

МИНИСТЕРСТВО НАУКИ И ВЫСШЕГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ РФ
ФЕДЕРАЛЬНОЕ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННОЕ БЮДЖЕТНОЕ
ОБРАЗОВАТЕЛЬНОЕ УЧРЕЖДЕНИЕ ВЫСШЕГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ
«ЕЛЕЦКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ ИМ. И.А. БУНИНА»

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АНГЛИЙСКИЙ ЯЗЫК ДЛЯ МАГИСТРАНТОВ

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Данное пособие направлено на овладение базовой терминологией по выбранному направлению подготовки, совершенствование навыков говорения, чтения и перевода текстов профессиональной направленности, развитие навыков аннотирования и реферирования.

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ПРЕДИСЛОВИЕ

Цель данного пособия – развитие и совершенствование полученных на предыдущей ступени обучения знаний, навыков и умений по английскому языку в различных видах речевой коммуникации.

Практическое владение английским языком в рамках данного курса предполагает наличие таких умений в различных видах речевой коммуникации, которые дают возможность:

- свободно читать оригинальную литературу на иностранном языке в соответствующей отрасли знаний;
- оформлять извлеченную из иностранных источников информацию в виде перевода или аннотации;
- делать сообщения, доклады на иностранном языке, связанные с исследовательской работой;
- вести беседу по специальности.

Пособие состоит из трех разделов, включающих специальные упражнения, направленные на формирование выше перечисленных навыков и умений. Упражнения построены на лексике педагогической, психологической, социальной и других тематик. Разделы пособия имеют разную структуру, соответственно части пособия не представляют собой единую систему упражнений.

Упражнения первой части пособия ориентированы на овладение терминологией, извлечение основной информации из текста, подготовку устного высказывания по выбранному направлению подготовки.

Упражнения второй части нацелены на овладение основной терминологией, составление рассказов о научной деятельности.

Третья часть содержит список слов и выражений, необходимых для аннотирования и реферирования текстов профессиональной тематики. Здесь также представлена схема реферирования с выражениями-клише и оригинальные тексты из британских и американских источников. Знание основ реферативного перевода и аннотирования позволяет быстро ориентироваться в литературе по специальности и не затрачивать лишнее время на трудоемкий процесс дословного перевода. В повседневной практике многих специалистов постоянно возникает необходимость устного или письменного изложения на родном языке краткого содержания иноязычных материалов, содержащих ценную информацию. Также широко распространена практика опубликования научных статей в журналах и тематических сборниках на родном языке с реферативным изложением их основного содержания на другом языке.

ЧАСТЬ I.

ЧТЕНИЕ ОРИГИНАЛЬНЫХ ТЕКСТОВ В СООТВЕТСТВУЮЩЕЙ ОТРАСЛИ ЗНАНИЙ, С ПОСЛЕДУЮЩИМ ИЗЛОЖЕНИЕМ ПРОЧИТАННОГО

Unit 1.

Task 1. Read the text. Then in pairs ask each other questions.

Primary and secondary education in Great Britain

British Schools

All British children must stay at school from the age of 5 until they are 16. Many of them stay longer and take final examinations when they are 17 or 18. Before 1965 all children of state schools had to go through special intelligence tests. There were different types of state schools and at the age of 11 children went to different schools in accordance with the results of the tests. State schools are divided into the following types:

Grammar schools. Children who go to grammar schools are usually those who show a preference for academic subjects, although many grammar schools now also have some technical courses.

Technical schools. Some children go to technical schools. Most courses there are either commercial or technical.

Modern schools. Boys and girls who are interested in working with their hands and learning in a practical way can go to a technical school and learn some trade.

Comprehensive schools. These schools usually combine all types of secondary education. They have physics, chemistry, biology laboratories, machine workshops for metal and woodwork and also geography, history and art departments, commercial and domestic courses.

There are also many schools which the State does not control. They are **private schools**, also called **public schools**. They charge fees for educating children, and many of them are **boarding schools**, at which pupils live during the term time.

After leaving school many young people go to colleges of further education. Those who become students at **Colleges of Technology** (called "Techs") come from different schools at different ages between 15 and 17. The lectures at such colleges, each an hour long, start at 9.15 in the morning and end at 4.45 in the afternoon.

Task 2. Read, translate and retell the text:

School Education in Great Britain

English education offers two systems: a system of non fee-paying and a private system of Independent Schools.

Compulsory school begins at the age of five, but before that age children can go to a nursery school, also called play school. School is compulsory till the children are 16 years old. All forms of education are available in State Schools, from the most

academic to the technical and vocational, preparing children to work with their heads and/or their hands.

There are two stages within the system of both fee-paying and non fee-paying schools. Younger and older children are divided at various stages, while those aging 5-11 attend Primary Schools, the others aging 11-18 go to the Secondary Schools.

State Primary Schools are said to be “child-centered”, aiming to develop all the aspects of the child, physical, moral, intellectual and aesthetic. The school is divided into Infant (5-7) and Junior (8-11) departments.

In Primary School children learn to read and write and the basics of arithmetic. In the higher classes of Primary School children learn geography, history, creative writing, painting, religion and, in some schools, also a foreign language. Physical education is usually done twice a week. Outside the normal time-table there are many activities in which students may take part: sports, drama, table tennis and so on.

Secondary Schools can be divided into: Comprehensive offering all styles of education in one school, but some areas still separate children into academic Grammar Schools and the more vocational Technical or Secondary Modern Schools. The majority attend comprehensives. A comprehensive school offers 5-year courses to pupils of all levels of ability. Promotion to a higher class every year does not depend upon examination results – it is almost automatic. Pupils never repeat a year. There is still much disagreement about the good and the bad in the comprehensive system but the good comprehensive schools have shown that the academic and the non-academic children needn't be kept apart, and that there are many school and out-of-school activities which they can share: acting, singing, woodwork, cooking and, of course, games. So boys and girls have the opportunity of making friends with young people from many different backgrounds.

The National Curriculum for children aged 5-16 in all state schools in GB consists of 10 subjects which all the children must study at school. The subjects are English, Mathematics, Science, a modern foreign language (for 11-16-year-olds), Technology and Design, History, Geography, Music, Art, PE (Physical Education). These subjects are called foundation subjects. English, Mathematics and Science are also known as the “core” subjects which help children in studying all the other subjects.

In Britain students aged 16 take GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education) exams between May and June. They get the results in August. The exam grades from A (the top) to G. Students can leave school at 16 if they want to and start working. Students who do well in their GCSE exams often go on to study for A (Advanced) levels in three of four subjects. They take their A-level exams at the age of 18. Many of them then go to the college or university.

Some parents prefer to pay for their children to be educated at independent schools. There are about 2,400 independent schools in Britain educating 600,000 pupils of all ages. They are very expensive (250 pounds a term for day pupils at nursery age to 2,900 pounds a term for senior boarding pupils) but considered to provide a better education and good job opportunities.

The stages of education in independent schools are called in a different way:

- children from 5 to 8 attend a pre-preparatory school;
- between the ages of 8 and 13 they go to a preparatory (or prep) school;
- from 13 to 18 they attend a public school, but only if they pass an examination called Common Entrance.

The boys' schools include such well-known schools as Eton (College), founded in 1440, Harrow (School), Winchester (College). Among leading girls' public schools are Roedean School and Cheltenham Ladies' College.

Task 3. Answer the following questions.

- 1) What systems of schools does education in Great Britain offer?
- 2) At what age is education compulsory for children in GB?
- 3) What are two stages within the system of schools in GB?
- 4) What is the age of children who go to Primary School?
- 5) What is the age of children who go to Secondary School?
- 6) Which departments is Primary School divided into?
- 7) What subjects do children study in Primary School?
- 8) What kind of schools can Secondary Schools be divided into? What's the difference between these schools?
- 9) What subjects does the National Curriculum for children aged 5-16 consist of? How are these subjects called?
- 10) What examination do students aged 16 take in GB? Which levels does it have?
- 11) How much does education at independent schools cost?
- 12) What stages are there in independent schools?
- 13) Name the most well-known independent schools for boys and for girls.
- 14) Which education is considered to be better in GB: in State Schools or in Independent Schools?

Task 4. Find the following words in the text, translate them into your native language and learn them by heart:

fee; compulsory; available; vocational; majority; attend; ability; promotion; apart; to share; background; curriculum; foundation; core; certificate; to grade; a graduate; internal; external; essentially; residential; tutorial; tutor; roughly; term; bachelor; master; dean; loan; accommodation; grant; tuition; undergraduate

Task 5. Match the words with their definitions:

1) nursery school	a) student in the first four years of college
2) primary school	b) the money you pay for being taught
3) infant school	c) something lent
4) secondary school	d) an official with a high rank in some universities
5) comprehensive school	e) holder of the second university degree
6) fee	f) someone who has taken the first university degree
7) a graduate	g) money that you pay for professional services
8) independent	h) a school for children of 3 to 5

9) Curriculum	i) a school that teaches the skills necessary for a particular job
10) Vocational	j) school for children of 5 to 11
11) Term	k) a school where children go after primary school
12) Tutor	l) a school for children under 7
13) Background	m) a school that provides all types of secondary education
14) Bachelor	n) person's past experiences, education, etc.
15) Grant	o) course of study in a school or college
16) Tuition	p) confident and free
17) Dean	q) someone who is paid to teach only one or a few students
18) Undergraduate	r) a fixed or limited period of time, esp. in education
19) Master	s) someone who has completed a course at a college or university
20) Loan	t) an amount of money given to someone by the government for a particular purpose

Task 6. Read the text and choose from (A – H) the one which fits each space (1 – 6) best. There are two choices you do not need to use.

Education in Great Britain

In Great Britain education is compulsory for all children (1) _____. There are three stages in education. The first stage is primary education; the second is secondary education; the third is further education (2) _____. Before 5 some children attend Nursery Schools, while most children start their basic education in an Infant School which is the first stage of primary education. In infant Schools children don't have real classes. They get acquainted with the classrooms, desks, they mostly play and learn through playing. From 7 to 11 they attend Junior Schools, the second stage of primary education. In Primary Schools children are taught the so-called 3R's – (3) _____, as well as elementary science and information technology. They also have music, physical training and art classes.

At the age of eleven children transfer to Comprehensive Schools. These schools (4) _____ and a wide range of academic courses leading to the public examinations taken at 16. They also provide some vocational courses.

After five years of secondary education, pupils take the General Certificate of Secondary education examination. Pupils take "O-Level" – Ordinary Level – in as many subjects (5) _____; some take just one or two, others take as many as nine or ten. If you get good "O-Level" results, you can stay on at school until you are 18. Here you prepare for Advanced Level Exams ("A-Level"). Three good "A-Level" exams lead to universities.

Higher education begins at 18 and usually lasts for three or four years. Students go to universities, polytechnics or colleges. The leading universities in England are Oxford, Cambridge and London. After three years of study, a student receives a Bachelor's degree. Some may continue their studies for two or more years to get their (6) _____.

British education has many different faces but one goal. Its aim is to realize the potential of all for the good of the individual and society as a whole.

A might be interested

- B at university or college
- C give general education
- D the quantity of transmitted information
- E from 5 to 16 years old
- F Master's and Doctor's degrees
- G as they want to
- H reading, writing and arithmetic

Task 7. Before reading the text concentrate on the following points

1. What do you know about K.D. Ushinsky?
2. What other outstanding educationists do you know?
3. Have you ever read their literary works?

K.D. USHINSKY – THE GREAT RUSSIAN EDUCATIONIST

K.D. Ushinsky was in the fullest sense of the word the founder of the Russian primary school and pedagogical training for teachers. His contribution to Russian education was great. Ushinsky's pedagogical ideas outstripped his time in many ways and were implemented only after his death. His works are not only of historical value today but greatly assist the course of the genuinely people's education that was the lifetime dream of the outstanding pedagogues, patriot and citizen.

Ushinsky was born in 1834 in Chernigov gubernia (region) in the family of a well-to-do landowner. He learned very early to study independently and, after making a fine record in the gymnasium, Ushinsky was enrolled in Moscow University at the age of 16. He graduated from the University with high honors when he was 20 years old. Two years later, despite his youth, Ushinsky was appointed Professor of Jurisprudence at the Demidov Lyceum in Yaroslavl. His lectures were an immediate success for they were based upon his already considerable erudition. It was then that Ushinsky started criticizing the present educational system in Russia and was forbidden by the Ministry of Education to teach even in elementary school.

In 1855 many teachers who had lost work before could find jobs again. In 1859 Ushinsky was appointed inspector at Smolny Institute in St. Petersburg. In 1860 Ushinsky became editor of the Journal of the Ministry of Education and in two years completely changed its character. Under his editorship its focus was centered upon real problems of teaching, theories of pedagogy and psychology, accounts of educational activities and criticism of current pedagogical literature. Ushinsky's name became popularly known throughout Russia and at the end of his three years of work there he was already well-known as one of the foremost teachers and guides of educational movement in Russia.

Ushinsky was not only concerned with Russian affairs but was a devout patriot. One of the basic principles of his pedagogical system is the inculcation of a feeling of patriotism in the young people. In his early articles he expressed this view and never changed his basic concept that "education must be based on patriotism". Ushinsky

thought that this could be done best with the help of native language, taught at school. “Rodnoe Slovo” (Native Word) was one of his most famous works.

Ushinsky believed that education should devote itself primarily to the formation of character. According to Ushinsky, “life without serious work can be neither worthy nor happy”. Ushinsky underlined the personal influence of the teacher as an educational force. Ushinsky was interested in foreign educational systems. He made trips to Germany, Switzerland, France, Italy and Belgium to observe school organization there. He analysed merits and defects of foreign educational systems comparing them with actual conditions in Russia.

After coming back to Russia from abroad in 1867 Ushinsky devoted his energies to St. Petersburg Pedagogical Society. He traveled, lectured, held conferences and continued his research work.

Unit 2.

Task 1. Read the definitions and try to explain in your own words.

What is psychology?

Psycho- is a learned borrowing from Greek meaning *breath, soul, spirit, and mind*. In Greek mythology Psyche (*soul or butterfly*) was the human bride of Eros, the god of love. Before she is allowed to marry Eros she is forced to undergo many difficult ordeals. Apuleius tells the story of Eros and Psyche in his *Metamorphoses*. Psychology was considered a study of the soul.

Psychology is 1) the science of the mind or of mental states and processes: the science of human nature; 2) the science of human and animal behavior; 3) the sum of the mental states and processes of the person or of a number of persons, especially as determining action (e.g. the psychology of a soldier at the battle). Literally, the word **psychology** means the *science of the mind*.

Most contemporary psychologists would define psychology as **the science of the behavior of organisms**. By behavior they mean activities and processes that can be observed objectively — both the isolated reactions of muscles, glands and other parts of the organisms and the organized, goal-directed patterns of reaction that characterize the organism as a whole. Psychologists also interpret behavior to include internal processes – thinking, emotional reactions and the like – which one person can not observe directly in another but which can be inferred from observation of external behavior.

Behavior is determined by a complex of factors that are partly biological, partly anthropological, partly sociological, and partly psychological. Therefore, psychology is closely connected to both the biological and the social sciences. Psychologists study basic functions such as learning, memory, language, thinking, emotions, and motives. They investigate development throughout mental and physical health care. They also treat people who are emotionally distressed. So, it is very important for them to know all about social influences on individuals, the role of the

brain and the nervous system in such functions as memory, language, sleep, attention, movement, perception, hunger, anger and joy.

Although psychology has been concerned primarily with the behavior of human individuals and groups, it has also dealt with the study of animal behavior. Although great care is always necessary in interpreting human behavior in the light of findings from animal experiments, animal psychology has greatly contributed to study of human beings.

1. What is **physiology**? How is it connected to psychology?

Physiology is the study of the parts and systems of the human body and how they work. You can't learn about the inner world of a person without having an idea about the human physiology.

Physiological psychology is concerned with the way the body functions and the effect of its activity on behavior.

2. What is **psychoanalysis**? What do you know about it?

Read the definitions.

Psychoanalysis is 1) a systematic structure of theories concerning the relations of conscious and unconscious psychological processes; 2) a technical procedure of investigating unconscious mental processes and for treating psychoneuroses.

3. What **four types of temperament** do you know? In medieval physiology, temperament is any of the four conditions of body and mind: the sanguine, phlegmatic, choleric (or bilious), and melancholic, each of them attributed to an excess of one of the four corresponding humors (body liquids). It is one's customary frame of mind or natural disposition, nature that is excitable, moody, capricious, volatile, etc.

Sanguine (from *sanguis* — *blood*), having the warm passionate, cheerful temperament and the healthy, ruddy complexion of one in whom the blood is the predominant humor of the four. The person is usually heavy, cheerful, confident, red-faced, jolly, generous, self-indulgent optimistic and hopeful sort of person.

Melancholy – black bile in medieval physiology considered to be one of the four humors to come from the spleen or kidney, and to cause gloominess, irritability or depression. Melancholy is a gloomy, pessimistic, quiet and brooding person.

Choleric is having choler as the predominant humor, hence of bilious temperament. In medieval times choler (bile) was considered one of the four humors of the body and the source of anger and irritability. Choleric is a quick-tempered, excitable, aggressive and energetic person, usually thin and wiry.

Phlegmatic – a slow, lethargic, apathetic, hard to rouse to action, sluggish, dull kind of person. Phlegm is a fluid, clammy humor of the body which was believed to cause sluggishness or dullness.

What is **Gestalt psychology**? The German word *Gestalt* means *configuration* or *pattern*. Gestalt psychologists argue that an organism will see an object as a whole. This is because the brain imposes patterns on the raw material of perception. The patterns tend to make complete forms, and incomplete forms are completed by the organizing activity of the brain. When problem solving it is argued that individuals receive "insights" into the total situation: the total pattern suddenly becomes obvious.

Gestalt school of psychology that interprets phenomena as organized wholes rather than as aggregates of distinct parts, maintaining that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. The term *Gestalt* was coined by the philosopher **Christian von Ehrenfels** in 1890, to denote experiences that require more than the basic sensory capacities to comprehend. Gestalt psychologists suggest that the events in the brain bear a structural correspondence to psychological events; indeed, it has been shown that steady electric currents in the brain correspond to structured perceptual events. The Gestalt school has made substantial contributions to the study of learning, recall, and the nature of associations, as well as important contributions to personality and social psychology. In therapy, the analyst encourages clients to release their emotions, and to recognize these emotions for what they are.

Intelligence, in psychology, the general mental ability involved in calculating, reasoning, perceiving relationships and analogies, learning quickly, storing and retrieving information, using language fluently, classifying, generalizing, and adjusting to new situations. Alfred Binet, the French psychologist, defined intelligence as the totality of mental processes involved in adapting to the environment. Although there remains a strong tendency to view intelligence as a purely intellectual or cognitive function, considerable evidence suggests that intelligence has many facets.

Experimental psychology describes an approach to psychology that treats it as one of the natural sciences, and therefore assumes that it is susceptible to the experimental method. Many experimental psychologists have gone further, and have assumed that all methods of investigation other than experimentation are suspect. In particular, experimental psychologists have been inclined to discount the case study and interview methods as they have been used in clinical and developmental psychology. Wilhelm Wundt was one of the first experimental psychologists and is credited with starting the first psychology laboratory.

Introspection, a process used by Wundt in his laboratory, is a way of examining one's own conscious experience through self-observation of one's thoughts, feelings and sensations. **Structuralism**, the name of Wundt's approach to experimental psychology is a system of thought that tried to analyze sensations and subjective experience into its basic building blocks.

Functionalism, another psychological system of thought, focuses on how mental activity enables people to function and survive. **William James** and other supporters of the functionalist movement were opposed to structuralism because they felt consciousness could not be broken down into components as if it were a physical structure.

A key area of debate in psychology has been the extent to which our capacities are learnt versus the extent to which they are innate (this issue is closely related to the more general nature-nurture debate in biology). **Behaviorism** is a system of thought which holds that only strictly observable phenomena are worthy of psychological study. **John B. Watson** is considered to be the "father" of behaviorism. The behaviorism of B. F. Skinner viewed behavior as being learnt through a process of conditioning – the association of stimuli with responses. The influence of behaviorism took

a blow with the work of the **psycho-linguist Noam Chomsky** on language acquisition. Chomsky argued that the stimulus available to an infant was simply not rich enough

to allow language-learning through Skinnerian conditioning, and that the human brain must have an innate capacity for, or predisposition towards language learning. This idea that the brain has a specialized Language Acquisition Device in many ways laid the foundation for the field now known as cognitive psychology, which tends to view the mind in terms of more-or-less specialized functions or processes.

Humanistic psychology emerged in the 1950s in reaction to both behaviorism and psychoanalysis. It stresses a phenomenological view of human experience and seeks to understand human beings and their behavior by conducting qualitative research. Among sciences humanistic psychology focuses on basic and applied science. Humanistic psychology is concerned with the subjective experience of human beings and views using quantitative methods in the study of the human mind and behavior as misguided and instead stresses qualitative research.

It emerged in the 1950s in reaction to both **behaviorism** and **psychoanalysis**. It stresses a phenomenological view of human experience and seeks to understand human beings, rather than conventional statistical one. There is a branch of psychology which uses methods to investigate the subjective experience of human beings; clinical psychology.

Clinical psychology is concerned with helping people who have mental disorders. It is the practice of outpatient mental health treatment. Examples of clinical psychology include psychotherapy, art therapy, and cognitive therapy.

Prior to the 20th century, there was little, if any, help available for sufferers of mental health problems. In the early 20th century, Sigmund Freud developed a mental health treatment known as psychoanalysis. In order to practise psychoanalysis, a great deal of training was required of the practitioner. Consequently, the cost of psychoanalysis was also high.

Unlike clinical psychology, **counseling psychology** is generally a joint-venture of both psychology departments and departments of education. Counseling psychologists focus primarily on helping people overcome or better manage pathologies as well as transcend perceived limitations.

Developmental psychology is the study of human growth and changes in behavior from conception to death. Jean Piaget was one of the most famous and influential researchers in developmental psychology. The nature-nurture issue deals with whether human growth results from interaction with others and with the physical world (nurture) or if the key to development is heredity (nature). Jean Piaget, as well as most developmental

psychologists today, believed that changes in behavior result from a combination of nurture and nature.

Psychometric psychology is the psychological specialty involved with developing, administering, and analyzing tests. James McKeen Cattell, an assistant to

Wundt, was the first psychologist to suggest the term “mental test.” He began using tests to assess how humans used mental ability to solve problems and survive.

Psychiatry is the medical field specializing in mental health issues, thereby overlapping with clinical psychology. Clinical and counseling psychologists often work in co-operation with psychiatrists, social workers, psychiatric nurses and “lay” counselors. Psychiatrists are often involved in providing psycho-pharmacological care including antidepressant, anti-anxiety, antipsychotic and mood-stabilizing medication. Services aimed at mental or behavioral problems are also often provided by traditional healers and religious counselors.

Applied psychology is a more general term, referring to solving problems and answering questions that could help solve problems faced by people and society. For example, researching how animals won’t eat novel foods after getting ill, even if the food didn’t cause the illness, has helped explain why cancer patients have difficulty eating after chemotherapy.

To deal with the problems in psychology you first have to know a certain professional vocabulary that would help you in reading comprehension and expressions of your thoughts. The main purpose of this book is to help you in this mission

Psychology today. Human consciousness is in a place of self-awareness and creating balance as it moves out of the dark ages back to higher frequency of light and thought. To understand how the psyche works, one must understand its nature based on duality, as it seeks to create balance in a world of challenges. We live in a time of recognition that we have issues that we are trying to heal and overcome which has held us back. We combine physical and metaphysical healing to create a union of body, mind and soul. As a bi-polar experiment in time and emotions, the souls have met challenges at every turn, presently facing their issues and seeking help from professionals, books, healers, other.

Task 2. Read the questions and check if you know the answers. If not, go back to the text and scan it to find the information necessary.

- 1) What is psychology? How is it connected to biology?
- 2) What’s the origin of the word?
- 3) What is physiology? How is it connected to psychology?
- 4) Read the definition of psychology as a science and try to explain it in your own words.
- 5) Who are the scientists connected with psychology in their research?

Task 3. Read the definitions in the text and answer the questions.

- 1) What is psychoanalysis? What do you know about it?
 - a) It is a systematic structure of theories concerning the relations of conscious and unconscious psychological processes.
 - b) It is a technical procedure of investigating unconscious mental processes and for treating psychoneuroses.

- 2) What four types of temperament do you know? Describe each type. Explain on what basis they are differentiated.
- 3) What is Gestalt psychology? What does the German word *Gestalt* mean?

Task 4. Study the questions.

- 1) The person given credit for starting psychology as a separate discipline is ...
 a) Wilhelm Wundt c) John Watson
 b) Sigmund Freud d) William McDougall
- 2) The system which focuses on how mental activity enables people to function and survive is called
 a) structuralism c) behaviorism
 b) functionalism d) gestaltism
- 3) The area of psychology which would concern itself with studying the effects of aging on various psychological processes is
 a) clinical psychology c) developmental psychology
 b) social psychology d) psychometric psychology
- 4) John B. Watson is associated with which psychological system?
 a) structuralism c) behaviorism
 b) functionalism d) gestaltism
- 5) The psychologist credited with developing one of the first useful tests to assess human intelligence is
 a) Jean Piaget c) Floyd Allport
 b) Alfred Binet d) James McKeen Cattell
- 6) A way of examining one's own conscious experience through self-observation of one's thoughts, feelings and sensations is
 a) introspection c) functionalism
 b) structuralism d) behaviorism
- 7) A system of thought that tried to analyze sensations and subjective experience into its basic building blocks is
 a) introspection c) functionalism
 b) structuralism d) behaviorism

Unit 3.

The Nature of Language and Symbolic Behavior

Task 1. Read and translate the text into Russian.

Part I

The use of language is one of the basically distinguishing characteristics of man.

Man's behavior is predominantly symbolic in nature. Thus, the process of language acquisition and language functioning become fundamental problems in the scientific appraisal of human behavior.

Symbolic behavior is not limited to language symbols. Music, art, and religion entail symbols which are not specifically language symbols. Therefore, man's symbolic behavior is not limited to language, but language is his most predominant type of symbolization and is the main basis of his ability to communicate. This discussion is limited essentially to that aspect of man's symbolic behavior which can be described as being attributed to the use of language.

Language is an organized set of symbols which may be either auditory or visual. It is the task of every infant to acquire the particular set of symbols which are characteristic of his culture. The auditory symbol is basic to the total language process. Genetically, it is the first language symbol which is acquired. Furthermore, it is the auditory or spoken symbol which is predominant in any cultural group. Man's symbolic behavior is determined predominantly by this auditory symbol.

It is language which makes symbolic behavior possible. Symbolic behavior is that behavior which occurs on the basis of a sign or symbol instead of the actual object, idea, or feeling. After the symbol has been acquired, an individual can relate to another individual on the basis of this symbol and this in turn makes the presence of the actual object, idea, or feeling unnecessary. When this occurs, abstract behavior has been achieved and such behavior occurs only under the circumstances of symbolization.

The most primitive of people have a highly developed language and behave in a highly symbolic manner. Nevertheless, it seems possible that abstract behavior is rather directly related to the subtlety of the language system which any specific group of human beings uses. Likewise, in language pathology, when the symbolic process has been disturbed, man is reduced in his abstract functioning; this varies greatly with the type of language pathology encountered. Before considering the complex problem of disturbed language functioning in children, it is necessary to explore the basic problem of how the normal child acquires language.

The process of language acquisition in children has been studied mainly in terms of normative data. For example, the age at which a child first speaks a single word and then speaks in sentences has been well established.

Such information is only indirectly suggestive of the process of language acquisition itself. Furthermore, the study of language has been primarily in terms of expressive language. Other aspects, such as inner and receptive language, only recently have been considered scientifically. Similarly, the study of language acquisition traditionally has considered mainly organic factors and has tacitly assumed psychological factors. It is now apparent that this is an oversimplification of the process of language acquisition. Language acquisition and language pathology are interrelated theoretically, and inclusive consideration entails concern for organic and psychological aspects simultaneously. However, the infant first lives through a nonsymbolic period.

Task 2. Comprehension questions to part I.

1. What is the basically distinguishing characteristic of man?
2. How can we describe man's symbolic behavior?
3. Is there a difference between the people's and animal's language?
4. What is the process of language acquisition in children?

Task 3. Read and translate the text into Russian.

Part II

Functionally, language can be divided into three types: inner, receptive, and expressive. Genetically, inner language is acquired first, receptive language is acquired next, and expressive is acquired last.

Inner language can be described as the use of language symbols for purposes of inner life or thought; that is, it might be described as that language which in the individual uses for autistic purposes or for "talking to himself." As the individual matures (on the average after six years of age), this inner language might be either auditory or visual; one might think in "heard words" or "seen words." *Receptive language* might be considered as that language which an individual uses to understand others. This, too, might consist of either spoken or written symbols after a certain degree of maturation has occurred. Genetically, the ability to understand the spoken word precedes that of being able to understand the written word by approximately five years. *Expressive language* can be viewed as that language which the individual uses to make himself understood to others. Again, such symbols may be either spoken or written. In general, the functional classifications of language can be viewed simply in these terms: inner language is that language which the individual uses autistically, receptive language is the language which he uses for the purpose of comprehending others, and expressive language is that language which he uses in making himself understood to others.

As indicated previously, although expressive language has been studied more extensively than either inner or receptive language, it seems that the expressive use of language can occur only after both inner and receptive language have been partially established. This is emphasized by the genetics of language development, which indicate that inner language must have been established, before receptive language can become functional and expressive language occurs only if inner and receptive language have become useful within certain minimal levels of adequacy. During approximately the first eight months of life, the infant receives sensations and through gradual integration he develops basic and fundamental inner language. At the age of approximately eight or nine months he has acquired sufficient inner language so that he begins to comprehend some of the spoken language which he hears. He then begins to use receptive language, which is the second step in the genetics of language development. After he has received or comprehended the spoken

word for approximately another four months, he begins to use expressive language. It is a well-established finding that children on the average use their first word at approximately[^] to 13 months of age. It is apparent that much of the language process in terms of language acquisition has preceded this specific occurrence of being able to use a word expressively.

(By Helmer R. Myklebust. «Speech Pathology». L., 1960.)

Task 4.

1. Classify the language types according to the functional point.
2. Say when the expressive use of language can occur.

Task 5. Discuss the text, parts I, II, in the form of a dialogue. Use the patterns and set expressions given below:

- It is important to say that...
- It is necessary to point out...
- I fully agree with the statement...
- Well, I don't think...
- I'd like to draw your attention to the fact that...
- I can't agree with you, as...
- I'm afraid you're mistaken in your opinion...
- I would ascertain that...

Task 6. Read the text.

The role of the speech-language pathologists in whole language

The speech-language pathologist should take a leadership role in whole language. Speech-language pathologists are the professionals who receive specific training in language structure, its development, disorders, and intervention procedures. The speech-language pathologist has information about all aspects of language and their interrelation. An increasing amount of literature is becoming available about whole language and its specific applications to language assessment and intervention. An enormous body of literature already exists about the relationship of whole language to reading, writing, spelling, and learning across the curriculum. By reading and acquiring a thorough understanding of whole language and its principles, the speech-language pathologist can not only provide better services to the children for whom direct intervention is provided, but can also work with other professionals through common curriculum and beliefs. This common ground will be increasingly important as service delivery models move toward collaborative consultation and the education for all children within regular education classrooms.

(Janet A. Norris. "Speech and Language Pathology". September, 1992.)

Task 7. Get ready to interpret the article along the following lines:

1. The role of a speech-language pathologist in whole language.
2. His place in the work of professionals through common curricula.
3. The relationship of whole language to reading, writing, spelling and learning across the curriculum.

Unit 4.

Task 1. Read and translate the text.

Social Work Profession

Social work is an established professional discipline with a distinctive part to play in promoting and securing the wellbeing of children, adults, families and communities. It operates within a framework of legislation and government policy, set out in Putting People First and the Children's Plan, and contributes to the development of social policy, practice and service provision. It collaborates with other social care, health, education and related services to ensure people receive integrated support. It is a profession regulated by law.

Social work is committed to enabling every child and adult to fulfill their potential, achieve and maintain independence and self-direction, make choices, take control of their own lives and support arrangements, and exercise their civil and human rights. It looks at people's lives and circumstances in the round, and works with them to personalize social care responses to fit their own individual situations. Its approaches and working methods aim to promote empowerment and creativity.

Social work embodies a set of core values and principles. It is committed to the rights of the child; respects the equality, worth and human rights of all people, and their individuality, privacy and dignity; and challenges discrimination and prejudice. Its knowledge base, drawn from relevant academic disciplines, is informed by the experience and expertise of people using services, developed through research and tested in practice.

Social work makes a particular contribution in situations where there are high levels of complexity, uncertainty, stress, conflicts of interest, and risk, particularly to children and vulnerable adults. It applies specialist analytical skills and knowledge to assessing these situations, and making complex judgments on action to take.

Professional social workers assist individuals, groups, or communities to restore or enhance their capacity for social functioning, while creating societal conditions favorable to their goals. The practice of social work requires knowledge of human development and behavior, of social, economic and cultural institutions, and of the interaction of all these factors.

Social workers are highly trained and experienced professionals. Only those who have earned social work degrees at the bachelor's, master's or doctoral levels,

and completed a minimum number of hours in supervised fieldwork, are «professional social workers».

Social workers help people overcome some of life's most difficult challenges: poverty, discrimination, abuse, addiction, physical illness, divorce, loss, unemployment, educational problems, disability and mental illness. They help prevent crises and counsel individuals, families and communities to cope more effectively with the stresses of everyday life.

Professional social workers are found in every facet of community life – in schools, hospitals, mental health clinics, senior centers, elected office, private practices, prisons, military, corporations, and in numerous public and private agencies that serve individuals and families in need. They often specialize in one or more of the following practice areas: Military Social Work, Rural Social Work, Child Welfare Services, Homeless Family Assistance, Hospital Social Work, School Violence, Depression, Chronic Pain, Development Disabilities, International Social Work, Community Mental Health, Employee Assistance, Veterans Services, Domestic Violence, Family Planning, Difficulties in School, Gerontology Services, Housing Assistance, Public Welfare.

Today, special interest social work organizations contribute to the vitality and credibility of the social work profession.

Task 2. Answer the following questions:

1. What does “social work” mean?
2. Why is social work important nowadays?
3. What are the duties of social worker?

Task 3. Read the text "The British System of Social Welfare" making use of the active terminological vocabulary and commentary and notes on it.

The British System of Social Welfare

The British social welfare system comprises the National Health Service, the personal social services, and social security. The National Health Service provides a comprehensive range of medical services which are available to all residents, irrespective of means. Local authority personal social services and voluntary organisations provide help and advice to the most vulnerable members of the community. These include elderly people, disabled people and children in need of care. The social security system is designed to secure a basic standard of living for people in financial need by providing income during periods of inability to earn (including periods of unemployment), help for families and assistance with costs arising from disablement.

Central government is directly responsible for the National Health Service, administered by a range of health authorities and boards throughout Britain acting as its agents, and for the social security system. It has an indirect responsibility for the personal social services administered by local authorities. Joint finance and planning

between health and local authorities aim to prevent overlapping of services and to encourage the development of community services.

Planned spending on social welfare in 1989—1990 was: health over £25,000 million and personal social services over £4,800 million (together representing some 15 per cent of general government expenditure); and social security benefits some £51,000 million (31percent).

Expenditure on the health service has increased substantially in real terms since 1990, and current spending is planned to grow further. More patients are now being treated than ever before. Spending on social security is rising because of increased numbers of beneficiaries, especially retirement pensioners, the long-term sick and disabled, and the unemployed, and the value of retirement and most other long-term benefits has been increased in real terms since 1990. Major reforms to the social security system have been introduced under the Social Security Act 1986; these are designed to provide a clearer, simpler system more capable of meeting genuine need. Spending on the personal social services is determined by local authorities, and while constraints are placed by central government on the total expenditure of individual local authorities, spending has risen substantially in real terms since the late 1990s, thus reflecting the priority given to this sector.

Task 4.

1. Find in the text "The British System of Social Welfare" the English equivalents for the following phrases.

1. Адресные социальные услуги. 2. Медицинские службы (услуги). 3. Службы доступны для всех резидентов. 4. Путем обеспечения дохода. 5. Наиболее незащищенные члены общества. 6. Пожилые люди. 7. Нетрудоспособные люди. 8. Дети, нуждающиеся в опеке, попечении. 9. Безработица. 10. Помощь в связи с возросшими материальными потерями из-за нетрудоспособности. 11. Система социального обеспечения. 12. Совместное финансирование и планирование. 13. Расходы на здравоохранение значительно увеличились. 14. Ожидается, что текущие расходы возрастут. 15. Сейчас лечение получает большее количество пациентов, чем когда-либо прежде. 16. Расходы на социальное обеспечение увеличиваются. 17. Люди, болеющие продолжительное время. 18. Долговременные пособия. 19. Основные реформы нацелены на создание четкой и более простой системы. 20. Общий бюджет местных органов власти

Task 5. Translate the sentences into English making use of the active vocabulary.

1. Британское правительство разработало различные программы, нацеленные на оказание социальных услуг. 2. Расходы на здравоохранение и социальные услуги несет государство. 3. Правительство провело реформы по улучшению материального обеспечения таких социальных групп как нетрудоспособные граждане, люди пожилого возраста и дети, нуждающиеся в опеке. 4.

Бюджет на здравоохранение значительно возрос с 1990 г. 5. Центральное правительство непосредственно ответственно за Национальную службу здравоохранения. 6. В настоящее время большее количество пациентов, чем когда-либо прежде, получает лечение. 7. Число лиц, получающих пособия, значительно увеличилось в последние годы. 8. Расходы на адресные социальные услуги определяются местными органами власти.

Task 6. Answer the following comprehension questions on the text "The British System of Social Welfare".

1. What does the British social welfare system comprise?
2. What organizations provide help and advice to the most vulnerable members of the community?
3. What categories of people refer to the most vulnerable members of the community?
4. What is the central government responsible for?
5. Since what year has the expenditure on the health service increased?
6. What major reforms to the social security system have been introduced under the Social Security Act?
7. What authorities are responsible for the personal social services administration?
8. Spending on what services has risen substantially in real terms since the late 1990s?

Unit 5.

Task 1. Read the text and translate.

Youth Movements

Young people are active participants in their own history. Past generations of radical students have played a part in protests and revolutions against the existing order of society. A youth movements this sense has an ideological or political character. At the same time ordinary young people usually belong to a youth movement through membership of an adult-led, voluntary youth organization, such as the Scouts or Guides. There are also fashion-led "youth cultures", identified by types of dress, music and language. The term "youth movement" is so wide that it can refer to Punk Rockers as well as the Young Conservatives.

The world's first voluntary youth organization was the Church-based Boys' Brigade, founded in Glasgow, Scotland, in 1883 by William Alexander Smith (1854-1914) and dedicated to religious education and developing the habits of Obedience, Reverence, Discipline, Self-Respect, and all that tends towards a true Christian manliness.

In the 1900s, in Germany appeared a movement of middle-class students who took up open-air tramping. Richard Schirrmann, a German schoolteacher, opened the

first youth hostel in 1909. Youth hostels providing cheap accommodation for young people are now found in most areas of the world.

In England, Major-General Robert Baden-Powell (1857-1941) founded a uniformed woodcraft movement – the Boy Scouts – in 1908. Like the Boys' Brigade, the Scout movement has spread around the world. A sister organization to the Scouts, the Girl Guide Association, founded in 1910, also has a large membership worldwide. These organizations train boys and girls in various useful skills, such as lighting a fire, cooking, fishing, and for developing their character. Scouts traditionally carry a penknife and their motto is "Be prepared".

Young people have contributed to mass political movements of both left and right. In the 1930s there functioned youth Fascist organizations in Mussolini's Italy and Hitler's Germany. After 1933 membership of the Nazi Hitler Youth became compulsory. In Britain some young people joined the Blackshirts. The Austrian Red Falcons were an active 1930s socialist movement.

Soviet Russia had Young Communist groups: Octobrist, Pioneer and Komsomol whose aim was political education of young people.

Since World War II the media have spoken a lot about the activities of various notorious youth cults, thus spreading information about them. The Teddy Boys of the 1950s, with their long jackets, vel-vet collars, drainpipe trousers and crepe-soled shoes were the first of the rebellious working-class youth cults. In the early 1960s came new groups such as the Mods, dressed in Italian-style clothes, and their leather-clad rivals, the Rockers, associated with motorcycles and rock-and-roll music.

The Hippies of the late 1960s were more middle-class. They experimented with drugs, lived in communities, grew their hair long, and were attracted to radical politics.

Skinheads combining elements of both Mods and Rockers and associated with the racism of the far right, arrived on the scene in the late 1960s. Punk Rockers achieved notoriety through the attention of the media in the late 1970s, with their unique "Mohican" hairstyles, vivid make-up, casual clothes and aggressive music. Several of these youth cultures were recycled in the 1980s.

Task 2 . Look through the text "Youth Movements" and say how the following ideas are expressed in it.

- young people take an active part in making their history,
- an organization headed by grown up people,
- devoted to religious upbringing,
- the organization has a lot of members all over the world,
- for building their personality,
- their slogan is "Be prepared"
- the participation in this organization became a must for everyone
- some of youth cults were revived

Task 3. Find in the text “Youth Movements” English equivalents for the following:

- 1) радикально настроенные студенты
- 2) существующий общественный порядок
- 3) почтение (старшим, религии)
- 4) родственная организация
- 5) прививают различные полезные навыки
- 6) воспитание характера
- 7) противники, соперники
- 8) яркий, привлекающий внимание
- 9) были возрождены
- 10) движение с целью научиться жить вне городской цивилизации
- 11) печально известные юношеские культовые движения

Task 4. Give your opinion about the following ideas and comment one of them.

Young people tend to unite in groups or organizations because they enjoy being together.

Wearing the same clothes or uniforms, listening the same music and sharing the same ideas make membership of such youth organizations or cultures more attractive, give young people a sense of belonging.

Young people are very impressionable and it isn't so difficult for adults to use their enthusiasm to their own ends. History knows a lot of such examples.

Young people should be very careful about their choice of organizations as it is a great responsibility.

Political organizations for young people should not exist at all because children aren't experienced enough to foresee the results of their activities.

There are very few Russian youth organizations at the moment and they are mostly adult-led political organizations.

Some youth cultures can be dangerous for their participants.

Task 5. Read and understand the text.

Heinrich Pestalozzi

Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi was born in Zurich and brought up by his mother as his father died when the boy was only five. He *was educated* at the University of Zurich. He was forced to abandon his career because of his political activity on behalf of a reformist Swiss political organisation.

At his farm near Zurich *he conducted a school* for poor children. He was influenced by the works of the French philosopher Jean-Jacques Rousseau. While Rousseau laid emphasis on the tutor, Pestalozzi made a significant contribution to the establishment of the school as a central educational force. He set up an industrial school for 20 orphans where work and learning were to be combined. The school was to be a

production unit so that children could finance their own learning, but the result was a financial failure.

He wrote a *didactic novel* “*Leonard and Gertrude*” (1801), expressing his theories on social reform through education. Learning by Pestalozzi was based on immediate observation. Instead of dealing with words children should learn through activity. Pestalozzi explored how Rousseau’s ideas might be developed and implemented and put his theory into practice. He set out concrete ways forward, based on research.

In 1798 Pestalozzi was briefly in charge of a school for orphans in Stanz, later he was appointed head of a Teacher Training College at Burgdorf and later he set up the Institute in Yverdon. It was at that period when he published his book “*How Gertrude Teaches Her Children*” (1809) which was an epistolary educational tract. He wanted to establish a psychological method of instruction. He placed a special emphasis on spontaneity and self-activity. Children should not be given ready-made answers but should arrive at answers themselves. To do this their self-activity should be cultivated and encouraged. The aim is to educate the whole child; intellectual education is only a part of a wider plan. He opposed the system of memorization learning and strict discipline. It was replaced with a system based on love and understanding of the child’s world. He abolished flogging.

He stressed the individuality of the child and the necessity for teachers to be taught how to develop abilities of a child rather than to implant knowledge. *The teacher should be a loving facilitator of knowledge.* Although he respected the individuality of the teacher, Pestalozzi felt that there must exist a unified science of education that could be learned and practised. He believed that teacher training should consist of a broad liberal education followed by a period of research and professional training.

Pestalozzi had and has a lot of supporters and followers. One of them was a German educator Friedrich Froebel, the founder of the kindergarten movement, who taught at Yverdon from 1806 to 1810 and was greatly influenced by Pestalozzi’s method. Other Pestalozzi’s followers developed various sayings characterising his method as “from the known to the unknown, from the simple to the complex, from the concrete to the abstract”.

Thus, we may conclude that his theory laid the foundation for modern elementary education and teacher training.

Task 6. Answer the questions to the text above:

1. Where did Pestalozzi study?
2. Why was he forced to abandon his career?
3. Whose ideas was Pestalozzi influenced by?
4. What did he establish as a central educational force?
5. What was an industrial school to be?
6. Where did Pestalozzi express his theories?
7. What novels did he write?
8. What was learning based on?
9. How should children learn?

10. What ways did Pestalozzi set out?
11. Which educational establishments did he conduct his research in?
12. What method of instruction did Pestalozzi want to establish?
13. What powers of children should be cultivated to help them to arrive at answers?
14. What system did he oppose?
15. What principles should a system of education be based on?
16. What should teacher training consist of?
17. What were the principles characterising Pestalozzi's method?
18. What is Pestalozzi's contribution to the theory of education?

Часть II.

ОПИСАНИЕ ИССЛЕДОВАНИЯ: БАЗОВАЯ ЛЕКСИКА

Для того чтобы представить свою исследовательскую работу, необходимо составить ее краткую аннотацию (Summary) и правильно подобрать ключевые слова. Начнем с базовой лексики, необходимой для описания исследования.

Выпускная квалификационная работа: graduation paper, final paper.

Исследование: research, investigation, exploration, examination, study.

Исследовать, изучать: to research, to explore, to study, to investigate.

Проводить исследование: to do research, to carry out, to conduct investigation.

Базовые глаголы:

to argue

to assess (decide the importance and give reasons)

to assume

to claim

to conclude

to consider

to criticize

to define

to describe

to determine

to differentiate between (show how something is different)

to elaborate (discuss in detail, with reasons and examples)

to emphasize

to enumerate (name and list and explain)

to examine (look at carefully)

to explain

to identify (point out and describe)

to observe

to outline (give a short description of the main points)

to regard

to report
 to state
 to suggest
 to summarize
 to verify (check, make sure that something is accurate or true)

Базовые имена существительные:

evidence
 concept
 theory
 argument
 source
 survey
 findings
 issue
 experiment

Обратите внимание на то, что некоторые общеупотребительные существительные (греческого и латинского происхождения), используемые в научной терминологии, образуют формы множественного числа по особым правилам:

hypothesis – hypotheses
 basis – bases
 datum – data
 phenomenon – phenomena(e)
 criterion – criteria

Базовые имена прилагательные:

reliable
 valid
 explicit
 empirical

Task 1. Translate the vocabulary presented above.

Task 2. Match the phrases in English and Russian.

To publish, sphere, research, to include, importance, to develop, to collaborate, scientific adviser, scientific degree, to be awarded, higher education, department, to encounter, branch, research team, data, to participate, a final paper, an applicant.

Выпускная работа, опубликовать, область, быть награжденным, включать, (научное) исследование, важность, кафедра, абитуриент, встречать(ся), исследовательская группа, данные (информация), разрабатывать, высшее образование, сотрудничать, участвовать, ученая степень, научный руководитель, отрасль

Task 3. Find the synonyms.

1) device, research, technology, branch, obtain, importance, collaborator, team, scientific adviser, to enable, thesis, journal, to prove a thesis, to collect, data, to encounter, to be engaged in, to be through with, scientific papers, rapidly;

2) quickly, publications, instrument, technique, to finish, to be busy with, field, to get, significance, to come across, information, to gather, coworker, group, supervisor, to defend a dissertation, scientific magazine, dissertation, to allow, investigation.

Task 4. Find the antonyms.

1) theory, to obtain, rapidly, experiment, to finish, to increase, new, experienced, unknown, wide, passive, to enable, high, complicated;

2) simple, low, practice, to give, to disable, active, slowly, theory, narrow, famous, to start, to decrease, old, inexperienced.

Task 5. Compose the story about your research work. The following questions can help you.

- 1 What are you?
- 2 What is the theme of your research work?
- 3 What influenced on the choice of this theme?
- 4 What is your special subject?
- 5 What field of knowledge are you doing research in?
- 6 Have you been working at the problem long?
- 7 Is your work of practical or theoretical importance?
- 8 Who do you collaborate with?
- 9 Have you completed the experimental part of your research?
- 10 How many scientific papers have you published?
- 11 Do you take part in the work of scientific conferences?

Часть III.

ЧТЕНИЕ, АННОТИРОВАНИЕ, РЕФЕРИРОВАНИЕ ЛИТЕРАТУРЫ НА ИНОСТРАННОМ ЯЗЫКЕ В СООТВЕТСТВУЮЩЕЙ ОТРАСЛИ ЗНАНИЙ

Аннотация представляет собой предельно краткое изложение содержания первичного документа, дающее общее представление о его тематике. Аннотация не может заменить оригинал и ее назначение состоит в том, чтобы дать возможность специалисту составить мнение о целесообразности более детального ознакомления с данным материалом.

В этом состоит один из существенных моментов отличия аннотации от **реферата**, который, хотя и в краткой форме, знакомит читателя с сутью излагаемого в первоисточнике содержания.

План-схема аннотирования статьи

План ответа	Полезные выражения
1. The title of the article	The article is headlined... The headline of the article I have read is...
2. The author of the article, where and when the article was published	The author of the article is... The article is written by... It is published in ...
3. The general topic of the article, the aim of it	The main idea of the article is... the article is about... the article is devoted to ...The article deals with...The article touches upon...The purpose of the article is to give the reader some information on... the aim of the article is to provide the reader with some material (data) on...
4. The contents of the article. Some facts, names, figures	The author starts by telling the reader that... The author writes (states, stresses, thinks, points out) that...

План-схема реферирования статьи

План ответа	Полезные выражения
1. The title of the article	The article is headlined... The headline of the article I have read is...
2. The author of the article, where and when the article was published	The author of the article is... The article is written by... It is published in ...
3. The general topic of the article, the aim of it	The main idea of the article is... the article is about... the article is devoted to ...The article deals with...The article touches upon...The purpose of the article is to give the reader some information on... the aim of the article is to provide the reader with some material (data) on...
4. The contents of the article. Some facts, names, figures	The author starts by telling the reader that... The author writes (states, stresses, thinks, points out) that... The article describes... According to the text...Further the author reports (says)... The article goes on to say that... In conclusion... the author comes to the conclusion that...
5. Your opinion of the article	I found the article interesting (important, dull, of no value, too hard to understand...)

VOCABULARY

Newspaper, paper – газета: *Izvestiya is a daily paper (a daily).*

A national paper, a country-wide paper – газета, циркулирующая по всей стране

A local paper – местная газета

Magazine – журнал

A weekly magazine, a weekly – еженедельный журнал

A monthly magazine, a monthly – ежемесячный журнал

Periodical – периодическое издание

Copy – экземпляр (газеты, журнала)

Issue – выпуск, номер

Today's issue; yesterday's issue

Issue, come out – выходить (о газете, журнале)

Publish, carry – публиковать, помещать, печатать

Editor – редактор

Edit – редактировать, подготавливать к печати

Supplement – приложение (к газете, журналу)

Article (on) – статья (о, об): *an economic article; an article on jazz music*

A leading article, an editorial – передовая статья

Report (on) – сообщать о (об): *The article reports on new films. The article reports that ... It is reported that*

Event, developments – событие, события

The event (developments) at home and abroad – события в стране и за рубежом

The latest events (developments) – последние события

Current events (developments) – текущие события

To follow the events – следить за событиями

Item – газетная заметка, сообщение: *There are some interesting items on international events in today's paper.*

News – новость, новости, известия

Home news – внутренние события (сообщения о событиях внутри страны)

Foreign news, international news, world news – новости из-за рубежа, события за рубежом

Local news – местные новости

Latest news – последние события

Affairs – дела, события

Home affairs, national affairs, domestic affairs internal affairs – события в стране

Foreign affairs, international affairs, world affairs, external affairs – события за рубежом

Coverage – освещение в печати

To give a full (wide) coverage – широко освещать в печати какое-либо событие

Cover – освещать в печати: *The sports news is fully covered in this paper*

Deal (with) (dealt) – рассматривать (вопрос): *The article deals with the latest events in Africa.*

Touch (upon) – касаться, затрагивать: *The article touches upon the current events abroad.*

Devote to – посвящать, уделять внимание: *The article is devoted to the developments in South Africa.*

Space – место, занятое статьей: *to devote a great amount of space to a local news*

Title – заглавие, название: *What's the title of today's editorial?*

Headline – газетный заголовок: *The article under the headline "Chemistry for Agriculture" states (reports) that...*

Key-note, the main idea – основная мысль, идея: *The key-note of the article is economic developments in India.*

Be addressed (to) – быть предназначенным, предназначаться (для), адресоваться: *The magazine is addressed to the general reader.*

Author – автор: *The author of the article believes...* – полагает... (*considers...* – считает...; *explains...* – объясняет...; *describes...* – описывает...; *discusses...* – обсуждает...; *points out...* – указывает...; *emphasizes...* – подчеркивает...; *comes to the conclusion...* – приходит к выводу...).

Задания к тексту для аннотирования

1. Прочтите текст.
2. Ответьте на вопросы:
 - а) О чем сообщается?
 - б) Что подробно описывается?
 - в) Что кратко рассматривается?
 - г) Чему уделено особое внимание?
3. Составьте аннотацию на базе полученных ответов на вопросы.
4. Прочтите текст снова.
5. Сократите всю малосущественную информацию, не относящуюся к теме.
6. Обобщите полученную информацию в единый связный текст.
7. Отредактируйте текст аннотации.

Задания к тексту для реферирования

1. Прочтите текст
2. Выделите ключевые фрагменты текста и отметьте абзацы, содержащие конкретную информацию по теме, пронумеруйте эти абзацы.
3. Прочтите текст снова, останавливаясь только на отмеченных абзацах, озаглавьте эти абзацы.
4. Сделайте лексико-грамматический анализ непонятных предложений и переведите их.
5. Сократите малосущественную информацию, не относящуюся к теме:
 - замените в сложноподчиненных предложениях все придаточные предложения причастными и инфинитивными оборотами или существительными с предлогами;
 - устрани́те из текста все сложные временные формы сказуемого, модальные глаголы и их эквиваленты;
 - замените сложные и распространенные определения простыми;

- образуйте предложения с однородными членами.

6. Составьте логический план для текста реферата:

- выделите суть вопроса (проблемы, темы);
- включите названия озаглавленных абзацев;
- измените последовательность пунктов плана в зависимости от смысло-

го веса ключевых фрагментов.

7. Обобщите полученную информацию в единый связный текст.

8. Составьте черновой реферат по логическому плану на базе полученной информации (отмеченных абзацев).

9. Отредактируйте текст реферата.

ЕГУ им. И.А. Бунина

ТЕКСТЫ ДЛЯ АННОТИРОВАНИЯ И РЕФЕРИРОВАНИЯ

Unit 1.

Text 1.

Higher Education in Great Britain

Nowadays higher education in Great Britain is provided by universities, colleges of education, colleges of arts and colleges of further education.

There are 97 universities in Britain, including the Open University. The oldest and best-known universities are located in Oxford, Cambridge, London, Leeds, Manchester, Liverpool, Edinburgh, Cardiff, Bristol, and Birmingham. Students are carefully selected. The General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCEA) and good A-level results in at least two subjects are necessary to get a place at a university. However, good certificate and exam scores are not enough. Universities choose their students after interviews.

English universities greatly differ from each other. They differ in date of foundation, size, history, tradition, general organization, methods of instruction, and way of student life.

The universities can be roughly divided into three groups:

- the oldest universities (Oxford and Cambridge);
- the redbrick universities (founded between 1850 and 1930, including London University);
- the new universities (founded after World War II).

Oxford (12th century) and **Cambridge** (13th century) are the oldest and most prestigious Universities in Great Britain. They are often called collectively **Oxbridge**. Both universities are independent. The basis of teaching there is by weekly tutorials. Each student has a tutor who controls and guides his training. Normally a student writes an essay which his tutor criticizes both in writing and in person with the student. Oxford and Cambridge cling to their traditions such as the use of Latin at degree ceremonies. Full academic dress is worn at examinations.

Many great men studied at Cambridge, among them **Desiderius Erasmus** the great Dutch scholar, **Roger Bacon** the philosopher, **Milton** the poet, **Oliver Cromwell** the soldier, **Newton** the scientist, and **Kapitza** the famous Russian physicist.

The general pattern of teaching at other universities remains a mixture of lectures, seminars and tutorials. Each university and department has its own method of assessment, but, in general, progress is measured through a combination of coursework, dissertation and finals (end-of-course examinations).

Other colleges for further education include polytechnics (all have the status of universities), colleges of education, specialist colleges (Agricultural colleges, colleges of Art and Music, etc.), further education colleges.

There is an interesting form of studies which is called the Open University. It is intended for people who study in their own free time and who "attend" lectures by watching television (the BBC) and listening to the radio. They keep in touch by

phone and letter with their tutors and attend summer schools. More than 6,000 students, of all ages, get degrees this way every year.

Degree titles vary according to the practice of each university; the most common titles for a first degree are Bachelor of Arts (BA) or Bachelor of Science (BS). Usually they are awarded after four years of study. The second degree titles are Master of Arts (MA) and Master of Science (MS), the highest degree in most fields is the Doctor of Philosophy (PhD).

For all Degrees, Higher National Diploma and Higher National Certificate courses as well as for some Postgraduate Diplomas, student allowances are available from Local Educational Authorities in England and Wales and from the Scottish Office Education Department. The grant can be topped up by a loan from the Student Loan Company.

Tuition fees are high. Especially for overseas students, and they are increased each year in line with inflation.

University life is considered “an experience”; the exams are competitive but the social life and living away from home are also important.

Text 2.

Educational System in Russia

Russia is the country where the Constitution guarantees everyone's right to education. This country has a long-standing tradition in high-quality education for all **citizens**. The Russian educational system may be arranged into four major groups: primary, secondary, higher and postgraduate. As for primary education Russian children go to preschool until they are seven years old, then they are **enrolled in elementary school**. Secondary education in Russia takes eleven years to complete. At the end of the 9th form pupils have to take the Unified State Exam. They have to pass Russian and Mathematics. At the age of 14 a pupil **obtains** a Certificate of Incomplete Secondary Education. Then he or she has to choose one of the following ways to complete secondary education: either continue education for two more years at a secondary school or go to a Vocational school or a College, which usually takes three years to complete.

At the end of the 11th form pupils have to choose 3 or 4 subjects for Unified State Exams and obtain a Certificate of Complete Secondary Education. An excellent score ranges, depending on the subject, from 65 to 90 out of 100. The score of three subjects is the basis of **admitting** a student to a university. It is good for school leavers that now they don't have to pass both their final school exams and **entrance exams** at a university. Students have a chance to apply only for 5 higher education institutions.

Higher education in Russia is provided by state and non-state accredited **higher education institutions (HEIs)**. Education in state HEIs is not completely **free of charge**. In non-state HEIs all students must pay **tuition fees**. Higher education is under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education of the Russian Federation. The standard of higher education in Russia is considered to be one of the best in the world

with advanced and sophisticated teaching methods and scientific **approaches**. Due to the globalization of the world educational system, the system of education in Russia began the transition to the Bologna process. According to this system higher education in European countries is to be organised in such a way that it is easy to move from one country to another for the purpose of further study or employment.

Russian universities provide different degrees: the degree of Specialist, the degree of **Bachelor** and the degree of **Master**. The degree of Specialist can be obtained after completing 5–6 years of studies, the degree of Bachelor can be received after 4 years and the degree of Master can be earned during another 1–2 years of studies. It is worth mentioning that Specialists and Masters are **eligible** for **post-graduate** courses (*Aspirantura*), but Bachelors are not.

Unit 2.

Text 1

Methods of Research

One way to learn about people is through archival studies, an examination of existing records of human activities. Psychological researchers often examine old newspaper stories, medical records, birth certificates, crime reports, popular books, and artwork. They may also examine statistical trends of the past, such as crime rates, birth rates, marriage and divorce rates, and employment rates. The strength of such measures is that by observing people only secondhand, researchers cannot influence the subjects by their presence.

Sometimes psychologists interview, test, observe, and investigate the backgrounds of specific individuals in detail. Such case studies are conducted when researchers believe that an in-depth look at one individual will reveal something important about people in general. Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget first began to formulate a theory of intellectual development by questioning his own children. Neuroscientists learn about how the human brain works by testing patients who have suffered brain damage. Cognitive psychologists learn about human intelligence by studying child prodigies and other gifted individuals. Social psychologists learn about group decision-making by analyzing the policy decisions of government and business groups.

In naturalistic observation, the researcher observes people as they behave in the real world. The researcher simply records what occurs and does not intervene in the situation. Psychologists use naturalistic observation to study the interactions between parents and children, doctors and patients, police and citizens, managers and workers.

In an experiment, the psychologist manipulates one factor in a situation—keeping other aspects of the situation constant and then observes the effect of the manipulation on behavior. The people whose behavior is being observed are the subjects of the experiment. The factor that an experimenter varies (the proposed cause) is known as the independent variable, and the behavior being measured (the proposed effect) is called the dependent variable. In a test of the hypothesis that frustration

triggers aggression, frustration would be the independent variable, and aggression the dependent variable.

There are three requirements for conducting a valid scientific experiment: (1) control over the independent variable, (2) the use of a comparison group, and (3) the random assignment of subjects to conditions. In its most basic form, then, a typical experiment compares a large number of subjects who are randomly assigned to experience one condition with a group of similar subjects who are not. Those who experience the condition compose the experimental group, and those who do not make up the control group. If the two groups differ significantly in their behavior during the experiment, that difference can be attributed to the presence of the condition, or independent variable.

Text 2

The senses of smell and taste

Why does a potato chip taste salty? Why does sugar taste sweet? There are two sense organs you use to taste. One of these sense organs is the tongue. If you look in the mirror and stick out your tongue, you will see little bumps on it. These bumps are called papillae. Inside each of these bumps are tiny taste buds.

Taste buds are cells that are connected to nerves. The nerves carry messages about the food you eat to the brain. The nerves tell your brain how something tastes. You can taste if something is bitter, sour, sweet, or salty.

You taste bitter things at the back of your tongue, sour and salty things on the sides, and sweet things on the tip. The tongue is only one part of the sense of tasting.

The other sense organ you use to taste is your nose. The nose is also the sense organ you use to smell. The smell of food plays a big part in how food tastes. If food smells good, it usually tastes good! Sometimes when you have a cold and your nose is stopped up, you cannot smell anything. When this happens, nothing you eat will taste very good either. Everything that has a smell gives off a small amount of gas. This gas is called an odor. When you breathe in, the odor enters your nose. Some things have a weak odor. When things have a weak odor, you have to sniff to bring the odor into your nose. There are special nerves in the nose that send the "smell message" to the brain. Odor enters through the nose and passes to the nerves. The nerves send a "smell message" to the brain.

Is it important to be able to smell things? Your sense of smell protects you from danger. You smell smoke when there is a fire. Food begins to smell bad when it is no longer good to eat. Animals such as skunks spray a liquid that has a bad odor to protect them from danger.

In this reading you learned about the senses of taste and smell and their two sense organs, the tongue and the nose. You also learned why these two senses are important.

How do smell and taste work? Smell and taste belong to our chemical sensing system, or chemo sensation. The complicated processes of smelling and tasting begin when molecules released by the substances around us stimulate special nerve cells in

the nose, mouth or throat. These cells transmit messages to the brain, where specific smells or tastes are identified.

Olfactory (smell nerve) cells are stimulated by the odors around us — the fragrance from a rose, the smell of bread baking. These nerve cells are found in a tiny patch of tissue high up in the nose, and they connect directly to the brain.

Taste cells react to food or drink mixed with saliva and are clustered in the taste buds of the mouth and throat. Many of the small bumps that can be seen on the tongue contain taste buds. These surface cells send taste information to nearby nerve fibers, which send messages to the brain.

Taste and smell cells are the only cells in the nervous system that are replaced when they become old or damaged. Scientists are examining this phenomenon while studying ways to replace other damaged nerve cells.

A third chemosensory mechanism, called *the common chemical sense*, contributes to our senses of smell and taste. In this system, thousands of free nerve endings — especially on the moist surfaces of the eyes, nose, mouth and throat — identify sensations like the sting of ammonia, the coolness of menthol and the “heat” of chili peppers.

Unit 3.

Text 1

Language development and the Home

The early childhood years for children with exceptionalities are the ground to their long-term development. It is at this stage of development that young children begin to develop the motor, social, cognitive, and speech and language skills they will use the rest of their lives. Children (and adults) spend less time at home with family than ever before. For example, in 1985 parents spend 40 percent less time with their children than they did in 1965, and that was only 17 hours per week. Some evidence hints that today's parents spend even less time with their children: About 7 million children of working parents, as early as 11 weeks old, spend thirty hours per week in child care. Regardless, the child's parents and the home environment provide the foundation for the skills. Even for those children who spend most of their days away from home those whose home environment is rich in language - where parents talk to their children, where children are given the opportunity to explore the use of language, and where experiences are broad - usually develop fine speech and language skills. When children do not have appropriate language models - why they do not hear language used often, when they do not have experiences to share or a reason to talk - it is not uncommon for their language to be delayed and can even become impaired. Children are individuals; so too are parents and the language environments they provide at home. It is important for educator not to make generalizations about either parents or students. For example, it is unfair and incorrect to assume that parents are responsible for their child's stuttering. Research has shown that parents of stutterers are not different in any characteristics and speech qualities from parents of non-stutterers. Generally relations about families from di-

verse backgrounds are inappropriate. Diversity is heterogeneous, where no assumptions are accurate.

Language is normally acquired in a rather orderly fashion.- During the first year of life, infants hear language spoken around them and organize why they hear so that they can gain meaning from it. Toward the end of their first year, infants are able to respond to some of the language they hear. For example, they know their names, respond to greetings, respond to simple verbal commands, and use objects in their immediate environment. At this time; in fantasy also seem to copy the voice patterns they hear by babbling, regardless of the language they hear. Babies begin to talk by first using one- and two-words utterances that are easy to say and have meaning to them (*mama, cookie, doggie*). Throughout their second year of life, children use a growing vocabulary longer sentences and more complexity. They are learning the form (the rules of language and how to apply language rules to give meaning to their oral communications. Regardless of the language heard, children seem to develop language in much the same way across cultures - by interacting with their environment.

To make sense of the language they hear and, ultimately, to learn to use that language, children employ various strategies. All do not use the same ones but children who develop language normally apply some structure to make sense of what they hear. For example, some young children, who do not yet understand oral language, might come to understand an adult's intentions by watching nonverbal clues and comprehending the context of the situation. Through such repeated experiences, they come to learn language as well. Other children attend more selectively and learn more vocabulary for objects they can action or interact with (*ball, key, sock*) or objects that change or move (*clock, car*). Still others focus on specific characteristics of objects (*size, shape, sound*). All these children are learning to categorize and organize objects and their thoughts, skills that are necessary for learning academic tasks later.

When children do not develop language at the expected rate, intervention is needed. In almost every community, speech and language specialists are available to provide therapy and instruction to children and to assist parents in helping their children acquire language. With training and guidance from SLPs, parents can be excellent language teachers for children with language impairments. In fact, when home-based intervention is provided by parents, children's language scores improve more than when only clinic-based instruction is provided by professionals. Specialists suggest that family members specifically label or name objects in the home. They also suggest that simple words be used more often to describe the objects the child is playing with: "This ball is red. It is round. It is soft". They can encourage repetitions of correct productions of sounds and repeat the child's end to help make a comparison. They can play a game of "fill in the blank" sentence. They can ask the child questions that require expanded answers. The family should include the child in activities outside of the home, too, such as visits to the zoo, the market, or a shopping centre, so that the child has more to talk about Practicing good language

skills can be incorporated into everyday events. Family members should model language and have the child imitate good language models. For example, a parent might say, "This pencil is blue. What colour is this pencil?" and the child should be encouraged to respond that the pencil is blue. It is also suggested that parents encourage children to engage in the act of "storytelling". Through these stories, children should describe, explain, and interpret their experiences or the stories they have read. Children need a reason to talk, and the home environment can foster children's oral expression by providing many rich and diverse experiences for children to talk about and by providing good language models for children to imitate.

Language development and the Home Deborah Deutsch Smith (from "Introduction to special Education. Teaching in an Age of Challenge". University of New Mexico, 1998.)

Text 2

Types of speech impairments

Part 1. Voice problems

People with speech impairments have difficulty using the communication process efficiently. Speech is abnormal when it is unintelligible, is unpleasant, or interferes with communication. The three major types of speech impairments are voice, articulation, and fluency (for example, stuttering). Any one of these three speech impairments is distracting to the listener and can negatively affect the communication process.

One type of speech impairment, **voice problems**, is not very common in schoolchildren, but when this speech impairment does occur it needs immediate attention from a professional. Voice is a measure of self; it is part of one's identity. We can identify many of our friends, for example, simply by hearing their voices. Voice distinguishes each person from others, and we typically do not think about how it functions. But when it does not function as usual, such as when we have laryngitis, we find it frustrating. Many famous personalities are recognized by their unique voices. Think of how impressionists create mental images of famous people through voice and gesture. Our voices also mirror our emotions; we often can tell when people we know well are happy, sad, angry, or scared merely by hearing their voices.

Two aspects of voice are important: pitch and loudness. A voice problem usually involves a problem with one or both of these aspects. **Pitch** is the perceived high or low quality of voice. Men typically have lower voice pitch than women. A man's voice whose pitch is high or a woman's pitch that is low attracts attention. If the receiver of communication pays more attention to the voice than to the message, though, communication is impaired. When young boys' voice pitch changes during

puberty, attention is drawn to the boys and their unintentional changes in voice. Of course, this pitch change is a normal part of development and disappears as the boy's body grows and voice pitch becomes stabilized.

Loudness is the other main aspect of voice. In some cases, people are¹ labeled with certain personality traits because of the loudness of their voices: 1 "She is such a soft-spoken individual". "He is loud and brash". Voice can communicate much of the intended message for delivery. In some cases, if the quality of voice is so distracting that the message is misunderstood or lost, speech therapy is probably necessary.

Part II. Articulation problems

Articulation problems are the most common speech impairments. Articulation is the process of producing speech sounds. The receiver of communication must understand the sounds of the words spoken to understand the full message. If speech sounds are incorrectly produced, one sound might be confused with another, changing the meaning of the message. A child who substitutes a / for a κ sound might say "titty tat" instead of "kitty cat." In such cases, if the words are different or unintelligible the message has no meaning. Speech/language pathologists (SLPs), who specialize in correcting speech impairments, spend a considerable portion of their time remediating articulation errors. They also work with language, voice, and fluency problems.

Articulation is related to the speaker's age, culture, and environment. Compare the speech of a 3-year-old child, a 10-year-old, and an adult. Some of the most common articulation errors young children make are substitutions and distortions of the 5 and z sounds and substituting a w for an / and a iv for an r. A 3-year-old might say, "Thee Thuzi thwim" for "See Suzi swim," and is perceived by adults as being cute and acceptable. However, the same articulation behavior in a 10-year-old child or an adult is not developmental^ correct or acceptable. Articulation behavior that is developmentally normal at one age is not acceptable at another.

About 2 to 3 percent of all children require professional help to overcome or compensate for their articulation errors. Teachers and others working with young children should be aware that children ages 2 to 6 generally make certain articulation mistakes as they go through a normal sequence of speech sound development. Adults should not pay too much attention to such misarticulations. However, if adults become concerned that a child is not acquiring articulation skills in a normal manner, the child should be referred to an SLP for a speech evaluation.

Articulation, as mentioned earlier, is also related to the geographical region in which a person lives. For example, some people from certain sections of New York substitute a d for the th sound, resulting in *dese*, *dem*, and *dose*. Bostonians often use an *er* sound for an *a* (*idear* for *idea*), and many Southerners draw out vowels. Although these different articulations are apparent to people who do not reside in a particular locale, they are normal in those regions. Differences in articulation due to regional dialects are *not* errors. Teachers should be careful not to refer children who

have moved from one area of the country to another to an SLP solely because of dialectal differences in their speech.

Unit 4.

Text 1

The Essence of Social Work

The social work profession is committed to reducing human suffering, enhancing the quality of life, and confronting the causes of social injustices that occur throughout the world around us. This commitment inspires social workers to develop skills that promote change on all various levels. Whether it is dealing with an ill person, a homeless person, or a person who has undergone domestic violence. The social workers are trained specifically to provide direct services to individuals, such as: families, groups and communities.

They learn to confront and change the problems that are causing the injustices, the discriminations, and the oppressions. For the essence of their work is all about the help that they are able to supply to those whom are going through such difficult times with in their lives.

One of the hardest things for a social worker to have to deal with is leaving their work at work, and not bringing it home with them. For each and every single social worker that is out there and trying to help improve upon people's lives, no matter who they are, they are going to have to deal with some traumatic cases. In all different areas within the field of social work, the cases almost always have an impact, and in all honesty no matter how traumatic the case is, it is always going to leave the imprint on the social worker and on their career. A social worker forms a bond with the person of whom they are trying to help, and no matter who you are in life once a bond has been formed you are never going to forget that person you have made that connection with. In most cases the social worker can see a little deeper than what is just sitting on the surface of the person of whom they are assisting, they begin seeing inside of them and who they truly are. This is where it then becomes difficult, that once your work has been done for the day and you return home, you are expected to leave the cases alone, to ignore them and to move on with your own life.

Text 2

The Whys and Hows of Cheating

Why Students Do It-How We Can Stop Them

The first thing to understand about cheating is that the vast majority of young people believe that cheating is wrong. Yet surveys show that most young people cheat at least once in their high school careers. So, the most important question is why do young people behave in ways that are inconsistent with their beliefs? According to Gary Niels, an educator who has studied cheating in our schools, the answer is

survival. In a school setting, says Niels, saving face is the "... desire to save oneself from the anger of a parent or teacher; it can mean avoiding embarrassment; it can mean economic survival... Nowadays, college acceptance is the major instigator of this survival instinct." There's a lot of competition to get accepted at the best schools. Acceptance at these elite colleges and universities requires great grades—so if you can't do the work, you have to be dishonest and cheat. In addition, many students feel that everyone else is cheating, so they'll be at a disadvantage if they don't cheat.

What to Do about It? Combating Cheating at Home

Of course, it is easy to point the finger at young people and say that they are immoral. However, who is supposed to give them their moral compass? We are. Somehow our society has grown to tolerate cheating and it has been a top-down rather than a bottom-up process. Children learn to cheat or at least cut corners at home from their parents. Many of them are not taught to see the difference between right and wrong. Other children hear the right lessons, but observe their parents behaving very differently. Parents need to model integrity at all times. Consider this simple example:

Last night I was attending a movie with my family. My son ran into a classmate whose father was in the next ticket line. When we reached the front of the line to buy our tickets, we all heard the boy's father say "One adult, two children" to the ticket agent. Although his son was too old for a child's ticket, he decided that he could get away with it. He saved a couple of dollars and taught his son a terrible lesson.

Combating Cheating at School

Yes, it's disturbing to discover that young people in middle school and high school think that cheating is OK. But it's our fault. We encourage young people to cheat! For example, we give multiple-choice tests that make cheating really easy. Teachers at academically rigorous private schools don't use multiple-choice tests. They create written tests that are more work for teachers to grade but that eliminate cheating.

Schools should not tolerate cheating in any form. The punishments should be rigorously enforced. Teachers must be alert to all forms of cheating, particularly those using new technologies like picture phones. Of course, the best solution is to make assignments meaningful and interesting for students. In addition, students must have some responsibility. They must learn to be true to themselves and their own values and not be swayed by outside pressures and influences.

Unit 5.

Text 1

More Students Are Cheating, More Colleges Are Fighting Back

BOSTON—Many college students today struggle with cheating. The Internet offers many temptations—there are term papers for sale along with articles and news reports that can be copied for free with the click of a mouse. It is not surpris-

ing that cheating is sometimes difficult to resist. Furthermore, students often do not understand exactly what constitutes cheating. Polly Sanders, a student at a small liberal arts college, knows that handing in a paper from the Internet is plagiarism—stealing another's writing and calling it your own. If she gets caught, she'll receive a failing grade or maybe be thrown out of school. But what about using a paragraph? She admits that she has often taken a paragraph and changed a few words to make it "her" own work. That's not plagiarizing, is it?

Polly may not know it but, according to her college, it is. Polly is not the only student who isn't sure what's cheating and what isn't. This uncertainty is partly due to the fact that standards are changing. A 2001 survey by the Center for Academic Integrity shows cheating is becoming acceptable. The survey found that 41 percent of students believe that plagiarism is common. Thirty percent say cheating during tests or exams happens quite often. Sixty percent of the students admit asking their friends for help even when a professor has told them to work alone. Perhaps most worrying was the 27 percent who said that falsifying laboratory data happens "often or very often" on campus. It's hard to believe that all of these young scientists change their ways after graduation. Especially since 45 percent said that falsifying data did not count as serious cheating.

If students are becoming less concerned about the ramifications of cheating, colleges and universities are working harder to catch the cheaters. Some administrators use sophisticated computer search engines to find Internet plagiarists. However, many other colleges are using honor codes to combat cheating. An effective honor code clearly describes the boundaries of legitimate and illegitimate work. In addition, it sets the penalties for breaking it. While honor codes have existed on many campuses for a long time, they are now acquiring "teeth" as the institutions strive to enforce them. Educators say that the simple act of students signing the honor code makes a difference. "It's a psychological effect; if people expect you to be honorable, you are more likely to respond with honorable behavior," says Nannerl O. Keohane, the president of Duke University in North Carolina. "We have to build a culture where people are genuinely offended by cheating."

Honor codes are becoming more and more popular across the United States. The University of North Carolina and the University of Maryland give cheaters grades of XF to indicate failure because of cheating. Cornell University rewrote its honor code in 2000 and now requires teaching assistants and freshmen to take courses that teach them what cheating is and how to avoid it.

Honor codes can be both a carrot and a stick. They may offer students more freedom, but, if they do not obey, the punishment is severe. For example, the honor code at Wellesley College in Massachusetts allows students to take exams when and where they want. The students simply inform the teacher when they will be taking the exam. Then they can choose to go wherever they want. Some stay in the classroom while others prefer to do exams in their bedrooms, the library, or outside. The students are trusted, but if they are caught cheating, the punishment can be severe.

Some people say that simply putting in an honor code won't solve the problem, but several studies since the 1960s have shown that schools without honor codes tend to have about twice as much cheating as those with honor codes in place. University officials think that there are different reasons for this phenomenon. "The feeling of being treated as an adult and responding in kind," Professor McCabe says, "it's clearly there for many students. They don't want to violate that trust." "The magic of an honor code," agrees Elizabeth Kiss, director of the Kenan Institute for Ethics at Duke University, "is that when it's really working, there's a sense of we're all in this together."

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