort to provide alternatives to the traditional juvenile court / institutional methods of control.

Welfare of the elderly

The elderly now constitute the largest single client group using personal social services worldwide. Because social care for the elderly is often labour-intensive, most countries give full support to the promotion of family care and the expansion and rationalization of informal care on a voluntary or quasi-voluntary basis. Services include transportation, friendly visiting, home delivery of hot meals, nurse visitation, and reduced-cost medical supplies. Senior centres sponsor group activities such as crafts, entertainment, outings, and meals on a regular basis. Nursing homes, variously funded, provide medical and custodial care for those who are unable to live independently.

Group welfare

The settlement movement arose in response to the collective needs of deprived urban communities. Settlement houses today, and similar organizations, seek to promote the common welfare of local groups that may differ in language, national origin, race, or religion. In addition to educational and cultural programs, settlements may offer legal advocacy, recreational activities, and health clinics to refugees forced from their homes.

Welfare of the sick and disabled

In some countries, medical social workers are local-authority social workers who have been attached to hospitals. They provide the counseling and other supportive services required by the physically ill and the disabled and their families. Personal social services make arrangements for domiciliary care in the form of regular visits from home-helpers and occupational therapists; special appliances and home adaptations are supplied either by personal social services or by health services. In the case of severely disabled people personal social services run day-care centres to provide relief for family care providers and small residential homes for the most dependent disabled when they no longer require hospital care.

(Adapted from "Social service", Encyclopaedia Britannica)

TEXTS FOR ABSTRACTING

TEXT 1 English Poor Laws: Historical Precedents of Tax-Supported Relief for the Poor

In 1601, England was experiencing a severe economic depression, with large scale unemployment and widespread famine. Queen Elizabeth proclaimed a set of laws designed to maintain order and contribute to the general good of the kingdom: **the English Poor Laws**. These laws remained in force for more than 250 years with only minor changes. Essentially, the laws distinguished three major categories of dependents: the vagrant, the involuntary unemployed, and the helpless. The laws also set forth ways and means for dealing with each category of dependents. Most important, the laws established the parish (i.e. local government), acting through an overseer of the poor appointed by local officials, as the administrative unit for executing the law.

The poor laws gave the local government the power to raise taxes as needed and use the funds to build and maintain almshouses; to provide indoor relief (i.e. cash or sustenance) for the aged, handicapped and other worthy poor; and the tools and materials required to put the unemployed to work. Parents were required to support their children and grandchildren. Likewise, children were responsible for the care of their unemployable parents and grandparents. Children whose parents could not support them were forced into mandatory apprenticeships. They had no right to object to the compensation or the interference with their own child-rearing activities. Vagrants and any able-bodied persons who refused to work could be committed to a house of correction or fined.

In response to concerns that dependent persons would move to parishes where financial assistance was more generous, in 1662 a severe Law of Settlement and Removal was enacted in England. The law made it possible for local authorities to force individuals and families to leave a town and return to their home parish if they became dependent. In effect, this law allowed a local government to restrict aid only to persons and families known to be “residents.”

The American colonies and state governments modeled their public assistance for the poor on the Elizabethan Poor Laws and the Law of Settlement and Removal.

TEXT 2 The NASW Code of Ethics

The National Association of Social Workers (NASW) is a professional organization of social workers in the United States. The NASW Code of Ethics summarizes broad ethical principles that reflect the profession’s core values and establishes a set of specific ethical standards that should be used to guide social work practice.

The following broad ethical principles are based on social work's core values of *service, social justice, dignity and worth of the person, importance of human relationships, integrity, and competence.*

Service

Ethical Principle: Social workers' primary goal is to help people in need and to address social problems. Social workers elevate service to others above self-interest. Social workers draw on their knowledge, values, and skills to help people in need and to address social problems. Social workers are encouraged to volunteer some portion of their professional skills with no expectation of significant financial return (pro bono service).

Social Justice

Ethical Principle: Social workers challenge social injustice. Social workers pursue social change, particularly with and on behalf of vulnerable and oppressed individuals and groups of people. Social workers' social change efforts are focused primarily on issues of poverty, unemployment, discrimination, and other forms of social injustice. These activities seek to promote sensitivity to and knowledge about oppression and cultural and ethnic diversity. Social workers strive to ensure access to needed information, services, and resources; equality of opportunity; and meaningful participation in decision making for all people.

Dignity and Worth of the Person

Ethical Principle: Social workers respect the inherent dignity and worth of the person. Social workers treat each person in a caring and respectful fashion, mindful of individual differences and cultural and ethnic diversity. Social workers promote clients' socially responsible self-determination. Social workers seek to enhance clients' capacity and opportunity to change and to address their own needs. Social workers are cognizant of their dual responsibility to clients' interests and the broader society's interests in a socially responsible manner consistent with the values, ethical principles, and ethical standards of the profession.

Importance of Human Relationships

Ethical Principle: Social workers recognize the central importance of human relationships. Social workers understand that relationships between and among people are an important vehicle for change. Social workers engage people as partners in the helping process. Social workers seek to strengthen relationships among people in a purposeful effort to promote, restore, maintain, and enhance the well-being of individuals, families, social groups, organizations, and communities.

Integrity

Ethical Principle: Social workers behave in a trustworthy manner. Social workers are continually aware of the profession's mission, values, ethical principles, and ethical standards and practice in a manner consistent with them. Social workers

act honestly and responsibly and promote ethical practices on the part of the organizations with which they are affiliated.

Competence

Ethical Principle: Social workers practice within their areas of competence and develop and enhance their professional expertise. Social workers continually strive to increase their professional knowledge and skills and to apply them in practice. Social workers should aspire to contribute to the knowledge base of the profession.

TEXTS FOR RETELLING

TEXT 1 Social work

Social work is not a science, but it is informed by social science. Social workers rely on social scientific research to promote change.

Social work is a profession concerned with helping individuals, families, groups and communities to enhance their individual and collective well-being.

The social work profession originated in volunteer efforts to address the social issues during the late 19th century. As poverty was the main focus of early social work, it was linked with the idea of charity work. By 1900, working for social betterment had become an occupation, and by the 1930s social work achieved professional status.

Many reformers have contributed to social work.

Helen Bosanquet and **Octavia Hill** were English social reformers, concerned with poverty, working-class life, and social work practices. They worked closely with the Charity Organisation Society and pioneered a home-visiting service that formed the basis for modern social work.

Samuel Barnett founded the first settlement house in London, known as Toynbee Hall, in 1884. Toynbee Hall served as a center for social reform.

Addams and **Starr** followed the example of Toynbee Hall and founded the first settlement home in the USA, known as Chicago's Hull House, in 1889. It served as a center to educate and provide services to the poor. In addition to her work at the Hull house, Addams contributed to the Women's Suffrage movement, the anti-war movement, urban sanitation reform, and much more.

Ida B. Wells was an American investigative journalist, educator, and early leader in the civil rights movement. She was very active in racial issues such as the lynching of African Americans. Wells created the National Association of Colored Women, the Alpha Suffrage Club and more.

Mahatma Gandhi was an Indian lawyer who led his country to freedom from British colonial rule in 1947. He is most famous for his philosophy of nonviolence

that has inspired civil rights leaders around the world. Gandhi housed, taught and advocated for the poor throughout his life.

Social workers of the 21st century might be engaged in many tasks, including counselling, supervising, educating, monitoring and evaluating. They should be prepared for practice in the globalized context.

TEXT 2 Social movements

A social movement is an organized effort by a grouping of individuals or organizations to achieve a particular goal, typically a social or political one. It is a type of group action aimed at social changes.

Sociologists distinguish between several types of social movements: reform and radical, peaceful and violent movements, etc.

A *reform movement* advocates changing some norms or laws. The Green movement advocating a set of ecological laws is an example of such a movement.

A *radical or revolutionary movement* is an attempt to change government, regime, or society in a fundamental way. Examples would include The Great October Socialist Revolution of 1917, the Chinese Revolution of 1949, etc.

Peaceful movements are various movements which use nonviolent means of protest. Possible examples of non-violent protests are the sit-ins, boycotts, and marches. The Women's Suffrage Parade of 1913 would fall into this category.

Violent movements are usually armed and can take a form of a terrorist organization, such as Al-Qaida.

Most of the oldest recognized movements fought for specific social groups, such as the slaves, whites, women, etc. They were usually centered around some materialistic goals like improving the standard of living. For example, anti-slavery movements dating back to the 17-19th centuries. In the 20th century some new movements, such as peace, environmental, feminist and LGBT rights movements emerged. "Black Lives Matter" is a notable example of the 21st century movement.

UNIT IV YOUTH WORK

TEXTS FOR SUMMARIZING

TEXT 1 Youth Work, a very diverse field of practice

Youth work is multifaceted practice. This makes it difficult to identify the defining features of youth work. In some countries ‘youth work’ is a relatively well-defined, distinct practice. In other countries (especially in southern European countries), the term is less known and there is no identifiable overall concept of youth work. In all countries however we observe a distinct, but diverse field of social and educational practices shaping a so called ‘third socialisation environment’, next to family and school.

Regarding the target group of youth work it can be observed that in a number of countries youth work is restricted to the work with young people (15-25 years), in other countries (e.g. Belgium, Germany) there is no strong distinction between children’s work and youth work. In most countries there is a clear tendency to take a broad perspective on youth work integrating differentiated practices, with different target groups and varying aims.

In the resolution on a renewed framework for European cooperation in the youth field (2009) youth work has been defined in such a way: “Youth work is a broad term covering a large scope of activities of a social, cultural, educational or political nature both by, with and for young people. Increasingly, such activities also include sport and services for young people. Youth work belongs to the area of ‘out-of-school’ education, as well as specific leisure time activities managed by professional or voluntary youth workers and youth leaders and is based on non-formal learning processes and on voluntary participation”.

A common feature of all these practices is the use of methods of non-formal education and the emphasis on voluntary participation. These two characteristics distinguish youth work from other educational interventions, be it interventions in the private sphere of the family or interventions in the public, formal institutions like schools. Youth work starts where young people are and does not have to bother with pre-structured programmes or predefined learning outcomes. At the same time youth work is committed to the social inclusion and integration of young people.

There seems to be a shared set of values and methods in youth work practices all around Europe:

- Voluntary participation of young people;
- Listening to the voice of young people;
- Bringing young people together;
- Connecting to young people’s life world;
- Broadening young people’s life world.

This ambition to broaden the life world of young people is often transformed into social inclusion strategies in which exclusion is supposed to be caused by a lack of participation in pre-structured activities.

There is yet another paradox that stems from one of the other shared youth work values: voluntary participation. It is generally assumed that youth work contributes to young people's social and democratic skills and attitudes. At the same time, however, it is noticed that youth work seems to draw dividing lines between young people. There are few practices where black and white, poor and rich, low-skilled and well-educated, religious and non-religious, disabled and non-disabled, left-wing and right-wing, disco freaks and metalheads, ... are brought together. This is a huge challenge for youth workers: making young people feeling at home, belonging to a group and at the same time building bridges between different groups.

(Retrieved from <https://pjp-eu.coe.int/en/web/youth-partnership/youth-work1>)

TEXT 2 So what does a youth worker do, exactly?

The Guardian,

Fiona Blacke

Youth workers help young people with a whole range of issues from behavioural difficulties to teenage pregnancy. But what's an average day like and what skills do you need?

Traditionally, the youth worker has been a standalone role incorporated into the services offered by local authorities. Now, there is a breadth of jobs and sectors where working with young people plays a dominant role, and where the skills and knowledge of youth workers are in demand; from criminal justice to social care, across the private and voluntary sectors.

Ultimately, all youth work has one key aim – to help young people's emotional and social development in an informal setting but through educational processes. By developing supportive relationships with young people, and opening their eyes to new experiences, youth workers foster increased confidence, ambition and empathy. This prepares them to make a positive contribution to society in adult life. Youth workers tackle a whole spectrum of issues, from behavioural difficulties to teenage pregnancy.

There are essential attributes that all youth workers need – energy, patience and creativity are paramount. And now more than ever, a positive approach to collaboration with other organisations is key. This is especially true in the public sector, where resources are limited and services are being outsourced.

To qualify, youth workers complete a three-year degree in youth work or community studies. The National Youth Agency offers information on accredited

courses in England and Wales. Some universities allow students to study part-time, while also undertaking youth work part-time.

But recent changes to the way higher education youth work courses are funded means that places are more expensive, so universities are using increasingly rigorous selection criteria. Ultimately this means youth work is a more competitive education choice.

Anyone considering a career in youth work should identify the kind of organisation they may eventually want to work with – for example, a youth centre, a housing association or a young offenders’ organisation – and volunteer or work part-time there. If volunteering is only available on a short-term basis then build up a portfolio of experience by spending time with a range of similar organisations. The youth work course is very practical, so relevant experience will equip you with crucial understanding and creative ideas to show off at the interview stage. A distinct vision of where you want your career to go will also show your commitment to youth work.

A day in the life of a youth worker

Kevin Mullins, who won ‘Youth Worker of the Year 2012’, works part-time with young people in a high-school-based youth centre in Luton. He says:

“A normal working day is a mixture of admin, project planning, facilities management at the youth centre and face-to-face work with young people.

Typically, my mornings are taken up with preparation for upcoming projects. One of my current projects involves exploring beliefs and values with the school’s year 10 group (aged 14-15). I am working with these young people to research and debate arguments for and against abortion and capital punishment. This project aims to raise their awareness of controversial issues and give them the tools to engage in debate while addressing their own feelings on the topics.

In the afternoons, I often spend time in one-to-one mentoring sessions, listening and advising young people who need additional behavioural support. Inevitably there is admin that requires attention, so I try to catch up on emails before after-school sessions. After school I run sexual health sessions with years 10 and 11, exploring issues such as sex and the law.

Being a youth worker is not a nine-to-five job. In the evenings I regularly spend time catching up with young people on issues affecting the local housing estate. At the moment I am delivering workshops on stereotypes and prejudices, establishing where stereotypes originate from and how to challenge them.

Providing positive, engaging activities and continuing to create opportunities for exploring, addressing and tackling the issues which affect young people makes this a very challenging but incredibly rewarding role”.

TEXTS FOR ABSTRACTING

TEXT 1 The making of popular youth work

Children and young people have engaged in highly institutionalized but often informal forms of self-organized amusement for centuries. Perhaps the most obvious and universal of these are the games of the street and field such as football and pitch and toss, or amusements such as skipping and gambling.

Some street activities such as the ‘monkey parade’ on weekend evenings were deliberately mixed: “Girls resort to Oldham Street on a Sunday night, in nearly as large numbers as the boys. The boys exchange rough salutations with the girls, who seem in no way less vigorous than the boys themselves, and whose chief desire, one would think, was to pluck from the lads’ button-holes, the flowers which many of them wear”.

In addition to the street, there are also many examples of mutual aid, of how young people organized themselves. Early youth organizations were no exception in this respect. There were a number of instances where groups of young men (and young women) came together and attempted to find an adult leader so that they might become an official Scout pack. The boys’ club movement boasts the celebrated example of ‘The Dead house’, a group of young men who organized their own club in 1909, largely around football, in East London.

Aside from what working-class young people organized for themselves, there was also a considerable tradition of working-class adult provision aimed at young people. Of central importance here was *the Sunday School*. Three-quarters of working-class children were attending such schools in 1851. The key element in the success of Sunday Schools was that they provided the education and expressed the values that working-class parents wanted for their children. Sunday Schools were used not simply to improve literacy and religious knowledge, but also, arguably, to enhance the culture of working-class life. Sunday Schools paralleled other working-class institutions such as Friendly Societies, trade unions and savings banks.

Churches and Chapels also provided a forum for leisure. Services and associated activities had the special advantage of being one of the few organized and ‘respectable’ social occasions where sex segregation was not imposed. By the 1890s Joseph Lawson was able to write: “Chapels are now more inviting – have better music – service of song – which cannot help being attractive to the young as well as beneficial to all. They have sewing classes, bazaars, concerts, and the drama; cricket and football clubs, and harriers; societies for mutual improvement and excursions to the seaside”.

Some late nineteenth-century socialist organizations made specific provision for young people. *The Clarion Scouts*, started by Robert Blatchford in 1894 as

groupings of young socialist pioneers, claimed by 1896 to have 120 clubs with 7000 members.

For the most part these forms of young people's organizations did not have the degree of formality or structure that the middle-class sponsors of youth work would have recognized as their own. They did not conform to the paradigms of the 'youth organization' that existed. Nor were there the 'adults of good example' or 'ladies of culture' except, perhaps, in the case of some of the Sunday Schools. Nor did they, for the most part, exhibit the qualities associated with the new 'science of charity', so powerfully extolled by organizations such as the Charity Organization Society (COS).

TEXT 2 Young people: a readily identifiable group

Young people constitute a readily identifiable group with a distinctive perspective on life, a discernible culture, and an important contribution to make to the progress and development of society. Young people have common needs and common interests.

There is no universally agreed definition of youth. However, for statistical purposes, the Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs of the United Nations defines persons between the ages of 15 and 24 years of age as youth. Some specialists consider youth to be persons between the ages of 14 and 28. The chronological definition varies from nation to nation and from culture to culture.

Young people are more likely to live in urban areas than the rest of the population. This tendency is considered to be a reflection of the migration of young people from rural to urban areas for employment, education and other opportunities.

Young people occupy a unique social position. They are active agents of the process of social change and they often suffer as a result of it. Many of their attitudes and values derive from problems which they encounter and their membership in other social groupings, groupings based on social class, gender, ethnicity, religion and culture. To this extent, their experience and their interests diverge. Youth policy should endeavour to ensure equal opportunity and accommodate these twin perspectives.

In any community, in different degrees, young people encounter difficult problems which derive not from their own inadequacies nor in many cases from those of their education, but from changing economic situations, rapid technological change, the application of inefficient economic theories, rapid growth of armaments, etc.

The full participation of youth in the life of a nation is important for the achievement of social justice and the attainment of objectives of national development. In spite of that, it has become increasingly evident that far too many young people have been left at the margin of society. In many countries, young

people are on the periphery of the major political, economic and social structures. Of course, the degree of marginalization differs according to the national context, but its severity would appear to be greatest in developing countries, where many young people live in extremely precarious conditions. Whereas some young people continue to have serious difficulties in finding a job, especially in the more developed countries.

Social problems such as alcohol and drug abuse and juvenile delinquency are linked to marginalization although the cause and effect is not easily determined. Any effort directed at integrating young people into society must take into account these and similar problems. Young people continue to live in poverty, suffer from squalor, disease and illiteracy and thus lead a subhuman existence, constituting in itself a denial of human dignity.

There is an ever-widening gap between the standards of living of young people in the economically developed and in the developing countries. We have to recognize the collective responsibility of the international community to ensure the attainment of the minimum standard of living necessary for the enjoyment of their rights and fundamental freedoms by young people throughout the world.

Young people, like all human beings, have an inherent right to life. The safeguarding of this cardinal right is an essential condition for the enjoyment of the entire range of economic, social and cultural, as well as civil and political rights, by the world's population of young people.

The inherent dignity and the equal and inalienable rights of young people, as members of the human family, are recognized by the Charter of the United Nations, by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, by many other important international documents and by the Constitution of States. They should be fully observed.

TEXTS FOR RETELLING

TEXT 1 Youth work

Youth work belongs to the area of informal education. This community support activity is aimed at older children and adolescents. Youth work contributes to young peoples' learning and development. The purpose of youth work is to enable young people to develop their voice, influence and place in society and to reach their full potential.

Effective youth work takes place in a wide range of settings: youth clubs, voluntary organisations, and other youth groups. These groups are managed by youth workers and youth leaders.

A youth worker should be enthusiastic and patient. He should understand young people and have a positive view of them. It is important that youth workers are clear about their duties.

The main duties include: building relationships with young people; providing guidance and support to youths through teaching and mentoring; setting up and running projects; collaborating with other organizations, such as the police, schools and community groups and much more.

Practical youth work activities are the heart of any youth group. These include sports games, team-building exercises, arts, different issue based activities related to areas such as health, fitness, smoking, drugs, gangs, violence, relationships and bullying.

Youth work is a career that can be very rewarding; it can help change thousands of lives for the better and that is extraordinary.

TEXT 2 Volunteering

Volunteering is unpaid work that is willingly performed for formal or, in some cases, informal organizations.

The term “volunteer” is derived from the French ‘*volontaire*’. It was first used in 1755 in direct connection to “offering oneself for military service”.

Altruism, ideology are the major reasons for volunteering. Many people volunteer to make friends and to sustain friendships. Adults usually volunteer in order to develop new skills, to gain experience, or to make useful professional contacts.

The roles that volunteers perform are varied. Many assignments involve one-to-one service to individuals. Other assignments involve assistance to groups such as coaching, interpreting museum exhibits to visitors, food preparation, etc.

In the 19th century we began seeing examples of organized volunteering, such as the YMCA and the Red Cross. The 20th century was marked with the establishment of such voluntary organizations as the Peace Corps, the Rotary Club, and the Lions Club. Nowadays, volunteering is widespread.

Volunteers of America is a national, nonprofit organization that provides social services to the elderly, to families, to the homeless to children and youth. The Foster Grandparents Program serves children and youth with special needs. International Executive Service Corp is a nonprofit organization that provides assistance to small and medium-sized businesses in many countries. Literacy Volunteers of America is a volunteer network that serves adults of all ages. Volunteers teach both basic literacy and English for speakers of other languages.

The Internet has played a huge role in engaging volunteers, allowing people to find opportunities in their own communities through online resources such as Volunteer Match. It’s also created the possibility of virtual volunteering, where organizations can utilize the skills of volunteers anywhere in the world. Another growing trend is microvolunteering, in which people volunteer to perform small tasks online.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING MATERIALS

The Origins of Sociology

Sociologists believe that our social surroundings influence thought and action. For example, the rise of the social sciences developed in response to social changes. In the 16th and 17th centuries, Europeans were exploring the world and voyagers returned from Asia, the Americas, Africa, and the South Seas with amazing stories of other societies and civilizations.

In the 18th and 19th centuries, Western Europe was rocked by technical, economic, and social changes that forever changed the social order. Science and technology were developing rapidly. These scientific developments spurred social changes and offered hope that scientific methods might help explain the social as well as the natural world. This trend was part of a more general growth in rationalism.

The industrial revolution began in Britain in the late 18th century. By the late 19th century, the old order was collapsing “under the twin blows of industrialism and revolutionary democracy”. The traditional authority of the church, the village, and the family were being undermined by impersonal factory and city life. Capitalism also grew in Western Europe in the 19th century. This meant that relatively few people owned the means of production – such as factories – while many others had to sell their labor to those owners. At the same time, relatively impersonal financial markets began to expand. The epoch was also marked by the development of administrative state power, which involved increasing concentrations of information and armed power.

Finally, there was enormous population growth worldwide in this period.

These massive social changes lent new urgency to the development of the social sciences. All the major figures in the early years of sociology thought about the “great transformation” from simple, preliterate societies to massive, complex, industrial societies.

Social Interaction

A fundamental feature of social life is social interaction, or the ways in which people act with other people. Socialization results from our social interaction. The reverse is also true: we learn how to interact from our socialization.

Effective social interaction rests on our understanding of the roles expected of people. Roles help us interact and help make social order possible, they may even shape our personalities.

Emotions play an essential role in social interaction, and social interaction gives rise to emotions. The fact that emotions such as fear, hate, joy, love are found across the world and in every culture suggests that emotions are part of our human

nature. In contrast to the evolutionary approach, a sociological approach emphasizes that emotions are socially constructed. This means that people learn from their culture and from their social interactions which emotions are appropriate to display in which situations.

Emotions differ across the social classes. Jonathan Turner notes that some emotions, such as happiness and trust, are positive emotions, while other emotions, such as anger, fear, and sadness, are negative emotions. Positive emotions, he says, lead to more successful social interaction and help gain needed resources, while negative emotions have the opposite effect. He adds that positive emotions are more often found among the upper social classes, while negative emotions are more often found among the poorer social classes.

Social interaction is both verbal and nonverbal. Nonverbal communication includes the gestures we use and how far apart we stand when we talk with someone. Body posture is a form of nonverbal communication, and one that often combines with facial expressions to convey how a person feels. People who are angry may cross their arms or stand with their hands on their hips and glare at someone.

Types of Social Movements

Sociologists identify several types of social movements.

One of the most important types of social movements is the *reform movement*, which seeks significant changes in some aspect of a nation's political, economic, or social systems. It does not try to overthrow the existing government but works to improve conditions within the existing regime. The examples of the reform movements are the environmental movement, the contemporary women's movement, etc.

A *revolutionary movement* tries to overthrow the existing government and to bring about a new way of life. Revolutionary movements were common in the past and were responsible for the world's great revolutions in Russia, China, and several other nations. Reform and revolutionary movements are often referred to as political movements.

Another type of political movement is the *reactionary* movement. It tries to block social change or to reverse social changes that have already been achieved. The antiabortion movement is an example of a reactionary movement. Two other types of movements are *self-help movements* and *religious movements*. As their name implies, self-help movements involve people trying to improve aspects of their personal lives; examples of self-help groups include *Alcoholics Anonymous* and *Weight Watchers*. Religious movements aim to convert other people to these beliefs.

Sometimes self-help and religious movements are difficult to distinguish from each other because some self-help groups emphasize religious faith as a vehicle for achieving personal transformation.

Macro and Micro Approaches in Sociology

Although this may be overly simplistic, sociologists' views basically fall into two camps: macrosociology and microsociology. Macrosociologists focus on the big picture, which usually means such things as social structure, social institutions, and social, political, and economic change. They look at the large-scale social forces that change the course of human society and the lives of individuals. Microsociologists, on the other hand, study social interaction. They look at how families, coworkers, and other small groups of people interact; why they interact the way they do; and how they interpret the meanings of their own interactions and of the social settings in which they find themselves. Often macro and microsociologists look at the same phenomena but do so in different ways. Their views taken together offer a fuller understanding of the phenomena than either approach can offer alone.

The different but complementary nature of these two approaches can be seen in the case of armed robbery. Macrosociologists would discuss such things as why robbery rates are higher in poorer communities and whether these rates change with changes in the national economy. Microsociologists would instead focus on such things as why individual robbers decide to commit a robbery and how they select their targets. Both types of approaches give us a valuable understanding of robbery, but together they offer an even richer understanding.

Within the broad macro camp, two perspectives dominate: functionalism and conflict theory. Within the micro camp, two other perspectives exist: symbolic interactionism and utilitarianism (also called rational choice theory or exchange theory).

Theoretical perspective	Major assumptions
Functionalism	Social stability is necessary to have a strong society, and adequate socialization and social integration are necessary to achieve social stability. Society's social institutions perform important functions to help ensure social stability. Slow social change is desirable, but rapid social change threatens social order.
Conflict theory	Society is characterized by pervasive inequality based on social class, gender, and other factors. Far-reaching social change is needed to reduce or eliminate social inequality and to create an egalitarian society.
Symbolic interactionism	People construct their roles as they interact; they do not merely learn the roles that society has set out for them. As this interaction occurs, individuals negotiate their definitions of the situations in which they find themselves and socially construct the reality of these situations. In so doing, they rely heavily on symbols such as words and gestures to reach a shared understanding of their interaction.
Utilitarianism	People act to maximize their advantages in a given situation and to reduce their disadvantages. If they decide that benefits outweigh disadvantages, they will initiate the interaction or continue it if it is already under way. If they instead decide that disadvantages outweigh benefits, they will decline to begin interacting or stop the interaction if already begun. Social order is possible because people realize it will be in their best interests to cooperate and to make compromises when necessary.

What is a Sociologist?

Sociology is the study of how society affects people, and how people affect society. The dictionary defines sociology as "the systematic study of society and social interaction". The word "sociology" comes from the Latin word *socius* (companion) and the Greek word *logos* (speech or reason), which when put together mean "reasoned speech about companionship". The term sociology was first used by Frenchman Auguste Comte in the 1830s when he proposed a synthetic science uniting all knowledge about human activity.

Sociologists study all things human, from the interactions between two people to the complex relationships between nations or multinational corporations. While sociology assumes that human actions are patterned, individuals still have room for choices. Becoming aware of the social processes that influence the way humans think, feel, and behave plus having the will to act can help individuals to shape the social forces they face.

Sociologists use a variety of methods to study society and social behaviour. They examine groups, cultures, organizations, social institutions, and processes that people develop and apply these to the real world. Most sociologists work in research organizations, colleges and universities, regional and federal government, and consulting service firms. Educators, lawmakers, administrators, and social workers use sociological research to solve social problems and formulate public policy.

Social Structure

The major components of social structure are statuses, roles, groups and organizations, social institutions, and society.

Status is the position that someone occupies in society. This position is often a job title, but many other types of positions exist: student, parent, friend, and so forth. Sociologists usually speak of 3 types of statuses.

Ascribed status is the status that someone is born with, for example, sex, race, biological relationships and religious affiliation.

Achieved status is a status you achieve through your own efforts, such as professor, or college student.

The third type of status is called *a master status*. A master status is the defining social position a person holds, it is a concept that lies at the core of a person's social identity and influences that person's roles and behaviors in a societal context.

Every status is accompanied by *a role*, which is the behavior expected of someone. Roles help us interact.

Groups and organizations are the next component of social structure. A social group consists of two or more people who regularly interact and who share a common identity. An organization is a large group that follows rules and procedures to achieve specific goals and tasks.

Another component of social structure is the *social institution*. Examples of social institutions include the family, the economy, the government, education, religion, and medicine.

The largest component of social structure is *society* itself. Society is a group of people who live within a defined territory and who share a culture. Society is a group of people who live within a defined territory and who share a culture.

Theories Used in Social Work

Social work theories help social workers analyze cases, understand clients, create interventions, predict intervention results and evaluate outcomes. While the theories are constantly evolving as new evidence is produced, referencing social work theories that have been used over time enables social workers to explore causes of behavior. They can then help their clients find the best solutions.

Learning about various social work theories helps remind social workers that their personal assumptions and beliefs should be suspended during social work practice. Social workers should use evidence-based theories to investigate issues and drive their practice, instead of applying their own attitudes, reactions and moods to client work.

Social work theory provides a starting point for social workers to create interventions and plan their work. It gives social workers a way to address client problems through a research-based lens.

The following list of social work theories includes some of the most widely referenced theories used in social work.

Social learning theory, which is also known as social cognitive theory, was developed by psychologist Albert Bandura. This theory posits that learning occurs by observing others and modeling their behavior.

Systems theory proposes that people are products of complex systems, rather than individuals who act in isolation. In this theory, behavior is influenced by a variety of factors that work together as a system. These factors include family, friends, social settings, religious structure, economic class and home environment, which can all influence how individuals act and think.

Psychosocial development theory was introduced by Erik Erikson, who believed personality develops in a series of stages. Erikson created an eight-stage theory of psychosocial development.

Psychodynamic theory was introduced by the founder of psychoanalysis, Sigmund Freud. This theory is founded on the idea that humans are biologically driven to seek gratification. The theory states that people do this based on processes that have developed outside of conscious awareness, with origins in childhood experiences. This drive influences everyday behavior, leading to actions like aggression, sex and self-preservation.

Social exchange theory originates with Austrian sociologist George Homans. It says that relationships are based on cost-benefit analysis. Each person seeks to maximize their benefits and is expected to reciprocate for the benefits they've received. When risks outweigh potential rewards, relationships may be abandoned. When one person in a relationship has greater personal resources than another, that person is predicted to have greater power as well.

Rational choice theory helps explain why people make the choices they do, as people weigh risks, costs and benefits before making decisions. This theory says that all choices are rational because people calculate the costs and benefits before making a decision.

Children's Participation and the Concept of Children's Rights

Young people's participation cannot be discussed without considering power relations and the struggle for equal rights. It is important that all young people have the opportunity to learn to participate in programmes which directly affect their lives. This is especially so for disadvantaged children for through participation with others

such children learn that to struggle against discrimination and repression, and to fight for their equal rights in solidarity with others is itself a fundamental democratic right.

The Convention on the Rights of the Child, now ratified by over 100 nations, has significant implications for the improvement of young people's participation in society. It makes it clear to all that children are independent subjects and hence have rights. Article 12 of the Convention makes a strong, though very general, call for children's participation:

States Parties shall assure to the child who is capable of forming his or her own views the right to express those views freely in all matters affecting the child, the views of the child being given due weight in accordance with the age and maturity of the child.

It goes on to argue in Article 13 that:

The child shall have the right to freedom of expression; this right shall include freedom to seek, receive and impart information and ideas of all kinds, regardless of frontiers, either orally, in writing or in print, in the form of art, or through any other media of the child's choice.

The Convention, being more concerned with protection, does not emphasize the responsibilities which go along with rights. Children need to learn that with the rights of citizenship come responsibilities. In order to learn these responsibilities, children need to engage in collaborative activities with other persons including those who are older and more experienced than themselves. It is for this reason that children's participation in community projects is so important. While much of the Convention emphasizes the legal protection of the child and the child's ability to speak for himself in legal matters, Articles 12 and 13 go well beyond this. Unfortunately, they also go well beyond what many families in most cultures would allow of their children even within the family. The family is not, of course, the sole agent in a child's socialization, but it is the primary one and is recognized as such in the preamble to the Convention:

Convinced that the family, as the fundamental group of society and the natural environment for the growth and wellbeing of all its members and particularly children, should be afforded the necessary protection and assistance so that it can fully assume its responsibilities within the community.

While the child's freedom of expression and participation in community issues may often be contrary to the childrearing attitudes of the child's parents or caretakers, it is ultimately in the best interests of all children to have a voice. This is sometimes especially difficult for disadvantaged, low income parents to understand when they themselves have had no voice and see authoritarian child rearing as the best approach for their child's success. The aim should be to encourage the participation of the

whole family. Sometimes children may themselves be the initiators but the goal should always be at least to make the parents aware of the process.

There is a universal tendency in families not to recognize the capacities of their children as decision makers even when, as workers, they are critical to the economy of the family. This became clear during the search for valid examples of genuine participation for this booklet: some of the best examples of children's self government came from working children living apart from their families on the streets. In these instances, parental dominance has been broken, and street workers have been able to support young people to collaborate more with one another using some of the principles and techniques described in this Essay.

There is growing support for children's rights. For those whom UNICEF calls 'children in especially difficult circumstances' this is leading to some radical departures from past cultural norms. Some street children, for example, have been helped to form their own organizations; and there are increasing numbers of court cases on behalf of abused and neglected children. But the larger solution to improving children's lives must involve families and communities: they must be supported to do what they have traditionally done - to care for their children in a stable manner consistent with their culture. Simultaneously, families need to be encouraged to open up traditional practices to the greater involvement of their children as part of a general move towards creating a more democratic society, with greater opportunities and equal rights for all.

Adolescence

Adolescence is defined as the years between the onset of puberty and the beginning of adulthood. Thus, the period between puberty and adulthood may well last into the late 20s, merging into adulthood itself. During adolescence, the child continues to grow physically, cognitively, and emotionally, changing from a child into an adult. The body grows rapidly in size and the sexual and reproductive organs become fully functional.

Adolescents often seem to act impulsively, they may engage in risky behavior, such as smoking, drug use, dangerous driving, and unprotected sex in part because they have not yet fully acquired the mental ability to curb impulsive behavior or to make entirely rational judgments.

The new cognitive abilities that are attained during adolescence may also give rise to new feelings of egocentrism, in which adolescents believe that they can do anything and that they know better than anyone else, including their parents. Teenagers are likely to be highly self-conscious, often creating an *imaginary audience* in which they feel that everyone is constantly watching them. Because teens think so much about themselves, they mistakenly believe that others must be thinking

about them, too. It is no wonder that everything a teen's parents do suddenly feels embarrassing to them when they are in public.

Some of the most important changes that occur during adolescence involve the further development of the self-concept and the development of new attachments. Whereas young children are most strongly attached to their parents, the important attachments of adolescents move increasingly away from parents and increasingly toward peers. As a result, parents' influence diminishes at this stage.

According to Erikson, the main social task of the adolescent is the search for a unique identity – the ability to answer the question, “Who am I?”

The friendship groups that are such an important part of the adolescent experience allow the young adult to try out different identities, and these groups provide a sense of belonging and acceptance. A big part of what the adolescent is learning is social identity, the part of the self-concept that is derived from one's group memberships. Adolescents define their social identities according to how they are similar to and differ from others, finding meaning in the sports, school, gender, and ethnic categories they belong to.

Youth Governance: how and why it can help out-of-school time programs involve at-risk Youth

Lillian Bowie, Jacinta Bronte-Tinkew

Youth governance refers to the practice of having young people work in partnership with adults to establish the policies, goals, and activities for a program. This practice can take the shape of youth serving on boards or of youth taking on other decision-making roles.

Youth-adult partnerships are fundamental components of any youth governance model. These cooperative efforts between young people and adults are characterized by mutual respect, communication, and sharing of power.

Youth involvement in program governance can result in positive outcomes for youth, adults, and programs.

Youth involved in program governance experience less involvement in risky behaviors, such as drug use and juvenile delinquency; improvements in areas such as teamwork, critical thinking, decision-making, public speaking and dependability; and increased self-esteem and improved self-identity.

Adults working with program participants experience a stronger sense of community connectedness; and a greater understanding of young people and their developmental needs.

Programs that involve youth as decision-makers gain new energy and ideas; become more connected and responsive to the needs of young people in the

community; and can more easily revise their overall mission to better serve children and youth.

Adults should recognize that involving youth in program governance will require an ongoing negotiation of ideas and resources, and that no “set design” or “standard formula,” exists for implementing youth in governance program.

Young people need adult participation in the forms of coaching, modeling of behaviors, and sharing tasks because they have limited experience in designing, planning, and executing programs.

Engaging at-risk youth in leadership roles can be a challenging task because many of these young people have experienced few positive relationships with adults. As a result, some youth will be skeptical of adult intentions when asked to assume governance roles.

Leaders and staff at youth development programs should create an atmosphere of hope. The positive, youth-centered atmosphere conveys the adults’ belief in youth as resources to be developed rather than problems to be managed.

How to run a successful youth community project

The Guardian,
Sue Withers

Community projects are a great way for young people to gain new skills and experience, at the same time as giving a little something back. *East Thames* runs six foyers, providing accommodation and support to more than 600 young people, aged 16-24.

Community projects are just one of the ways we support our young residents to live healthy, independent lives. Here are some of the things we've learned about making these projects a success.

Build on an existing passion

When choosing a topic or activity, try to build on an existing passion. We’ve found that any project which shows young people how to save money is usually a hit. But tailoring projects to existing interests such as the creative arts, cookery or sport, attracts people who will gain useful skills that they can use again in the future.

Aims and ambitions

As with any project, it’s important to start with a clear idea of what you want to achieve and what the participants will get from it. Our Defra-funded food growing project was set up to promote healthy eating, after we found foyer residents opting for junk food. We wanted to prove that with a little bit of work they could grow their own food, make healthy meals with it and understand how the food affects their wellbeing.

One participant, Kathleen, said: “At first when they said come and learn about food and healthy eating, I thought I already knew all about it but I’ve learned so much. There’s nothing I’ve learned here that I can’t use when I leave the foyer”. Job done.

Pass it on

Supporting young people to pass on the new skills they've learned both cements those skills and boosts their confidence. Artist and former foyer resident, Rasheed, was supported by East Thames to put on his first solo exhibition. He now comes back to the foyer on a regular basis to carry out art workshops for the residents.

Honesty and openness

Encouraging young people to get involved in community projects can be tricky but earning their respect and trust can be the deal breaker. Simply listening to their ideas and suggestions really works and helps determine if they are getting what they need from the project. Empowering young people to make decisions for themselves gives them ownership, builds self-confidence and shows how much you trust them. For some of our young foyer residents this is a brand-new experience.

Hands on action

Running a project that is practical and hands on can be a big draw. If people can see the results of their labour, great. If there’s a lasting legacy for their community, like a new piece of communal art, even better. That’s why we think food growing works so well, not only can you see the results, you can feel, smell and taste them too.

Project ambassadors

Want young people to get involved? Who better to promote your project than an enthusiastic young person? If a project is up and running, it’s easy to spot the project ambassador, they’ll be the one who turns up week after week, gets really excited about what’s been achieved and wishes there were more people helping out. Give them the tools they need to promote the project and they will be your best advocate.

Bags of enthusiasm

It stands to reason if you are running or supporting a youth project, that you should be willing and ready to roll up your sleeves and take part in the activities yourself. Bags of enthusiasm will help too, just make sure the young people involved know that you care just as much about the success and longevity of the project as they do.

Celebrate success

Finally, the most enjoyable tip to put into practice, is to celebrate success, no matter how small. Making a big deal when things go right can have a tremendous

effect on self-esteem and will in turn motivate everyone involved to do even more. It's no secret that some of our foyer residents have had tough beginnings in life and many feel they have made the wrong choices, but celebrating the right choices and great results keeps their motivation and interest on track.

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ПОДГОТОВКА РЕФЕРАТА

A summary is a brief statement or restatement of main points of a larger work that gives the reader a comprehensive understanding.

PHRASES FOR SUMMARIZING

I've read the text entitled "...".	Я прочитал текст под заголовком «...».
This is a text published in the newspaper / magazine "...".	Это текст, опубликованный в газете / журнале «...».
The author of the text is ...	Автор текста – ...
The text is about ...	Текст о ...
The main idea of the text is to show / to prove / to outline ...	Главная идея текста заключается в том, чтобы показать / доказать / кратко изложить ...
The text starts with the fact / description of ... / definition of ...	Текст начинается с факта / описания / определения ...
I'd like to cite / quote the author: "..."	Мне бы хотелось процитировать автора: «...».
Then the author describes / tells us about ...	Затем автор описывает / рассказывает нам о ...
Besides the author stresses that ...	Кроме того, автор акцентирует внимание на ...
Finally, the author comes to the conclusion that ...	В конце автор приходит к выводу, что ...
The text is informative, so in my opinion it is worth reading.	Текст информативный и, по моему мнению, его стоит прочесть.

ПОДГОТОВКА АННОТАЦИИ

An abstract is a concise summary of the content of the paper. The abstract should begin with a precise statement of the issue, followed by the major findings. Keywords should be included in the abstract. Keywords are ideas and topics that define what the content is about. They should be specific to the field or sub-field.

PHRASES FOR ABSTRACTING

The paper / publication / work / presents the analysis of ...	В статье / публикации / работе представлен анализ ...
The paper investigates the problem of ...	В статье исследуется проблема ...
The paper considers / analyzes / covers / describes / discusses ...	В статье рассматривается / анализируется / освещается / описывается / обсуждается ...
The term / concept “...” is defined.	Дано определение понятию «...».
The terms “...” and “...” are defined.	Даны определения понятиям «...» и «...».
The approaches to ... are highlighted.	Освещаются подходы к ...
The necessity of ... is reasoned.	Обосновывается необходимость ...
The findings / research data are graphically presented / placed in tables.	Данные исследования представлены в графическом виде / сведены в таблицы.
... is outlined.	Кратко излагается ...
... are outlined.	Кратко излагаются ...
The main ... are listed.	Перечисляются основные ...
The issues of ... are discussed.	Обсуждаются вопросы ...
It is reported that ...	Сообщается, что ...
It is stressed that ...	Подчеркивается, что ...

Юркевич Лариса Николаевна

ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

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