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САМАРСКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ

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**ТЕКСТЫ ДЛЯ ЧТЕНИЯ
НА АНГЛИЙСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ**

Учебное пособие

*для студентов по специальностям
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PART I
PSYCHOLOGY IN USE

APPLICATION OF PSYCHOLOGY TO EVERYDAY LIFE

Psychology influences our daily lives in many ways. No matter what we do or where we do it, the chances are great that we are affected, sometimes dramatically, by the contributions of psychologists.

School psychologists influence students through programs of psychological testing and emotional and vocational counseling, applications that affect students' personal well-being, their progress through school, and their future careers. School psychologists help determine curriculum content and develop ways of presenting material in the classroom to facilitate the learning process.

Industrial psychologists affect every aspect of our careers at work, no matter where we are employed or what kind of work we do. Industrial psychologists determine techniques of selection and training for nearly all jobs, as well as the specific procedures by which the progress of employees is periodically evaluated. Offices and factories are designed, in part, by psychologists, as are the procedures and processes by which much work is performed.

Clinical psychologists use a variety of techniques of therapy and counseling to deal with persons who have emotional problems. Whether the problems are mild or crippling, of short or long duration, clinical psychologists are equipped to help resolve them. Psychologists are also involved in the human potential movement, helping thousands of well-adjusted people find and release new and greater levels of potential creativity and personal fulfillment.

Consumer psychologists are concerned with the everyday decisions we make in shops and supermarkets, in front of our television sets, and in voting booths. The products we buy, the programs we watch, even the candidates we elect to public office are designed, packaged, and advertised using psychological techniques to increase their attractiveness and their potential to satisfy human needs.

Engineering psychologists help design many of the products we buy and use, from automobiles to airplanes, to make them easier and more efficient to operate. Various items of equipment in the factory, on the highway, and in the home are designed to make the best use of human capabilities and to compensate for human weaknesses.

Environmental psychologists are concerned with the quality of natural and artificial environments. By investigating the effects of different environments on human behavior, psychologists contribute to the design of more pleasant, safer, and more efficient homes, workplaces, and even entire communities.

Medical psychologists play an important role in the physical health care system through research on the psychological aspects of disease and the personality patterns linked to various illnesses. Psychologists influence the recovery

rate of patients and their ability to cope with terminal illness, and the nature of the doctor-patient relationship. In addition, psychological techniques have been devised by which we can learn to control the functioning of our own bodies—slowing the heart rate, for example. These can be of immense value in relieving and combating certain diseases.

Forensic psychologists are involved with all aspects of crime and law enforcement, from detecting and apprehending criminals to rehabilitating them. They work with police departments, courts, and prisons in their efforts to help those who fight crime and those who commit crimes. In the process, they aid all of us, the potential victims of crimes.

Пояснения к тексту.

Curriculum	курс обучения, учебный план
well - being	здоровье, благополучие
equipment	оборудование
contribute to	способствовать, делать вклад
disease	болезнь
illness	болезнь
influence	влияние

PSYCHOLOGY: WHAT, HOW, WHO, AND WHERE

Psychology was originally defined as the study of the mind. As such, the discipline goes back many centuries to the time of the Greeks. About 100 years ago psychology was redefined as the *science* of the mind, reflecting a new intent to become an objective and experimental field of inquiry.

In the years of its development, psychology has expanded in many ways. Today there is not one psychology but several different forms of psychology, each devoted to the study of a different aspect of human nature. One aspect is behavior—what people actually do. Another is conscious experience—how people feel. A third is the unconscious forces that motivate each of us.

Each area is a legitimate type of psychology and each is concerned with improving the quality of human life. Each approaches its study of human nature in a scientific way.

Thus, psychology can be defined as a science of behavior and of mental processes and phenomena, and as a profession dedicated to the promotion of human welfare.

Five research techniques are discussed. In the *experimental method* psychologists study the effect on human behavior of a single variable while holding all other variables constant. The variable being studied is the *Independent variable*; the resulting behavior of the subjects is the *dependent variable*. There are two groups of subjects in a psychological experiment: the *experimental group* and the *control group*. Although it is the most precise of all research methods,

the experimental method does have weaknesses: (1) some aspects of behavior cannot be studied by the experimental method, (2) experiments must sometimes be performed in artificial settings, and (3) people may not behave in their usual manner when they know they are taking part in an experiment.

The *method of systematic observation* involves the objective observation of human behavior, not under the controlled conditions of the laboratory but in the real world. Although this method offers some degree of control over possible influencing variables, it does not allow for manipulation of the independent variable as does the experimental method.

In the *correlational method* two variables are statistically compared to see how one variable is related to the other. It is useful in cases in which a prediction must be made about how well a person is likely to succeed, for example, in college or on a job.

The *clinical methods* are used to diagnose and treat emotionally disturbed persons. Specific methods include taking a life history, psychological testing, and dream analysis. Although not as objective as other methods, the clinical methods are nevertheless of great value in dealing with problems of the unconscious mind.

The *survey methods* attempt to determine our attitudes and opinions about matters such as consumer products, television programs, or political candidates so that predictions can be made about decisions people are likely to make. Survey methods can be highly accurate but they are sometimes limited by the human tendency to say one thing and then do another. Three basic survey techniques are personal interviews, telephone interviews, and mail interviews.

To become a psychologist one must earn either a master's degree or a doctoral degree. Some psychologists are engaged in *pure research*, in which the search for knowledge is undertaken for its own sake. Other psychologists favor *applied research*, dealing with practical problems for which a solution must be found, often under the pressure of a deadline. Within the pure and applied areas of psychology are a number of specialities, represented by the thirty-five divisions of the American Psychological Association. Applied psychologists perform their services in a variety of settings, ranging from federal and state governments to private industry.

Пояснения к тексту

Mind	разум	behavior	поведение
century	столетие	artificial	искусственный
unconscious	бессознательный	observation	наблюдение
welfare	благополучие, благополучие	prediction	предсказание, прогноз
techniques	технический прием	survey	обозрение, осмотр
variable	переменная	consumer products	потребительские товары

PSYCHOLOGY APPLIED TO MENTAL HEALTH: THE NATURE OF MENTAL ILLNESS

Mental illness is an epidemic affecting at least one out of every ten people in the United States, who, at some time in their lives, will have to be treated for abnormal behavior. Millions more turn to tranquilizers, alcohol, drugs, or suffer in silence because of emotional problems.

Determining whether someone is mentally ill is difficult in all but the most extreme and obvious cases because what is abnormal in one situation may be normal and adaptive in another situation. Abnormality is defined in statistical terms, that is, by the relative frequency of occurrence of such behavior. But that is not sufficient to judge a person mentally ill. One must also consider how harmful the behavior is to the individual and to others, and the person's degree of internal suffering.

The behavior of mentally ill persons differs only in degree and not in kind from the behavior of normal persons; there are usually no sharp distinctions between normal and abnormal behavior. As a result, even psychiatrists and psychologists often have difficulty distinguishing sane from insane persons, except in extreme cases.

The specific types of mental illnesses discussed include neuroses, psychoses, and personality disorders.

In *neurosis*, a moderate-to-severe form of mental illness, the person retains contact with reality but has difficulty coping with life. The condition is characterized by strong feelings of anxiety. Specific neuroses include *anxiety neurosis*, characterized by an intense level of anxiety that interferes with all activities; *phobias*, an intense, constant, and irrational fear of some object or situation; *obsessions and compulsions*, persistent ideas (obsessions) or behaviors (compulsions) that the person must think about or act out constantly; *hysteria*, manifested as *conversion reactions* (the conversion of some psychological disturbance into a physical disturbance such as blindness or paralysis) or *dissociative reactions* (the dissociation of parts of the personality in the form of amnesia, somnambulism, or multiple personality); *hypochondria*, excessive and exaggerated concern for one's health and physical condition; and *depressive neurosis*, powerful, persistent, and compelling feelings of depression, gloom, discouragement, and rejection.

Psychoses are more severe forms of mental illness than neuroses. Psychotic persons, legally labeled "insane," maintain no contact with reality, live in a personal fantasy world, and usually have to be hospitalized. Two major categories of psychoses are *organic psychoses*, caused by physical damage to the brain, and *functional psychoses*, caused by psychological factors. Two major functional psychoses are *schizophrenia*, the splitting of the personality from reality and of the thought processes from the emotions, and *manic-depressive*

psychosis, extreme fluctuations of moods and feelings from the depths of depression to the heights of euphoria.

Personality disorders differ from neuroses in that they are not characterized by intense feelings of anxiety, and from psychoses in that contact with reality is not lost. Three forms of personality disorders are *addictions to drugs or alcohol* and the practice of *deviant sexual behaviors*; *dominant personality trends* such as the paranoid, schizoid, inadequate, explosive, passive, and compulsive personalities; and the *psychopathic personality*, distinguished by an absence of consideration for others and a total lack of guilt or remorse about anti-social and often violent behavior.

Пояснения к тексту

Mental illness	душевная (психическая) болезнь	anxiety	беспокойство, боязнь, страх
abnormal	отклоняющийся от нормы	obsession	навязчивая идея, одержимость
judge	судить, выносить приговор (решение)	compulsion	принуждение
harmful	вредный, опасный	disturbance	беспокойство, нарушение
internal	внутренний, душевный		душевного равновесия
insane	душевнобольной, сумасшедший	maintain	поддерживать, сохранять
disorder	расстройство, болезнь	violent	яростный, насильственный

**PSYCHOLOGY APPLIED TO MENTAL HEALTH:
THE TREATMENT OF MENTAL ILLNESS**

There are several approaches to the treatment of the mentally ill. Some focus on unconscious motivations, some on conscious feelings, and others on the behavioral symptoms rather than on any possible underlying cause. Some therapies take a medical rather than a psychological approach, some are conducted on a group rather than on an individual basis, and others are designed for children rather than for adults. Finally, some therapies can be conducted only by psychologists or psychiatrists, and others are performed by persons who have had only a small amount of professional training. Seven forms of therapy are discussed.

1. *Physical therapies* are used for the most severe cases of mental illness, in which patients are uncommunicative and unresponsive to the psychological therapies. Three forms of physical therapy are shock therapy, drug therapy, and psychosurgery. *Shock therapy*, in which a patient is rendered unconscious fol-

lowing a brief period of severe convulsions, is administered by drugs or by electric Prug therapy has been useful in changing patient behavior and has led to rapid release from mental institutions. It has also allowed the treatment of many emotionally disturbed persons as outpatients. *Antipsychotic drugs* calm intense and violent psychotic behaviors, *antianxiety drugs* provide relief from worry and tension, and *antidepressant drugs* relieve depression and help restore energy and vitality. *Psychosurgery* involves severing the frontal lobes of the brain from other brain structures that control emotion. It is used as a last-resort form of treatment when no other therapies have worked. Physical therapies do not by themselves cure mental illness. They are useful for behavior change, symptom relief, and for rendering patients more amenable to psychological forms of therapy.

2. *Individual psychotherapy* tries to uncover the underlying reason for an emotional disturbance and to achieve self-insight into personal fears and feelings. *Psychoanalysis*, developed by Sigmund Freud, explores a person's childhood experiences in order to bring to the surface the trauma or conflict that has been repressed in the unconscious. Once the person is made aware of the repressed material, he or she can be taught to cope with it. Four basic techniques in psychoanalysis are: *free association*, a sort of daydreaming out loud in which a patient says everything that comes to mind; *dream analysis*, in which the analyst interprets the symbols in dreams; *analysis of resistance*, in which the patient is persuaded to talk about events, persons, or situations they have resisted revealing; and *analysis of transference*, in which the patient transfers to the analyst feelings held toward other persons. *Client-centered therapy*, developed by Carl Rogers, places the responsibility for achieving self-insight and for resolving the emotional problem on the patient rather than on the therapist. The therapist provides a permissive and accepting atmosphere and rephrases and elaborates on the client's revelations in such a way that the client develops self-understanding and acceptance.

3. *Group psychotherapy* involves six to twelve patients meeting with a therapist. It provides for improving interpersonal relations skills, learning how others handle similar problems, and finding out how others react to one's own feelings and thoughts. Group members discuss their problems openly, question the motivations of other group members, and offer insights and interpretations supplemented by those of the therapist. *Gestalt therapy*, developed by Fritz Perls, is a type of group psychotherapy in which treatment focuses on one person at a time in a group setting. The goal is to make patients aware of all aspects of their personalities and to help them work through their unfinished situations.

4. *Behavior therapy* attempts to change abnormal behavior without trying to uncover potential unconscious causes of the behavior. Based on psychological research on learning, behavior therapy alters behavior by having the person unlearn or relearn undesirable behaviors. Five techniques are available: *positive reinforcement*, rewarding a person for displaying normal behavior; *extinction*,

ignoring a person for displaying abnormal behavior; *aversive conditioning*, punishing a person for displaying abnormal behavior; *systematic desensitization*, teaching a person to respond with relaxation instead of with anxiety to previously anxiety-inducing stimuli; and *modeling*, teaching new behavior by having a person watch and imitate a model who displays the desired behavior.

5. *Play therapy* is used with children to induce them to reveal and to act out, through their play activities, their inner feelings and conflicts.

6. *Psychodrama* involves the acting out of inner feelings in a play in which patients portray themselves or significant persons in their lives.

7. *Community-based therapy* is an effort to provide treatment at the community level rather than in mental hospitals. Faster treatment can be provided and many people can be spared the indignity of institutionalization. Community mental health centers are concerned with prevention as well as treatment of mental illness, and are making increasing use of *paraprofessional* mental health personnel.

Пояснения к тексту

Approach	подход	undesir- able	нежелательный
patient	пациент	stimuli	стимул (pl от stimulus)
treatment	лечение	provide	снабжать, обеспечивать
amenable	ответственный, слушный	po- personnel	персонал, штат
responsi- bility	ответственность	treatment	обращение, лечение
acceptance	принятие, признание		

PSYCHOLOGY APPLIED TO MENTAL HEALTH: THE HEALTHY PERSONALITY

Growth therapy is oriented toward expanding and enriching the human personality, improving psychological health, and tapping previously unused human potential. Growth therapy techniques are used with people of average or normal mental health, people who are not suffering from neurosis, psychosis, or other emotional or behavioral problems.

Growth or humanistic psychologists study the positive side of personality (psychological health) instead of the negative side (mental illness). This interest in psychological health is being expressed in two ways: in research that attempts to understand the characteristics of psychologically healthy people, and in specific techniques designed to foster the development of those characteristics.

Growth psychologists have identified a number of characteristics of psychological health. In addition to being free of neuroses and psychoses, psychologically healthy people have achieved a level of growth and a utilization of

human potential considerably higher than persons of average mental health. However, there is no universal description of a healthy personality. Different types of psychological health are appropriate for different people or for the same person at different ages.

Research studies of psychologically healthy adolescents, graduate students, and astronauts showed them to be, in general, self-reliant, competent, hard-working, future-oriented, emotionally stable, realistic, and from stable homes and communities.

Models of psychological health proposed by Gordon Allport, Abraham Maslow, Carl Rogers, Erich Fromm, Viktor Frankl, and Fritz Perls are discussed.

Allport proposed seven criteria of the *mature personality*: extension of the sense of self, warm relating of self to others, emotional security, realistic perception, skills and assignments, self-objectification, and a unifying philosophy of life.

Maslow study of *self-actualizing people* showed them to have an efficient perception of reality; an acceptance of nature, others, and themselves; spontaneity, simplicity, and naturalness; a focus on problems outside themselves; a need for privacy and independence; autonomous functioning; a continued freshness of appreciation; mystical or peak experiences; social interest; deep interpersonal relations; a democratic character structure; creativeness; and a resistance to conformity.

Rogers found that *fully functioning persons* can be described as open to all experiences, living fully in every moment, trusting their own organism, enjoying a sense of freedom, and highly creative.

Fromm described psychologically healthy people as *productive* and defined them in terms of their ability to love productively, think productively, experience genuine happiness, and be guided by their own conscience.

In *Frankl's* view the *self-transcendent person* is oriented toward the future, committed to work, able to give and receive love, and possessed of a meaning and purpose in life.

Perls's model of psychological health, the *"here and now"* person, has the following characteristics: such persons function in the present, they understand and accept who and what they are, they express their impulses and yearnings, they take responsibility for their own lives, they shed responsibility for others, they are completely in touch with self and world, they express resentments openly, they are free of external regulation, and they are not engaged in the pursuit of happiness.

There are general similarities among these models of psychological health. Healthy people are in conscious control of their life, they know who and what they are, they are anchored in the present, they can give and receive love, they are committed to work, they care for and feel responsible for others, they have positive interpersonal relations, and they need independence and autonomy.

Growth therapy, designed to promote psychological health, has several forms; the *group encounter approach* is probably the most popular. Through intense and intimate emotional interactions, encounter group members learn

how to relate better to themselves and to others, and how others respond to them. In the process, they raise their consciousness levels to new heights and uncover hidden potentials.

According to Rogers, encounter groups proceed through a sequence of complex interactions: milling around, resistance to personal expression or exploration, description of past feelings, expression of negative feelings, expression and exploration of personally meaningful material, expression of immediate interpersonal feelings in the group, development of a healing capacity in the group, self-acceptance and the beginning of change, the cracking of facades, receipt of feedback, and confrontation.

Some people are harmed by encounter group experiences because they find that they cannot relate as openly and honestly to the rest of the world as they can to members of their group. Persons who reveal problems or conflicts that the group does not resolve, or who fail to relate to or be accepted by the group, are also damaged by group experiences.

Another popular technique of growth therapy is *meditation*, a way to reduce stress, relax totally, and increase one's level of consciousness in order to release new creativity.

Other approaches to increasing psychological health include *sensory awareness training*, in which people establish closer contact with the physical world, *induced peak experiences*, in which one undergoes a voyage into an inner fantasy world in order to enhance personal growth, and *rolfing*, in which the body muscles are relaxed and realigned in order to release harmful emotional memories.

Пояснения к тексту

Growth	рост	interpersonal	межличностный
average	средний	possess	обладать
achieve	достигать	purpose	цель
research	исследование, научно – исследовательская работа	resistance	сопротивление, противодействие
community	общество, сообщество	external	внешний
extension	распространение, расширение	pursuit	поиски, стремление;
sense of self	осознание самого себя		выполнение, исполнение
assignment	назначение	resentment	негодование, возмущение
recerption	восприятие, осознание	exploration	исследование
autonomous	автономный	realign	перестраивать

PSYCHOLOGY APPLIED TO PHYSICAL HEALTH

The idea that the mind can affect the body and cause or cure disease was first recognized by the ancient Greeks. It was out of favor during the twentieth century because of our strong belief in science and technology. Fortunately, the idea is again gaining prominence, primarily because of research findings of *medical psychologists* on emotional aspects of disease. Their work has important implications for the total health care system.

Stress produces physiological changes that are designed to help the individual cope with the stressful experience. These bodily changes include the release of adrenalin, extra sugar from the liver, and increased circulation and heart rate. Energy is directed to the brain and muscles, where it is needed to deal with the stress. However, we cannot remain in such a highly active condition for very long, because we have only a limited amount of energy on which to draw. If the stress continues, it depletes the body's reserves of energy.

Stress is any kind of emotional strain or tension. It produces wear and tear on the body and encompasses situations from annoyances, such as getting caught in a traffic jam, to crises, such as being attacked by a mugger. Each stress adds to the ones before, so the effects of stress are cumulative. Worry, anxiety, and long-standing emotional problems are also sources of stress. People who are constantly tense, worried, fearful, or hostile are continually wearing down their bodily reserves of energy. This, in time, leads to actual physiological damage to organs and tissues, and makes us more susceptible to infections. Thus, stress can lead directly to illness and disease.

It is impossible to escape stress altogether. Even the normal milestones of life such as marriage, moving, retirement, changing jobs or schools, and taking vacations are stresses because they involve a change in a person's life, to which he or she must adapt. The *Social Readjustment Rating Scale*, composed of common life stress events, has been useful in predicting the onset of illness. Persons who experience a certain number of life change events in the course of a year are much more likely to get sick during the following year than those who have fewer life changes. The most stressful change is the death of a spouse. The chances of illness and death increase dramatically in the six months following such a loss.

The *General Adaptation Syndrome* provides an explanation of what takes place between the initial appearance of stress and the subsequent development of an illness. Three stages in the body's reaction to stress are *alarm*, in which the physiological changes in response to stress serve to mobilize the body's defenses; *resistance*, in which the person seems to be adapting to the stress; and *exhaustion*, in which the bodily reserves of energy are depleted such that the person can no longer resist the stress and becomes susceptible to disease and infection.

Psychosomatic diseases involve real physical damage caused by stress and by other emotional and psychological factors. It is estimated that 50 to 80 per cent of all illness is psychosomatic. Psychosomatic disorders include eczema, acne, hives, backaches, headaches, arthritis, asthma, bronchitis, hypertension and other cardiovascular disorders, cancer, ulcers, colitis, genitourinary disorders, obesity, and hyperthyroidism.

Three possible reasons why a person under stress contracts one psychosomatic illness instead of another are *genetic predisposition*, *learning* (in which a particular set of symptoms has been reinforced), and *personality factors*.

Psychologists have determined that certain illnesses can be accurately diagnosed on the basis of personality characteristics alone, without conducting a physical examination. Three personality categories, each related to different psychosomatic diseases, are *excessive reactors*, who are prone to coronary occlusion, degenerative arthritis, and ulcers; *deficient reactors*, who are prone to dermatitis, rheumatoid arthritis, and colitis; and *restrained reactors*, who are prone to asthma, diabetes, hypertension, hyperthyroidism, and migraine headaches.

Personality correlates of six disorders are discussed. *Ulcer* victims are hard-driving, aggressive people who have strong conflicts between being dependent and being independent. People with *asthma* usually have a strong dependence on their mother. An asthmatic attack occurs when that dependency is threatened. *Migraine headache* sufferers feel unworthy and inferior and harbor resentment and frustration at not being able to accomplish their goals, which they usually set too high. People who have *rheumatoid arthritis* tend to be shy, inhibited, self-conscious, nervous, and compulsive and perfectionistic about everything they do. They also have strong needs to sacrifice for and serve others. Victims of *heart disease* have a recognizable personality pattern known as *Type A*. This includes a high competitive drive, a constant sense of time urgency, and high levels of ambition, aggressiveness, and hostility. They are impatient with other people and are always under tension and stress. The background and personality characteristics of *cancer* patients include the loss of a close relationship on which their security depended, causing them to feel lonely and isolated; an inability to express anger, resentment, and hostility; a high degree of self-hatred and self-distrust; and overwhelming despair.

Three techniques for reducing stress and its effects are biofeedback, meditation, and visualization. *Biofeedback* involves learning to control bodily processes such as heart rate and muscle tension in order to slow them during times of stress. *Meditation* decreases rates of mental and physical functioning, thus reducing the effects of stress and improving general health. *Visualization* involves focusing the mind's eye on a real or imaginary object. It has been used with cancer patients who focus on the actual destruction of their cancerous cells.

Psychological approaches to *pain reduction* have been successful in reducing the severity of the pain and in helping people adjust to the pain and thus lead normal lives. In pain clinics, *dolorologists* (persons who specialize in

treating pain) use a variety of psychological techniques, including biofeedback, meditation, hypnosis, and behavior modification. Through behavior modification, dolorologists eliminate pain behaviors such as complaining, which may have been rewarded in the past.

Psychologists studying *death and dying* are concerned with the reactions of the terminally ill and counseling them so that they may be able to find meaning and purpose in the final days of their lives. How strongly a person wants to live can influence how long he or she does live in the face of terminal illness, or in a highly stressful situation such as a prisoner-of-war camp. Patients who have terminal illnesses pass through five psychological stages: denial and isolation, anger, bargaining, depression, and acceptance.

Пояснения к тексту

Ancient	древний		hyperthyroidism	гипертиреоз
Prominence	выдающееся	поло-	deficient	несовершенный
Implication	причастность;	скры-	correlate	находиться в (каком-либо) соотношении, приводить в (какое - либо) соотношение
Mmuscle	мышца; мускул			
Deplete	исчерпывать		accomplish	выполнять, завершать
Cumulative	накопленный, сово-	купный	hostility	враждебность
Onset	нападение; начало		inability	неспособность, недееспособность
Exhaustion	истощение		visualization	(мысленное) представление, образность
Cardiovascular	сердечно - сосуди-		terminal (ill-	
Cancer	стый рак		ness) denial	опровержение, несогласие
Ulcer	язва			

PSYCHOLOGY APPLIED TO THE ENVIRONMENT

Environmental psychologists investigate the relationships between human behavior and the various environments in which we live and work. The field combines the talents of psychologists, sociologists, architects, urban planners, and anthropologists. We build and shape our environments, and these in turn influence our behavior. To study these mutual effects, environmental psychologists use standard methods of psychological research: experimental research in laboratories, systematic observation in natural settings, and survey research methods.

Two fundamental human needs that are strongly influenced by our environment are the needs for privacy and for personal space.

The need for *privacy* (to be alone and undisturbed by other people) varies from one person or culture to another. Some people need more privacy than others. The privacy need also varies within the same person from one situation

to another. Sometimes we need to be alone and at other times we need the company of other people. Satisfaction of privacy needs can be hindered or helped by certain aspects of the physical environment. Privacy can be provided by architectural features such as walls, fences, and shrubbery. The most important aspect of privacy is an individual's free choice to find it whenever he or she desires. Our environment should give us the option of when and under what conditions we want to be with other people or to be alone.

Personal space (territoriality) is the need for a space that is our own, into which no one else may intrude. The phenomenon of territoriality includes personal possessions as well as the space around our body. If someone gets too close to us they may violate our personal space and make us feel uncomfortable. As with privacy, there are individual and cultural differences in personal space needs. Some of us need more space than others. Space needs also vary with the nature of the person with whom we are interacting. A loved one is allowed to get much closer than a stranger.

The anthropologist Edward Hall has defined four distance zones that characterize our space needs with respect to other people: *intimate distance* (the close phase involves actual body contact and the far phase ranges from 6 to 18 inches); *personal distance* (the close phase is 1 1/2 to 2 1/2 feet and the far phase is 2 1/2 to 4 feet); *social distance* (the close phase is from 4 to 7 feet and the far phase is 7 to 12 feet); and *public distance* (the close phase is 12 to 25 feet and the far phase is beyond 25 feet).

When privacy and personal space needs are frustrated, we may find ourselves in a situation of *overcrowding*. Animal studies show that overcrowding is stressful and produces harmful behavioral and physiological effects. Overcrowding is also stressful to human beings. An objective way to measure overcrowding is to calculate *population density*, the number of people who occupy a particular unit of space. However, overcrowding remains a personal and subjective matter and depends on the actual situation, the past experience of the individual, personality factors, and the nature of the interaction. Each person defines a situation as overcrowded when his or her privacy and personal space needs are violated over a long period of time. Correlational studies show that high population densities are related to high rates of crime and mental illness, to reduced interpersonal contact, and to a shorter life span for women.

Environmental psychologists study large-scale environments such as cities as well as specific small-scale environments such as the following.

Single-family homes have significantly changed the landscape of the United States as well as our life-style and behavior. The location of a house relative to other houses, and where it is situated on a lot, influences friendship patterns, privacy, and safety. The size of a house and its interior arrangement of rooms affect the privacy of those who live in it. The amount of space available to each person determines how crowded the living conditions seem.

People who live in *multiple-family housing* may find it more difficult to satisfy privacy and space needs. They are more subject to the pressures of overcrowding

and, at the same time, are more isolated from their neighbors than people who live in single-family homes. These problems are more severe in high-rise apartments than in low-rise garden apartments. Crime is a greater problem in high-rise units because there are more residents and more vulnerable and indefensible places in which crimes may occur. Designing shorter hallways, and installing closed-circuit television and other safety features can reduce the incidence of crime.

The *workplace* most frequently studied by environmental psychologists is the office. Their efforts range from the design of chairs to the layout of the office as a whole. The *landscaped office* contains no floor-to-ceiling walls and is more attractive than traditional offices. Landscaped offices may improve communication, work flow, and social interaction, but may also offer less privacy.

Traditional *schools* present environmental and psychological barriers between teacher and student through the size of the room and the type and arrangement of the furniture. *Open classrooms* reduce those barriers by doing away with walls. They result in greater satisfaction of personal space needs and they increase students' informal relations with teachers.

Hospitals are often designed for the convenience of the staff rather than for the comfort of the patients. They offer very little patient privacy. The way in which a hospital floor or wing is laid out can significantly influence nursing care by affecting the amount of time required for nurses to attend to patient needs. In mental hospitals, smaller patient rooms can influence recovery by facilitating greater social interaction.

Inmates of *prisons* are strongly controlled by features of the physical environment. Certain prisoners must be isolated from others by walls and other barriers. Single cells are superior to dormitories for the satisfaction of privacy and personal space needs, important factors in rehabilitation.

Environmental psychologists are concerned with the *quality of the natural environment*, whether wilderness areas or air and water pollution conditions. They study attitudes toward environmental quality and try to find ways to change these attitudes. In studying air pollution, environmental psychologists have found that although many people are alarmed about it, they are not willing to do much about it.

Mutual privacy	взаимный, совместный уединение	interior indefensi- ble	внутренний недоказуемый
environ- ment	окружение, среда	interac- tion	взаимодействие
territori- ality		prisoner	заключенный
violate	осквернять, нарушать	alarm (v)	встревожить, насторожить, вызвать тревогу
frustrated	несостоявшийся; разрушенный		

PSYCHOLOGY APPLIED TO CONSUMER BEHAVIOR

The activities of consumer psychologists affect our daily lives as consumers, and we are all exposed to the advertisements developed to promote the products society offers. We are bombarded by as many as fifteen hundred advertisements every day, although we may attend to no more than a dozen of them. Consumer psychologists are interested in the communications link between the producers and the consumers of goods, and continually study human needs, desires, and reactions to advertisements and products.

Research methods in consumer psychology include surveys and public opinion polls, in-depth methods, and studies of behavior. *Surveys* deal with what people say they will do—attitudes, opinions, and feelings—rather than with actual behavior. They are subject to error because people may say one thing and do another. Through projective devices, *in-depth methods* attempt to probe unconscious motivations and feelings. Instead of asking people what they like or plan to buy, the *behavioral* approach observes what people actually do. Four methods are used: *sales records*, although sales figures do not allow for the control of other factors that could influence sales; *observation of purchases*, in which shopping behavior is observed; *brand identification and preference*, which attempts to determine if consumers can distinguish among various brands of a product; and *coupon returns*, to test the effectiveness of newspaper and magazine advertisements.

Three components of consumer psychology are the consumer, the product, and the advertising message. Studies of *consumers* deal with personal factors that influence buying behavior: buying habits and brand loyalty, personality characteristics, social class, ethnic-group membership, and age. Many consumers develop a *loyalty* to one brand. This means that their shopping preferences are determined by habit. They are relatively uninfluenced by advertising for brands other than those to which they are loyal. *Personality characteristics* are sometimes associated with preferences for certain products or for certain brands of the same product. These can be determined by correlating scores on personality tests with product preferences. People in different *social classes* and *ethnic groups* buy different products, shop in different stores, and respond to different kinds of advertising appeals. *Age* influences shopping preferences and much advertising is oriented toward children and youth. Evidence shows that children begin to distrust television commercials by the time they are seven years old, yet they still desire to have the products advertised.

The *product* is subject to much manipulation by advertisers to boost sales. Aspects of the product of interest to consumer psychologists include the package, the trademark, the image, and the price. The *package* in which a product appears can influence sales because a product's quality is often judged on the basis of the package. Packages should meet the following criteria: convenience,

adaptability, security, status, dependability, and aesthetic satisfaction. The *trademark* serves as a symbol for the image of the product. That *image* (the product's personality) encompasses the ideas, thoughts, and feelings that people associate with the product. The problem facing advertisers is to determine the image that best fits a particular product. *Price* is often used by consumers as an index of quality; many people believe that the more a product costs, the better it must be. For some items, however, price is not considered in purchasing decisions.

The *advertising message* is the third component of consumer psychology. Three categories of advertising are *direct sell*, in which a direct appeal is made to consumers to buy a product; *awareness*, to make consumers aware of a new or improved product or a new package or price; and *image*, to establish a personality for a product, service, or organization. Much image advertising is devoted to enhancing the goodwill of companies and institutions.

Advertising appeals should be based on the human needs or motivations the product promises to satisfy. There are two kinds of needs: *primary or innate needs* (physiological needs shared by everyone) and *secondary or learned needs* (social-psychological needs that vary from one person or culture to another, depending on past experiences). Consumer psychologists study human needs to define them and to ensure that their advertising appeals are oriented toward the appropriate needs.

Advertising appeals may be positive or negative. *Positive* appeals show that something pleasant happens as a result of using a certain product; *negative* appeals show that something unpleasant happens as a result of not using the product. An effective approach is to combine both appeals in the same advertisement, with the positive appeal following the negative one. *Sex in advertising* is frequently used, but it attracts the wrong audience. Also, many people do not remember the content of the ads that accompany sexy illustrations.

Research is conducted on *television programming* to predict reactions to new programs and to determine audience size and reactions to current programs. Television viewing research uses mail and telephone surveys, mechanical devices to record television viewing automatically, and measures of attitudes toward various programs.

Advertising campaigns do not always result in greater sales; nevertheless, they can influence consumer behavior with regard to certain products and in certain situations.

Consumer	покупатель	prefer- ence	предпочтение
promote	способствовать, продвигать	encom- pass	окружать, заключать (в себе)
advertise- ment	реклама	goodwill	добрая воля, доброжелательность

PSYCHOLOGY APPLIED TO CRIME AND LAW ENFORCEMENT

Criminal behavior has a direct and forceful impact on the quality of our lives and has long been an interest of psychologists. The application of psychology to crime and law enforcement—*forensic psychology*—began in the early years of the twentieth century, but in the 1970s the effort began to receive sizable support from psychologists and those engaged in law enforcement. Psychologists work in police departments, courts, and prisons, or conduct research on aspects of criminal behavior.

Psychologists in police departments are concerned with: (1) *Selecting police officers*: using selection techniques such as psychological tests, interviews, and application blanks (the same kinds of techniques used for selection in industry and government), psychologists assist police departments in choosing the most qualified applicants. (2) *Training police officers*: police officers are trained by psychologists in such areas as personality, motivation, mental illness, race relations, and human relations skills, to enable them to better understand the people with whom they deal on the streets. (3) *Counseling police officers*: to cope with the unusual stresses of police work, counseling and psychotherapy are provided by psychologists and may determine the kind of work a police officer is allowed to do. (4) *Preventing and detecting crime*: police psychologists help to solve crimes by constructing a personality profile of the type of person the police should be looking for in a particular crime. Psychological knowledge is applied in controlling and preventing riots, and in dealing with potentially explosive situations such as family disturbances.

Psychologists are active in four aspects of courtroom procedure: (1) *Psychologists in family courts*: in dealing with juvenile offenders, psychologists diagnose their levels of intellectual and emotional functioning, and make recommendations about appropriate treatment. Psychologists evaluate children and adolescents who are considered by their parents to be uncontrollable. These evaluations are used by judges in deciding on the proper environment in which to place the child. (2) *Psychologists as expert witnesses*: both clinical and experimental psychologists testify at trials. Clinicians testify about the diagnosis of a defendant's intellectual and emotional characteristics. Experimental psychologists testify about their experimental re-creations of the scene of a crime to show that what actually happened differed from the investigating officer's testimony. (3) *Credibility of eyewitness testimony*: psychological research on human perception confirms that what people see is distorted by needs, fears, values, and prejudices. Psychological research on memory shows that what we recall of an event is also subject to error. Research dealing directly with the accuracy of eyewitness testimony reports a high rate of error in such testimony. The accuracy of eyewitness testimony can be influenced by the wording of an attorney's questions in the courtroom. (4) *Jury behavior*: psychologists are in-

involved in scientifically selecting juries so that the members will be sympathetic to the defendant. Psychologists also conduct research on how juries function. Research findings of social psychologists on the dynamics of small groups and of forensic psychologists on simulated juries indicate that jury members are affected by group pressure and by the status of the other jury members. Also, jurors have difficulty understanding the legal aspects of a case as well as the judge's instructions.

Psychology in prisons involves the physical design of prisons as well as the following activities: (1) *Evaluating new prisoners*: psychologists evaluate new prisoners to determine their level of intelligence, personality, and vocational aptitudes and interests. This information is valuable to the prison staff in order to determine where a prisoner should be housed and what kind of work, vocational training, or educational opportunities would be appropriate. (2) *Counseling prisoners*: many prisoners have emotional problems and can benefit from the same kinds of psychological counseling and psychotherapy used in other clinical settings. (3) *Training the prison staff*: psychologists offer formal courses to prison guards on the nature of mental illness, the psychology of crime, race relations, and sensitivity training. (4) *Advising on parole*: correctional psychologists advise parole boards on the suitability of a prisoner for parole or furlough programs.

The crime of *murder* occurs mostly on weekends; Saturday night is the most dangerous time. In most cases, the victim and the killer know each other and are of the same race. Guns are used in two-thirds of all murders, and drinking plays a prominent role. Studies of adolescent murderers show that they experienced noticeable mood changes which were ignored, lost a significant relationship, had a persistent medical problem, and experienced rapidly rising emotion shortly before committing the murder. Drugs, a threat to manhood, and homosexuality played a role in some of these murders.

Rape involves brutality and long-lasting psychological effects for the victim. Two-thirds of all rapists are in their twenties or younger. In two-thirds of the cases, the rapist and the victim knew each other before the assault. Motivations for rape include sexual needs, aggression and hostility, and a spontaneous impulse. Most rapists are emotionally disturbed.

The primary cause of *juvenile crime* is a negative family relationship that involves extremes of parental behavior, either excessively protecting or rejecting the child. For young males, the family background usually includes a protective, domineering mother, a rejecting father who provides a poor example, and divorced parents. Female delinquents are also affected by parental behavior and they often have a history of parental abuse, harsh and inconsistent discipline, and rejection by the mother. Delinquent girls feel unwanted and unloved, vulnerable, worthless, and anxious. Drugs play a role in juvenile crime because of the large amount of money needed to support an addiction to hard drugs, and the excitability and lack of rational control caused by the use of amphetamines.

As much as 90 per cent of all juvenile crime is committed by gangs. These groups provide a sense of acceptance, security, and belonging to their members. In treating juvenile delinquents, if those who are jailed for minor offenses are placed with those who have committed more serious offenses, then correctional institutions become training grounds in criminal behavior.

Terrorism and hostage taking for political or personal reasons is difficult to deal with because the lives of innocent hostages are at stake. The psychology of terrorism is being taught to police officers throughout the United States. This involves treating the terrorists with respect, keeping channels of communication open, developing a psychological profile of the terrorists, trying to establish rapport with them, and making concessions on small matters and receiving something in return. After a period of confinement, the initial hostility felt by terrorists toward their hostages changes to a feeling that they are all in a difficult situation together.

Enforce- ment	заявление, принуждение	case	судебное дело
prevent	предотвращать; преду- преждать	prison	заклЮчать в тюрьму
riot	бесчинства, нарушение общественного порядка	aptitude	соответствие; способность
courtroom	зал судебного заседания	crime	преступление
appropri- ate	соответствующий, под- ходящий	murder	убийство
clinicians	клиницист	brutality	жестокость
credibility	вероятность	rapist	насильник
prejudice	предвзятое мнение, предрассудок	rejection	отказ
eyewit- ness esti- mony	показания свидетеля	security	безопасность
defendant	обвиняемый	hostage	заложник
forensic	судебный	confine- ment	тюремное заключение

PSYCHOLOGY APPLIED TO THE CLASSROOM

The application of psychology to the classroom influences our intellectual, emotional, and behavioral development. *Educational* psychology is concerned with research on intellectual development and *school* psychology is concerned with testing and counseling.

Individual differences in learning ability arise from differences in personality, motivation, and intelligence. Although personality and motivation influ-

ence our performance in school, the most important factor is *intelligence*. There is not complete agreement among psychologists on a definition of intelligence, but this does not prevent the concept from being measured and used to predict behavior in many situations with a high degree of accuracy. Much of your future will be determined by how high you score on an intelligence test.

Intelligence is measured indirectly, in terms of the effect it has on behavior, that is, in terms of levels of performance on an IQ test. The first intelligence test was developed in 1905 by Binet. In 1916, Terman revised Binet's test for use with U.S. children (the *Stanford-Binet* test). Terman also developed the concept of IQ (intelligence quotient), which shows the relationship between mental age and chronological age by the formula

$$\frac{\text{mental age}}{\text{chronological age}} \times 100 = IQ$$

In 1939, Wechsler developed an IQ test for use with adults (the *Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale*); it has verbal and performance scales. The latter is useful with people who have language difficulties or whose verbal skills are poorly developed. Wechsler also developed an IQ test for children (the *Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children*). Intelligence, like all other human characteristics, is distributed in the population in accordance with the normal curve. Most people score around the average level and few score at the extreme high or low ends. Approximately 50 per cent of the population have IQs between 90 and 109. Knowledge of a person's IQ enables educators to provide the appropriate kind and level of instruction for the person's ability and potential.

There are two possible abuses of intelligence testing. First, a teacher may incorrectly interpret a student's IQ score and so lower the student's opportunities. Second, IQ testing can discriminate against disadvantaged children. Because most intelligence tests depend primarily on verbal ability, they favor those who have access to better schools and discriminate against those from poorer schools. Also, because IQ tests measure one's current level of achievement, people who have had greater educational and cultural opportunities generally score higher than those who lack these opportunities.

The issue of racial differences in intelligence is highly controversial. Primarily because of lesser educational opportunities, blacks have lower average IQ scores than whites. Whether these differences are determined by environmental or genetic factors is unresolved; current thinking favors the environmental explanation.

Individual differences affect education because a classroom contains pupils representing a range of intelligence. Different educational opportunities must be provided for students with different levels of intelligence.

Mentally retarded children, with IQs below 70, require special educational opportunities, particularly in reading and arithmetic skills, and are usually

taught in separate classes by specially trained teachers. Some mentally retarded children derive little benefit from education, but others can be trained to hold a job and to function reasonably well in society.

Gifted children, with IQs above 130, also require special educational opportunities to allow them to make the most of their potential. By placing them in special classes or allowing them to skip grades, they can receive the educational challenge and stimulation demanded by their high IQs. Terman's long-term study of the gifted showed them to be superior intellectually, physically, and psychologically to those with lower IQs.

Children in the middle range of ability also represent wide differences in intelligence and require different educational opportunities. Two popular approaches are homogeneous grouping and nongraded programs.

Homogeneous grouping, or tracking, groups students in terms of their ability, with the brightest in one track, the average students in another track, and so on. Tracking has been used in a discriminatory manner in which students are grouped not by IQ score but by race or social class.

Nongraded programs eliminate the grade levels through which children pass at the end of each school year. Instead, pupils proceed to new work units whenever they have demonstrated competence in the material of the preceding unit. Children advance to the next unit when they are ready, and no child suffers the stigma of failure.

The *psychological principles of learning* have special significance for the classroom. *Reinforcement* is a fundamental way to change human behavior and it involves two kinds of conditioning: *respondent conditioning*, which involves learning a response to a specific stimulus, and *operant conditioning*, which involves being reinforced only for displaying the appropriate behavior.

In *positive reinforcement*, a person is rewarded with something desirable. In *negative reinforcement*, the reward involves the removal of something undesirable. In *continuous reinforcement*, a person is rewarded every time the desired behavior occurs. *Partial reinforcement* rewards the behavior only some of the time. The phenomenon of *extinction* involves the cessation of reinforcement. *Punishment* is not effective in general, but can be useful combined with positive reinforcement.

Learning is facilitated when students can *actively participate* in the learning process, when *distributed* rather than *massed practice* is used, when the learning situation allows for *positive* rather than *negative transfer*, and when *knowledge of results* is supplied. Whether *whole* or *part learning* is more effective depends on the nature of the material and the level of intelligence of the learner.

Two mechanical aids to learning involve *programmed instruction* and *computer-assisted instruction*. Both approaches satisfy the psychological principles of learning and bring about faster learning than traditional approaches to teaching.

Learning disabilities include *dyslexia*, an impairment of the ability to read, and *hyperkinesis*, a disorder that causes children to be hyperactive, excitable, and impulsive. Dyslexia requires remedial training in reading; hyperkinesis is usually treated by stimulant drugs.

Emotional disorders in children include anxiety, aggression, and dependency. These can be recognized by a child's inability to learn, have satisfactory social relationships, behave at a level appropriate to his or her development, display confidence and belief in himself or herself, overcome feelings of sadness, or cope with stressful personal and school experiences.

Teacher behavior may influence the intellectual and emotional development of students for good or for ill. Teachers who receive psychological counseling have been found to be better able to deal with their students, particularly with troubled and withdrawn students.

Intelligence	интеллект	partial	частичный
approxim- ately	приблизительно	extinc- tion	прекращение
homogene- ous	однородный, гомоген- ный	transfer	перенос, перевод
stigma	клеймо позора	disability	неспособность
reward	награда; награждать	withdraw	отказываться, забирать

PSYCHOLOGY APPLIED TO THE WORLD OF WORK: SELECTING PEOPLE FOR WORK

The initial application of psychology to the world of work began with the employee selection process. Psychological selection techniques are used to screen and hire people at all levels of employment and to identify current employees who are qualified for promotion. Therefore, these psychological techniques are extremely important to your own future.

Employee selection is an expensive and time-consuming process that involves five specific steps or procedures.

1. *Job analysis and worker analysis.* To determine the skills and abilities needed to perform a job, it is necessary to analyze the job in detail and to derive from that the characteristics and abilities required of the workers. Job analysis can be conducted by interviewing persons connected with the job, giving them questionnaires, observing them, or recording critical incidents on the job.

2. *Setting cutoff scores and minimum levels of abilities.* Based on the skills and abilities needed for the job, specific levels of performance on the selection techniques (say, a certain score on an IQ test), and background factors such as number of years of education, must be established. No one is to be hired who does not meet these criteria.

3. *Recruiting of applicants.* This initial contact with the organization must offer candidates realistic previews of what the job will be like. Attention must also be paid to the behavior and manner of the recruiters and to the recruiting appeals that are effective for different kinds of people.

4. *Administration of selection techniques.* Applicants should be made to feel as comfortable and relaxed as possible. All selection techniques must be administered under conditions that render them maximally effective.

5. *Validation of selection procedures.* All selection techniques must be correlated with some objective measure of job success, to ensure that the techniques are capable of selecting among good and poor workers.

Several techniques are discussed: application blanks, personal interviews, letters of recommendation, assessment centers, and psychological tests.

Application blanks must ask only for information that has been shown to relate to job success. Two modifications of the standard application blank are the *weighted application blank*, in which each item is given a numerical weight determined by how strongly the item predicts job success, and the *biographical information blank*, which explores the candidate's life history in great detail.

Personal interviews are of two types: *unstructured*, in which interviewers follow their individual line of questioning, and *structured*, in which interviewers ask the same questions in the same order of all applicants. The structured interview is of far greater value in predicting job success. In any interview, subjectivity and personal bias can distort the results. The interviewer's own prejudices can affect results, as can quota pressure and the quality of the preceding job applicants.

Letters of recommendation, although frequently used, are not very useful predictors of job success. Four ways of securing recommendations are by letter, questionnaire, telephone, and field investigation.

Assessment centers involve placing job applicants in a simulated real-life situation such as they would encounter on the job for which they are applying. Two exercises frequently used in assessment centers are the *in-basket test* and the *leaderless group discussion*, both of which involve actual management problems. Applicants are observed during the performance of these exercises to see how they cope with the stresses involved.

Psychological tests as selection devices must meet four criteria: *standardization* (consistent and uniform procedures of administration), availability of test *norms* (sets of scores of similar people against which applicants' scores are compared), *reliability* (the consistency of test scores), and *validity* (how well the test measures what it purports to measure).

Tests can be categorized in terms of the way in which they are administered (individual and group tests, speed and power tests, and paper-and-pencil and performance tests), and the kind of behavior they measure (mental ability or intelligence, interests, aptitudes, motor ability, and personality).

Although tests can be useful aids to the selection process, there are problems involved with their use: deliberate faking of responses, negative attitudes toward tests, invasion of privacy, and discrimination against minority-group applicants.

The passage of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, and the establishment of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission in 1972, have made it illegal to discriminate against job applicants because of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. This legislation has had an impact on personnel selection, influencing the kinds of questions that can be asked of applicants in interviews or on application blanks, and requiring that proper validation studies be conducted on all psychological tests used for selection purposes.

Initial	начальный, заглавный	quota	квота
em- ployee	рабочий, служащий	question- naire	анкета, вопросник
promo- tion	содействие, продвиже- ние по службе	device	устройство
cut-off	отрезанный кусок; кратчайший путь	availability	пригодность, наличие
		deliberate	преднамеренный, обду- манный
valida- tion	утверждение, легализация	hire	нанимать

PSYCHOLOGY APPLIED TO THE WORLD OF WORK: TRAINING AND EVALUATING PEOPLE AT WORK

Training people for work is a major activity of industrial psychologists and one that is vital to you and to the organization for which you work. No matter how sophisticated and valid is a company's selection program, no matter how well qualified are individual employees, maximum efficiency on the job cannot be reached without adequate job training. From apprentice to company president, training is a continuing activity to which employing organizations devote a great deal of time and money.

Training is of such importance that it can legitimately be considered a fringe benefit of a job. A good training program increases employees' feelings of job security, status, and self-worth, and their opportunities for promotion. Training also enhances the quality of life of the hard-core unemployed—enabling many of them to become contributing members of society for the first time—and of workers whose jobs have been rendered obsolete by technological changes.

Establishing a training program is a costly and complex undertaking that requires careful attention to three factors. (1) What is to be taught? We cannot know what to teach without first knowing what skills and abilities are needed to

successfully perform the job. This information is derived from job analyses, critical incidents, performance evaluations, and examination of production and accident records. (2) How is it to be taught? Once the skills to be taught are known, the best teaching methods must be determined. Methods include the traditional teacher-textbook approach, audiovisual materials, student participation, and on-the-job training. (3) Who shall teach it? Trainers must have competence in the subject matter to be taught, be skilled in the art of communicating, and be able to motivate trainees to learn. Many companies employ professional trainers.

Two types of training methods are those for nonsupervisory employees and those for supervisory or management employees. Training methods for *nonsupervisory* jobs include: (1) *On-the-job training*: training people on the job at which they will be working provides for positive transfer of training. However, it can disrupt the production process. (2) *Vestibule training*: training that takes place in a separate facility designed to simulate the actual workplace eliminates the possibility of trainees interfering with the production process. However, it is an expensive technique and may not always provide positive transfer of training to the actual job. (3) *Apprentice programs*: these involve both classroom learning and on-the-job experience and are used primarily for skilled crafts and trades. (4) *Programmed instruction*: the material to be learned is presented in small steps so that trainees can proceed at their own pace, in line with their individual abilities. The technique provides constant feedback on progress, active participation, and positive reinforcement, but its usefulness is limited to the teaching of relatively simple job skills. (5) *Behavior modification*: employees are rewarded or reinforced only when they display the desired behaviors. Rewards range from tangible prizes or bonuses to less tangible forms of praise and recognition.

Training programs for *managers* include: (1) *The case study method*: groups of trainees discuss their individual solutions to complex business problems. This teaches them the value of recognizing differing ways of looking at a problem. (2) *Business games*: teams of trainees compete to solve business problems. Each team must organize itself effectively in order to present the most efficient solution to the problem under the pressure of time. (3) *In-basket training*: individual trainees must handle the problems found in their in-baskets as effectively and quickly as possible. (4) *Role playing*: through acting out the behaviors and feelings of other people in different roles, trainees develop interpersonal skills and sensitivity to the feelings of others. (5) *Sensitivity training*: through this intense, emotional, and revealing group interaction, trainees develop greater self-understanding and increased tolerance and acceptance of others. (6) *University and special institute courses*: these formal courses include instruction in specific management skills as well as in liberal arts and philosophy. The programs are designed to broaden an executive's cultural and intellectual background.

Performance evaluation is an activity that continues throughout an employee's career. It is used as a basis for determining pay raises, promotions, demotions, and dismissals. Performance evaluation attempts to assess workers' strengths and weaknesses so that they can improve their job performance. Three categories of performance evaluation techniques are those for production jobs, for nonproduction jobs, and for executive jobs.

Evaluating performance on *production jobs* involves recording the number of units a worker produces in a given period of time. However, this quantitative measure must be qualified by assessments of the quality of the work, the conditions under which the work is performed, and the nature of the work itself.

Performance evaluations of *nonproduction jobs* involve *merit rating* techniques, by which a supervisor may rate an employee's level of performance. Merit rating techniques include: (1) *Rating*: supervisors assign a numerical rating to subordinates on a number of specific traits. (2) *Ranking*: all subordinates in a working unit are rank ordered from best to worst in terms of overall job effectiveness or on specific traits. The technique is difficult when there are many subordinates to evaluate. (3) *Paired comparisons*: each worker is compared with every other worker and each pair is rank ordered. This technique is unwieldy with large numbers of subordinates. (4) *Forced distribution*: a fixed percentage of the workers must be placed in each of several categories. This is similar to some classroom grading systems. (5) *Forced choice*: supervisors must choose which of several apparently favorable or unfavorable statements best characterizes each subordinate.

Executive performance evaluation is carried out by: (1) *The in-basket technique*: this is used in the same way as for selection and training purposes. (2) *Evaluation by superiors*: superiors write general descriptions of their subordinates' level of performance. (3) *Peer rating*: colleagues perform the evaluations. (4) *Self-evaluation*: each executive assesses his or her own abilities, strengths, and weaknesses.

Training	подготовка	vestibule	вестибюль; пред- дверие
sophisticated	сложный; искушенный	eliminate	устранять
enhance	увеличивать, усиливать	tangible	осязаемый, ощу- щаемый
obsolete (p. 22)	устарелый, вышедший из употребления	supervi- sory	контролирующий
derive	происходить от	evaluation	оценивание, оценка
trainee	стажер	assess- ment	оценка, суждение

PSYCHOLOGY APPLIED TO THE WORLD OF WORK: MANAGING, MOTIVATING, AND SATISFYING PEOPLE AT WORK

Psychologists have conducted a great deal of research on the nature and characteristics of effective employee management, the nature of worker motivation, and the satisfactions people find or fail to find in the world of work. As a result of this research, radical changes are taking place in worker management and motivation philosophies to allow for more employee participation in decision making, and greater autonomy, challenge, and responsibility in the design of jobs.

Leadership, a crucial factor in the success or failure of any organization, has been studied extensively by psychologists. They are concerned with the nature of leadership behavior, the functions or tasks of leaders, and the personality characteristics of effective leaders.

The traditional philosophy of management, *scientific management*, required authoritarian and dictatorial leaders. The modern approach, the *human relations movement*, focuses on employee needs and requires more democratic leaders. These philosophies of management are represented in McGregor's Theory X/Theory Y formulations. Theory X presents a negative image of human nature and calls for a dictating and commanding leader. Theory Y, with its flattering view of human nature, calls for democratic leadership.

The tasks of leaders can be grouped in two broad areas: the *consideration* function (which focuses on employee needs) and the *initiation of structure* function (which focuses on the goals and needs of the organization). Within these two dimensions of leadership behavior there are a number of specific tasks that effective leaders must carry out: determination of realistic objectives, provision of necessary resources, establishment of expectations, provision of a reward structure, delegation of authority and provision for participation, removal of barriers to effective performance, and periodic appraisal of subordinates.

Much research has been conducted on the personality characteristics of effective leaders. Although these characteristics vary from one situation to another, it is possible to identify those in any one situation. Successful business managers are characterized by the drives for achievement and mobility, a positive attitude toward superiors, the ability to organize and make decisions, a positive self-structure, a high level of activity and aggressive striving, apprehension and fear of failure, orientation toward reality, identification with superiors and aloofness with subordinates, freedom from dependence on parents, and loyalty to the goals of the organization.

Motivating employees to work more productively is a problem facing all organizations today. Money alone is no longer a sufficient incentive for greater productivity, and attention has been focused on certain psychological needs and the kind of work that can best satisfy them.

McClelland's *need for achievement theory* involves the need to do a good job and to accomplish something. People high in this need function best in a job that allows them to take personal responsibility and assume tasks of moderate difficulty, and that provides precise and continuing feedback on their progress.

Maslow's *self-actualization theory* argues that people are motivated by the need to self-actualize, that is, to utilize and fulfill all their capabilities. To satisfy the self-actualization need, the four needs lower in Maslow's hierarchy of needs (physiological, safety, belonging and love, and esteem needs) must be satisfied first. The kind of work that can allow for satisfaction of the self-actualization need is that which is challenging, meaningful, and provides responsibility and opportunity for greater personal growth and development.

In *Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory*, higher needs such as self-actualization must be satisfied in order to increase productivity and job satisfaction. These higher-level needs are called motivator needs and they are satisfied only by inherent aspects of the work. Hygiene needs, which produce job dissatisfaction if they are not satisfied, are concerned with features of the work environment. Satisfaction of hygiene needs can prevent job dissatisfaction but cannot produce job satisfaction. Only satisfaction of motivator needs can bring about job satisfaction.

Herzberg's theory has led to the redesign of many jobs through the process of *job enlargement*. This enlargement of the scope of a job facilitates satisfaction of the motivator needs by increasing personal responsibility, authority, and freedom, by enhancing the sense of achievement, and by providing recognition and feedback.

Job satisfaction is a cluster of attitudes, feelings, likes, and dislikes about one's job, and it is measured by surveying workers' feelings through questionnaires and personal interviews. Job satisfaction is difficult to measure precisely because the responses obtained vary with the way in which the questions are phrased. Various surveys reveal that job dissatisfaction ranges from a low of 7 per cent among workers over the age of fifty to a high of 22 per cent among nonwhite workers.

A complicating factor in measuring job satisfaction is that it varies as a function of the following personal characteristics. (1) *Age*: job satisfaction increases as people get older. (2) *Sex*: job satisfaction differences between men and women require more study, but it is evident that women are paid less than men for the same job and have fewer opportunities for promotion. (3) *Race*: minority-group workers are twice as likely to be dissatisfied with their jobs as white workers. Job dissatisfaction among nonwhite workers declines considerably when they reach the mid-forties. (4) *Intelligence*: job dissatisfaction results when an employee's level of intelligence is too high or too low for the job.

(5) *Length of job experience*: job satisfaction increases the longer an employee is on the job. This parallels the relationship between job satisfaction and age. (6) *Utilization of skills*: the more employees are able to exercise their skills and

abilities, the higher is their job satisfaction. (7) *Personality*: chronically dissatisfied workers exhibit symptoms of emotional instability and introversion, and are prone to daydreaming. There is some question, however, whether the emotional instability causes the job dissatisfaction or the dissatisfaction causes the emotional instability.

In general, there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and high levels of job performance, although this relationship has not been demonstrated consistently. Also, the question has been raised whether job satisfaction causes high performance or whether improved performance leads to increased satisfaction.

Initiation	основание, установление	incentive	побуждение
establishment	создание, установление, введение	feedback	обратная связь
failure	неудача, провал	satisfaction	удовлетворение
aloofness	отчужденность, равнодушие	enlargement	расширение, увеличение
subordinate	подчиненный	cluster	скопление

PSYCHOLOGY APPLIED TO THE WORLD OF WORK: THE WORKPLACE

The physical and social-psychological conditions under which people work exert a strong influence on their levels of productivity and job satisfaction. Industrial and organizational psychologists, together with engineering and environmental psychologists, are concerned with a variety of physical, social, and psychological factors in their efforts to create working environments that will be efficient, safe, and pleasant, and will satisfy worker needs and motivations.

The *physical conditions of work* include factors such as the location of the parking lot, the design of the plant, environmental variables such as light, heat, and noise, and the number and arrangement of hours worked.

The level and quality of *illumination* has been studied extensively, and recommended levels of intensity have been established for different kinds of work. Other aspects of illumination that influence production are the distribution of light in a work area, glare, and the psychological factors involved in natural versus artificial lighting (a problem in windowless buildings).

Excessive *noise* levels can cause hearing loss and internal physiological changes, both of which are harmful to workers. The federal government has established maximum sound levels to which employees may be exposed, and psychologists and engineers have developed ways of reducing noise. In addition to

loudness, the quality or kind of noise (intermittent or irregular noise, and high, shrill tones or very low tones) can annoy and distract people at work.

Color can be used to enhance the attractiveness of a work area, to create illusions of room size (and possibly of temperature), and to code safety equipment and safety areas for ease of recognition. Color does not seem to influence productivity.

Music may make some people happier at work, but it does not seem capable of increasing production, except possibly for simple repetitive jobs. For complex jobs, music may interfere with production. When music is played at work, there is often conflict among workers as to the kind of music they prefer.

Temperature and humidity can be maintained at comfortable levels for most jobs performed indoors. For outdoor work of a physically demanding nature, productivity often declines in very hot and humid conditions.

Engineering psychology is concerned with designing the tools, machinery, and equipment that people use to perform their jobs, so as to make them compatible with the workers. The worker and the machine function as a system — a *man-machine system* — which must be matched so that each makes maximum use of the strengths and compensates for the weaknesses of the other.

Engineering psychologists are concerned with all aspects of equipment design such as the most efficient allocation of functions between worker and machine, the kinds of information needed to operate the machine and how best to display that information, the judgments and decisions required to run the machine, and the quickest way of transmitting those decisions to the machine for implementation.

Engineering psychologists are also involved in the design of the total work area, and they have developed basic principles of work space operation to improve the quantity and quality of work. A branch of engineering psychology, *human anthropometry*, is concerned with the measurement of the structure and dimensions of the human body, which measurements are used to determine the optimum size and arrangement of machinery, equipment, and office furniture.

The presentation of information to the human operator of a machine is a major part of equipment design. Engineering psychologists must decide what information is vital to the operation of the system and how it can best be presented. Three commonly used types of visual displays of information are quantitative, qualitative, and check reading.

The *temporal conditions of work* (the number and arrangement of hours to be worked) are an important aspect of the work environment. Psychologists have distinguished between *nominal working hours* (the amount of time workers are supposed to be at their jobs), and *actual working hours*. Studies show that the two rarely coincide. When nominal working hours are increased, actual working hours decrease. Some evidence suggests that the reverse may be true; actual working hours may increase when nominal hours are decreased.

Two innovations in the scheduling of work are the *four-day workweek* and *flexible working hours* (in which employees choose when to begin and end the workday). Both plans have been very successful.

Shift work presents health, family, and social adjustment problems to those who must work evenings and nights. It also lowers production levels. Keeping workers on one shift permanently is less harmful than rotating them from one shift to another on a weekly basis.

The *social-psychological conditions of work* are studied by organizational psychologists. Two extremes of organizational style are *bureaucracy* and *participatory democracy*. Bureaucracies were originally intended to humanize the workplace by decentralizing authority and dividing the work into separate units. However, in operation, bureaucracies have become trapped in the rigidity of their formal structure. They ignore human values and needs, dehumanize workers, and stifle individual and corporate growth and development.

The newer participatory style of organization focuses on human needs and values; it is compatible with the Theory Y view of human nature. It allows workers to participate in decisions that affect their jobs and thus contributes to personal fulfilment.

Within every formal organization, informal groups of workers develop. These groups have their own loyalties and goals, which are often incompatible with the goals of the organization. These informal groups are beyond the control of management, and often beyond its awareness. If recognized and accepted by management, informal groups can help to serve the needs of both workers and the organization; if not, informal groups will frustrate organizational needs.

Illumination	освещение; вание	истолко-	measure- ment	измерение
intermittent	прерывистый		dimension	величина
repetitive	повторяющийся		temporal	временный
demand	требовать		coincide	совпадать
judgement	суждение		frustrate	нарушать

PSYCHOLOGY APPLIED TO OTHER AREAS

Sport psychology is a rapidly growing area of application of psychology which draws upon a number of current areas and has ramifications for players, coaches, and spectators of all kinds of sports, both professional and amateur. Four areas of sport psychology were discussed: personality and mental health characteristics of athletes, personalities of coaches, beneficial effects of sports and exercise, and effects of sports on spectators.

The personality and mental health characteristics of athletes differ from those of nonathletes. Athletes experience less anxiety and are more dominant. Women athletes are less neurotic, more extraverted, and higher on the need for

achievement than women who are not athletes. Women athletes in individual sports are independent, self-sufficient, and dominant; those who participate in group sports are less dominant but tend to be more dependable and reliable. Weight lifters show excessive concern about their masculinity and are shy, lacking in self-confidence, and dependent. Their sport helps them compensate for these feelings. Boxers are less aggressive than wrestlers and nonathletes. Wrestlers have a very high level of aggression. This aggression is reduced following a match, suggesting that the sport serves as a catharsis or release for strong emotions. Major league baseball players are more ambitious, aggressive, and self-confident than minor league players.

Studies of the personality characteristics of coaches show that they are highly authoritarian, dominant, aggressive, and have high levels of management and organizational abilities. They are also high in the need for achievement, competitiveness, feelings of masculinity, and emotional stability. However, they are not sensitive or sympathetic to others, nor do they favor close interpersonal relationships.

Beneficial effects of sports and exercise include improvements in circulation, respiration, muscle strength and tone, and weight loss. Exercise programs are valuable in rehabilitating victims of strokes, amputations, nerve injuries, multiple sclerosis, and polio, and in aiding patients recovering from surgery or a long confinement in bed.

Exercise and sports enhance emotional functioning, increasing feelings of self-worth and approval, and are used in the treatment of the mentally ill. Regular exercise, sports and games, and dance and swimming therapies help mental patients express their feelings, gain recognition and approval, and improve their ability to communicate with others.

Some of the effects of sports on spectators include arousing aggression in younger fans of violent sports and reducing aggression in older fans.

Behavioral dentistry attempts to overcome our fear of dentists and to develop more positive attitudes toward dentistry. To help overcome the fear of dentists, psychologists have used *modeling*, in which a person watches someone else in the feared situation; *systematic desensitization*, in which a state of complete relaxation is paired with the fear-producing situation; and methods to *increase pain tolerance*, in which a state of relaxation is paired with progressively stronger electric shocks. Pain in the dentist's chair seems to be at least as much psychological as physical, and has been successfully treated by the same techniques. Tooth grinding, which is very harmful to oral hygiene, results from excessive stress and can be cured by the use of behavior therapy and biofeedback.

Psychology applied to *traffic safety* is concerned with the road, the automobile, and the driver. Conditions of the road greatly affect highway safety, and psychologists have been involved in the design of street and highway signs and other traffic control devices. By studying factors that affect sign legibility, psychologists have greatly increased the speed and accuracy of reading highway signs.

Engineering psychologists are involved in the design of the automobile to reduce the chances of collision and of injury or death once a collision has occurred. Through their efforts, visibility has been increased and various safety features, such as padding and recessing sharp surfaces, have been introduced.

The driver's seat and instrument panel constitute a workplace, and many of the same principles used to design industrial workplaces have been applied to the design of the car. Human anthropometry is applied so that seats, controls, and displays can be designed to match human measurements. Displays and controls are designed in accordance with the principles of engineering psychology for ease and speed of reading and operating.

The majority of automobile accidents are caused by the driver, and psychologists have studied the relationship between personality and accidents. Drivers who have accidents have been shown to be anxious, aggressive, impulsive, socially maladjusted, dependent, egocentric, and poorly tolerant of stress. However, the correlations between personality factors and accidents are low. People once thought to be accident-prone do not have the same frequency of accidents all the time. Accidents are more a function of the temporary state of stress the driver is under, and how he or she copes with that stress. Other variables associated with accidents are age (older and younger drivers have more accidents than middle-aged drivers), physical condition (especially poor vision), and alcohol consumption.

Driver education is no more effective in teaching safe driving skills and attitudes to new drivers than less formal procedures, but is effective in rehabilitating people with poor driving records.

Psychology applied to *pets and livestock* is a new area of application that attempts to change the behavior of animals. Pets who misbehave have been cured of their problem behavior through the behavior modification techniques used so successfully with people. Farm animals have been made more productive through the application of various psychological findings and techniques.

Ramifications	разветвление	livestock	домашний скот
coach	инструктор	legibility	разборчивость; четкость
amateur	непрофессионал	injury	вред; оскорбление
Beneficial	благотворный, выгодный	correlation	соотношение, взаимосвязь
masculinity	мужественность, энергичность	consumption	потребление
approval	одобрение		

PART II

SOCIAL WORK SOCIAL WORK TODAY AND TOMORROW: AN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

M. C. HOKENSTAD, S. K. KHINDUKA, AND JAMES MIDGLEY

Today social work is truly an international profession. In one form or another, it is practised in all regions and countries of the world. Rich nations and poor countries that are predominantly rural and those that are primarily urban societies with population explosions and those with low reproduction rates, capitalist and socialist countries, countries under democratic or authoritarian governments, traditional and emerging nations, post-industrial and industrialized and industrializing nations, countries under conservative and liberal governments—all have social work in common. Nations that have not yet established social work services or mechanisms to train social workers are taking steps to do so, often with aid and consultation from abroad.

The universality of social work does not mean that the pattern of social work's organization, roles, and fields of service; modes of educational preparation; or degree of social recognition are uniform throughout the world. As the previous chapters have shown, there is cross-national diversity in the models and methods of social work practice and in the political, cultural, economic, and social context within which social work is practised. Also, the theoretical and ideological underpinnings of the profession, the level of its involvement in making public policy, and the priorities given to social services differ from country to country and region to region. Yet there are impressive commonalities in the profession's roles and functions. This chapter explores these similarities and differences in the context of a rapidly changing world. It also analyzes selected common issues and offers projections and speculations about the future direction of social work.

Explo- sion	взрыв	rapidly	стремительно
priority	приоритет	specula- tion	размышление

ROLES AND FUNCTIONS OF SOCIAL WORKERS

Social workers everywhere have a broad and diverse set of roles and responsibilities. They work with people throughout their life cycles: with children, youths, adults, and elderly people. Their fields of practice embrace health, mental health, community development, criminal justice, school systems, family planning, income security, labor welfare, and employee assistance. They provide individual and group counseling; engage in case management; organize

support networks; and plan, coordinate, administer, and evaluate social services. They deal with traditional clientele, such as children and elderly people, and new clientele, such as AIDS patients and their families, recent immigrants and refugees, victims of crime, and homeless people.

In all countries, social workers see themselves as agents of social change and institutional reform. In emerging nations, the social work role is cast in terms of the challenge of nation building; in divided communities social workers are expected to be agents of reconciliation. Everywhere, they serve as educators, catalysts, and coalition builders with other professionals, using their skills in group work, communication, networking, and program planning. They organize at the grassroots level and engage in advocacy and community action. In almost all countries they work with poor people. Whether social workers are employed by the government or by the voluntary sector, they share a commitment to the values of promoting human dignity and social justice, empowering poor and vulnerable people, and encouraging intergroup harmony and goodwill.

Embrace	использовать	dignity	достоинство, титул
clientele	клиентура	empowering	уполномочивать
refugee	беженец, эмигрант	vulnerable	уязвимый
reconciliation	примирение	advocacy	защита, адвокатура
community	общество; общность	goodwill	расположение, доброжелательность
commitment	заключение под стражу; обязательство		

SHARED CHALLENGES IN DIVERSE CONTEXTS

There are appreciable differences in the way social work originated in various countries and in the way it is organized and has matured. These differences include the mechanisms for delivering social services, the degree of public recognition given to social work as a profession, and the immediate tasks assigned to social workers. Yet certain key issues and challenges are international in scope and confront social workers throughout the world.

The conservative attack on the welfare state and the associated shortage of resources is a dominant issue for social workers in many nations. Educational qualifications for social workers and standards for programs of social work education are also of considerable importance. Another challenge is the search for models of intervention that provide an optimum mix of social change and direct service approaches to practice. The low status and poor working conditions of social workers require attention in many countries. Ariel finally, the

role of social work in increasingly diverse, multiethnic and multicultural societies is a fundamental challenge. Each of these issues deserves careful attention.

Appreciable shortage	заметный, ощутимый недостаток	challenge	вызов, сомнение; вызывать,
		intervention	вмешательство
dominant	господствующий, преобладающий	deserve	заслуживать, быть достойным

THE ETHICS OF SOCIAL WORK : PRINCIPLES AND STANDARDS

Adopted by the IFSW General Meeting, Colombo, Sri Lanka, July 6-8, 1994

1. BACKGROUND

Ethical awareness is a necessary part of the professional practice of any social worker. His or her ability to act ethically is an essential aspect of the quality of the service offered to clients.

The purpose of IFSW's work on ethics is to promote ethical debate and reflection in the member associations and among the providers of social work in member countries.

The basis for the further development of IFSW is work on ethics is to be found in "*Ethics of Social Work - Principles and Standards*" which consists of two documents, "*International Declaration of Ethical Principles of Social Work*", and "*International Ethical Standards for Social Workers*". These documents present the basic ethical principles of the social work profession, recommend procedure when the work presents ethical dilemmas, and deal with the profession's and the individual social worker's relation to clients, colleagues, and others in the field. The documents are components in a continuing process of use, review and revision.

Review	обзор
revision	повторение
essential	существенный

2. INTERNATIONAL DECLARATION OF ETHICAL PRINCIPLES OF SOCIAL WORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The IFSW recognises the need for a declaration of ethical principles for guidance in dealing with ethical problems in social work.

The purposes of the *International Declaration of Ethical Principles* are:

1. to formulate a set of basic principles for social work, which can be adapted to cultural and social settings.

2. to identify ethical problem areas in the practice of social work (below referred to as 'problem areas'), and

3. to provide guidance as to the choice of methods for dealing with ethical issues/problems (below referred to as 'methods for addressing ethical issues/problems').

Compliance

The *International Declaration of Ethical Principles* assumes that both member associations of the IFSW and their constituent members adhere to the principles formulated therein. The IFSW expects each member association to assist its members in identifying and dealing with ethical issues/problems in the practice of their profession.

Member associations of the IFSW and individual members of these can report any member association to the Executive Committee of the IFSW should it neglect to adhere to these principles. National Associations who experience difficulties adopting these principles should notify the Executive Committee of IFSW. The Executive Committee may impose the stipulations and intentions of the Declaration of Ethical Principles on an association which neglects to comply. Should this not be sufficient the Executive Committee can, as a following measure, suggest suspension or exclusion of the association.

The *International Declaration of Ethical Principles* should be made publicly known. This would enable clients, employers, professionals from other disciplines, and the general public to have expectations in accordance with the ethical foundations of social work.

We acknowledge that a detailed set of ethical standards for the member associations would be unrealistic due to legal, cultural and governmental differences among the member countries.

Guidance	руководство		intention	намерение
constituent	составной		suspension	временное прекращение
stipulation	обуславливание, шение	согла-	acknowledge	допускать, сознавать, подтверждать

2.2 THE PRINCIPLES

Social workers serve the development of human beings through adherence to the following basic principles:

2.2.1. Every human being has a unique value, which justifies moral consideration for that person.

2.2.2. Each individual has the right to self-fulfilment to the extent that it does not encroach upon the same right of others, and has an obligation to contribute to the well-being of society.

2.2.3. Each society, regardless of its form, should function to provide the maximum benefits for all of its members.

2.2.4. Social workers have a commitment to principles of social justice.

2.2.5. Social workers have the responsibility to devote objective and disciplined knowledge and skill to aid individuals, groups, communities, and societies in their development and resolution of personal-societal conflicts and their consequences.

2.2.6. Social workers are expected to provide the best possible assistance to anybody seeking their help and advice, without unfair discrimination on the basis of gender, age, disability, colour, social class, race, religion, language, political beliefs, or sexual orientation.

2.2.7. Social workers respect the basic human rights of individuals and groups as expressed in the *United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights* and other international conventions derived from that Declaration.

2.2.8. Social workers pay regard to the principles of privacy, confidentiality, and responsible use of information in their professional work. Social workers respect justified confidentiality even when their country's legislation is in conflict with this demand.

2.2.9. Social workers are expected to work in full collaboration with their clients, working for the best interests of the clients but paying due regard to the interests of others involved. Clients are encouraged to participate as much as possible, and should be informed of the risks and likely benefits of proposed courses of action.

2.2.10. Social workers generally expect clients to take responsibility, in collaboration with them, for determining courses of action affecting their lives. Compulsion which might be necessary to solve one party's problems at the expense of the interests of others involved should only take place after careful explicit evaluation of the claims of the conflicting parties. Social workers should minimise the use of legal compulsion.

2.2.11. Social work is inconsistent with direct or indirect support of individuals, groups, political forces or power-structures suppressing their fellow human beings by employing terrorism, torture or similar brutal means.

2.2.12. Social workers make ethically justified decisions, and stand by them, paying due regard to the *IFSW International Declaration of Ethical Prin-*

principles, and to the "International Ethical Standards for Social Workers" adopted by their national professional association.

Unique	особенный, уникальный	convention	собрание; соглашение
justify	оправдывать, подтверждать	compulsion	принуждение
benefit	преимущество, польза	torture	пытка
commitment	обязательство	brutal	грубый

2.3 PROBLEM AREAS

2.3.1. The problem areas raising ethical issues directly are not necessarily universal due to cultural and governmental differences. Each national association is encouraged to promote discussion and clarification of important issues and problems particularly relevant to its country. The following problem areas are, however, widely recognized:

1) **when the loyalty of the social worker is in the middle of conflicting interests**

- between those of the social workers own and the clients
- between conflicting interests of individual clients and other individuals
- between the conflicting interests of groups of clients
- between groups of clients and the rest of the population
- between systems/institution and groups of clients
- between system/institution/employer and social workers
- between different groups of professionals

2) **the fact that the social worker functions both as a helper and controller** The relation between these two opposite aspects of social work demands a clarification based on an explicit choice of values in order to avoid a mixing-up of motives or the lack of clarity in motives, actions and consequences of actions. When social workers are expected to play a role in the state control of citizens they are obliged to clarify the ethical implications of this role and to what extent this role is acceptable in relation to the basic ethical principles of social work.

3) **the duty of the social worker to protect the interests of the client will easily come into conflict with demands for efficiency and utility**

This problem is becoming important with the introduction and use of information technology within the fields of social work.

2.3.2. The principles declared in section 2.2 should always be at the base of any consideration given or choice made by social workers in dealing with issues/problems within these areas.

Clarification	пояснение	clarify	разъяснять	
loyalty	лояльность	implication	вовлечение; смысл	скрытый
employer	наниматель	utility	полезность	
consequence	следствие, результат			

2.4. METHODS FOR THE SOLUTION OF ISSUES/PROBLEMS

2.4.1. The various national associations of social workers are obliged to treat matters in such a way that ethical issues/problems may be considered and tried to be solved in collective forums within the organization. Such forums should enable the individual social worker to discuss, analyse and consider ethical issues/problems in collaboration with colleagues, other expert groups and parties affected by the matter under discussion. In addition such forums should give the social worker opportunity to receive advice from colleagues and others. Ethical analysis and discussion should always seek to create possibilities and options.

2.4.2. The member associations are required to produce and/or adapt ethical standards for the different fields of work, especially for those fields where there are complicated ethical issues/problems as well as areas where the ethical principles of social work may come into conflict with the respective country's legal system or the policy of the authorities.

2.4.3. When ethical foundations are laid down as guidelines for actions within the practice of social work, it is the duty of the associations to aid the individual social worker in analysing and considering ethical issues/problems on the basis of:

- 1) The basic **principles** of the Declaration (section 2.2)
- 2) The ethical/moral and political **context** of the actions, i.e. an analysis of the values and forces constituting the framing conditions of the action.
- 3) The **motives** of the action, i.e. to advocate a higher level of consciousness of the aims and intentions the individual social worker might have regarding a course of action.
- 4) The **nature** of the action, i.e. help in providing an analysis of the moral content of the action, e.g. the use of compulsion as opposed to voluntary co-operation, guardianship vs participation, etc.

5) The **consequences** the action might have for different groups, i.e. an analysis of the consequences of different ways of action for all involved parties in both the short and long term.

2.4.4. The member associations are responsible for promoting debate, education and research regarding ethical questions.

Collaboration	сотрудничество
framing	создание; структура

3. INTERNATIONAL ETHICAL STANDARDS FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

(This section is based on the *"International Code of Ethics for the Professional Social Worker"* adopted by the IFSW in 1976, but does not include ethical principles since these are now contained in the new separate International Declaration of Ethical Principles of Social Work in section 2.2 of the present document.)

3.1 PREAMBLE

Social work originates variously from humanitarian, religious and democratic ideals and philosophies and has universal application to meet human needs arising from personal-societal interactions and to develop human potential. Professional social workers are dedicated to service for the welfare and self-fulfilment of human beings; to the development and disciplined use of validated knowledge regarding human and societal behaviour; to the development of resources to meet individual, group, national and international needs and aspirations; and to the achievement of social justice. On the basis of the *International Declaration of Ethical Principles of Social Work*, the social worker is obliged to recognise these standards of ethical conduct.

Re-	источник
sources	
justice	справедливость, законность
conduct	поведение; вести, руководить

3.2. GENERAL STANDARDS OF ETHICAL CONDUCT

3.2.1. Seek to understand each individual client and the client system, and the elements which affect behaviour and the service required.

3.2.2. Uphold and advance the values, knowledge and methodology of the profession, refraining from any behaviour which damages the functioning of the profession.

3.2.3. Recognise professional and personal limitations.

3.2.4. Encourage the utilisation of all relevant knowledge and skills.

3.2.5. Apply relevant methods in the development and validation of knowledge.

3.2.6. Contribute professional expertise to the development of policies and programs which improve the quality of life in society.

3.2.7. Identify and interpret social needs.

3.2.8. Identify and interpret the basis and nature of individual, group, community, national, and international social problems.

3.2.9. Identify and interpret the work of the social work profession. Clarify whether public statements are made or actions performed on an individual basis or as representative of a professional association, agency or organisation, or other group.

En- поддерживать
courage
valida- утверждение, ратификация
tion
relevant уместный, относящийся к делу

3.3 SOCIAL WORK STANDARDS RELATIVE TO CLIENTS

3.3.1. Accept primary responsibility to identified clients, but within limitations set by the ethical claims of others.

3.3.2. Maintain the client's right to a relationship of trust, to privacy and confidentiality, and to responsible use of information. The collection and sharing of information or data is related to the professional service function with the client informed as to its necessity and use. No information is released without prior knowledge and informed consent of the client, except where the client cannot be responsible or others may be seriously jeopardized. A client has access to social work records concerning them.

3.3.3. Recognise and respect the individual goals, responsibilities, and differences of clients. Within the scope of the agency and the client's social milieu, the professional service shall assist clients to take responsibility for personal actions and help all clients with equal willingness. Where the professional service cannot be provided under such conditions the clients shall be so informed in such a way as to leave the clients free to act.

3.3.4. Help the client - individual, group, community, or society- to achieve self-fulfilment and maximum potential within the limits of the respective rights of others. The service shall be based upon helping the client to understand and use the professional relationship, in furtherance of the clients legitimate desires and interests.

Consent	согласие, разрешение	willing- ness	готовность
jeop- ardize	подвергать рисковать	опасности, further- ance	продвижение, поддержка

3.4 SOCIAL WORK STANDARDS RELATIVE TO AGENCIES AND ORGANIZATIONS

3.4.1. Work and/or cooperate with those agencies and organizations whose policies, procedures, and operations are directed toward adequate service delivery and encouragement of professional practice consistent with the ethical principles of the IFSW.

3.4.2. Responsibly execute the stated aims and functions of the agency or organizations, contributing to the development of sound policies, procedures, and practice in order to obtain the best possible standards or practice.

3.4.3. Sustain ultimate responsibility to the client, initiating desirable alterations of policies, procedures, and practice, through appropriate agency and organization channels. If necessary remedies are not achieved after channels have been exhausted, initiate appropriate appeals to higher authorities or the wider community of interest.

3.4.4. Ensure professional accountability to client and community for efficiency and effectiveness through periodic review of the process of service provision.

3.4.5. Use all possible ethical means to bring unethical practice to an end when policies, procedures and practices are in direct conflict with the ethical principles of social work.

Delivery	доставка	remedy	лечебное средство
execute	выполнять	accountability	ответственность, подотчетность
ultimate	окончательный; основной; первичный	efficiency	действенность

3.5 SOCIAL WORK STANDARDS RELATIVE TO COLLEAGUES

3.5.1. Acknowledge the education, training and performance of social work colleagues and professionals from other disciplines, extending all necessary cooperation that will enhance effective services.

3.5.2. Recognise differences of opinion and practice of social work colleagues and other professionals, expressing criticism through channels in a responsible manner.

3.5.3. Promote and share opportunities for knowledge, experience, and ideas with all social work colleagues, professionals from other disciplines and volunteers for the purpose of mutual improvement.

3.5.4. Bring any violations of professionals ethics and standards to the attention of the appropriate bodies inside and outside the profession, and ensure that relevant clients are properly involved.

3.5.5. Defend colleagues against unjust actions.

Mutual improvement unjust	взаимный улучшение несправедливый, неверный
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3.6 STANDARDS RELATIVE TO THE PROFESSION

3.6.1. Maintain the values, ethical principles, knowledge and methodology of the profession and contribute to their clarification and improvement.

3.6.2. Uphold the professional standards of practice and work for their advancement

3.6.3. Defend the profession against unjust criticism and work to increase confidence in the necessity for professional practice.

3.6.4. Present constructive criticism of the profession, its theories, methods and practices

3.6.5. Encourage new approaches and methodologies needed to meet new and existing needs.

Clarification	разъяснение
confidence	доверие; уверенность

BRIEFING MANUAL

(for member associations of the International Federation of social workers)

1.0 HEADQUARTERS

The Federation is incorporated as a non-profit international organization under Article 60 and other relevant articles of the Swiss Civil Code. Berne, Switzerland is the official seat of the organization. The articles of incorporation allow the General Meeting to determine other locations. Headquarters are presently in Geneva, Switzerland. Business of the Federation is conducted in three (3) official languages: English, French and Spanish.

Incorporate	объединять; принимать
location	расположение; размещение

2.0 BACKGROUND

2.1 The Federation is a successor to the International Permanent Secretariat of Social Workers, founded in Paris in 1928 and active until the outbreak of World War II. At the 1950 International Conference of Social Work in Paris, action was taken to create the International Federation of Social Workers (IFSW), an international organization of professional social workers associations. Agreement was reached that IFSW would be founded when seven (7) national organizations from as many countries were willing to become members of an international federation. The Federation was founded at the 1956 International Conference of Social Work in Munich, Germany.

IFSW admitted its fiftieth (50) member association in 1988. Currently, IFSW's member associations represent over 200,000 social workers. These associations are grouped into five geographical regions: Africa, Asia and Pacific, Europe, Latin America and Caribbean, and North America. The Federation has formal links with the United Nations and its specialized agencies located in Geneva, New York, and Vienna: the Council of Europe; the European Community; Amnesty International; the International Association of Schools of Social Work; and the International Council on Social Welfare.

2.2 The aims (from Article 4 of the Constitution) of the Federation are listed below:

2.2.1. To promote social work as a profession through cooperation internationally, especially regarding professional values, standards, training, ethics and working conditions;

2.2.2. To promote the establishment of national associations of social workers or national coordinating bodies where they do not yet exist;

2.2.3. To support associations in promoting the participation of social workers in social planning and the formulation of social policies, nationally and internationally;

2.2.4. To encourage contacts between social workers of all countries;

2.2.5. To provide means for discussion and the exchange of ideas, through meetings, study visits, research projects, exchanges, publications and other methods of communication;

2.2.6. To establish and maintain relations with international organizations relevant to social welfare;

2.2.7. To present and promote the point of view of the social work profession to international and national organizations carrying out social planning, social development, social action and welfare programmes;

2.2.8. To maintain, promote and amend as necessary a code of ethics for the social work profession.

Succes- sor	преемник	exist	существовать
admit	признавать, допускать	point view	of точка зрения

SEBBELOW'S STIFTELSE (THE SEBBELOW FOUNDATION)

Sebbelows Stiftelse is a child care institution and home for unmarried mothers which has 22 places allocated as follows:

- 12 in the main hostel (bed-sitters with joint housekeeping)

2 one-roomed flats in the main hostel (primarily with their own housekeeping, joint housekeeping for limited periods)

- 8 in training flats (detached four person dwellings with separate housekeeping).

All residents must initially live in the main hostel, which is reserved for mothers and children. From the main hostel residents either move to their own flats, to bed-sitters at Sebbelow or training flats at Sebbelow. In the case of the one-room flats there is an extended visiting scheme allowing overnight stays subject to prior agreement. Whole families may be registered in the training flats, i.e. the father of the child, the spouse, the cohabitee or the like. These three forms of accommodation represent a graduated transition to an independent life outside the institution. Progression through these forms of accommodation will depend on what is regarded as most beneficial to the children and upon the mutual trust built up between the institution and the parents.

The objectives of the institution are defined as follows:

"To extend to parents whose situation is such that the upbringing of their children is threatened, the offer of assistance of the type which will enable them to take care of their children.

Sebbelows Stiftelse also undertakes observation of the ability of parents to care for their children".

1. Observation

Sebbelows Stiftelse undertakes observation in cases under investigation pursuant to § 17 of the Child Welfare Act. In these cases we emphasise the following points.

The period of observation should be of a limited duration. This should be agreed prior to the start of observation. The most usual period of observation is three months.

- There must be a clear agreement as to what is to be observed. This might vary from observation of specific situations (for example mealtimes, bedtime etc.) to overall observation of all activities carried out by parents/children, both together and on their own.

- All observations are to be recorded in an internal report book. All entries in the report book must have a bearing on the agreed points of observation. Complete openness between the parents, the referring authority and the institution. The institution will undertake to check that the parents have understood the observation agreement. Parents have full access to all written reports.

Any unfavourable points discovered during observation are to be communicated to the parents without delay. This type of guidance must always be combined with guidance on alternative approaches to the problems in question.

- The time period allocated for observation must always be complied with. It must be evaluated together with the referring authority and the parents before expiry. By then clear conclusions must be presented. Should it prove necessary to extend the observation period, a new observation agreement containing specified time limits must be made.

Our experience is that it is essential that parents participate at all times and that no meetings or informal conversations should take place unless the parents are present. Observation is intended to form the basis for the parents trust in the child welfare authorities, therefore total openness and directness is essential. This also applies in those cases where the conclusion of observation is that the child should be taken into care.

Parents at Sebbelow can be divided into three main categories:

1. Young immature parents (the original target group)
2. Parents with psycho-social problems (from social maladjustment to serious psychological problems).
3. Parents with alcohol or drug problems.

Sebbelows Stiftelse has developed a model for working with parents with alcohol or drug problems. This is a far from homogenous group and the degree of abuse varies considerably. We have drawn up a number of preconditions and criteria for evaluating whether persons belonging to this group can be accepted for intake.

Sebbelow Stiftelse is not a treatment centre. For this reason we cannot accept active drug or alcohol users and we must ensure that people with alcohol or drug problems do not dominate the Sebbelow community. For this reason we apply the following criteria:

1. The number of people with alcohol or drug problems should never exceed one third of the institution's capacity. Ideally all the above three categories should be represented in approximately equal numbers so that no one group dominates the community.

2. Any alcohol or drug abuse should have ceased well before residence is taken up at the institution. In the case of pregnant women, alcohol or drug abuse must have ceased by the time pregnancy was established. In the other cases, abuse should have ceased at least three months prior to residence being taken up in the institution.

3. The mother, father or cohabitee must strive to solve his or her alcohol or drug problem independently. In practice this might mean a mother moving into the central hostel and the father accepting treatment. If treatment progresses satisfactorily, after six months they can move into a training flat together.

Re point 1: We regard it as essential to our work that parents with alcohol or drug problems should never be allowed to dominate the institution. In cases

where this category has been permitted to grow too large, a sub-culture has formed within the institution, one result of which has been a great deal of discussion of drugs which has in turn increased the desire for intoxicants.

The function of Sebbelows Stifelse is child welfare and not the treatment of drug and alcohol problems. Our resources are limited and must be directed towards the children. The staff consciously devotes little attention to alcohol and drug problems.

Re point 2: The institution is not prepared to accept active alcohol and drug abusers as residents. We have drawn up clear guidelines for admission. However, it often proves difficult to adhere to these guidelines because:

a) The remedial measures offered to pregnant alcoholics and drug addicts are generally confined to drug screening once or more times a week.

b) The welfare of the child often forces us to accept mothers who up until a short time previously were alcohol or drug users.

c) The referring authorities are not always well enough informed of the extent of the abuse.

Re point 3: Our experience is that in the case of couples where both partners have an alcohol or drug problem, the partners are usually unable to discourage one another from using alcohol or drugs and that at the first sign of adversity both will fall back on drugs or alcohol. Generally speaking, in couples of this type the mother will usually be more motivated than the father. She must therefore be encouraged to become the main care provider.

In our work with alcohol and drug abuse we attach importance to securing agreement from the parents that they will abstain from the use of alcohol, narcotics and psychopharmacological agents, regardless of whether their problem is one of alcohol or one of narcotics. Nevertheless, relapses inevitably occur. These relapses should not take us by surprise, we must prepare our reactions beforehand and offer suitable measures.

In evaluating these relapses it is important that we consider the welfare of the child and attempt to protect the institution as far as possible. For this reason we emphasize the following:

1. The effect of the relapse on the child and on the relationship between the child and the parent.

2. In what way was the child protected when the relapse occurred?

3. The extent of the relapse?

4. The duration of the relapse?

5. Frequency of relapses?

A plan of action is drawn up on the basis of the answers to the above questions. We attempt to ascertain what we can offer in order to prevent further relapses. This might vary from the offer of someone to talk to when the urge for drugs/alcohol arises, "house arrest" for periods of time, to the allocation of an escort for limited periods of time (maximum 2 weeks).

Our evaluation must also attempt to spare the institution from any negative effects. In some cases we have had to resort to discharging residents in order to protect the community even though we believed that we were in a position to be able to offer a viable form of treatment.

The work with drug abusing parents is both difficult and demanding. We strongly advise women addicts against giving birth as a way of reducing their drug use. However, we are always drawn into the picture at a later stage and are faced with the realization that for some mothers (more so than for fathers) becoming a parent has been a powerful motivation for ending their drug abuse.

Our success with these parents has varied considerably. At present we have no follow-up studies on which to base an evaluation of our work. Nevertheless, our work with some of these clients has been sufficiently successful to offer us inspiration and to make us believe that it is worthwhile for us to continue.

In a number of these cases the children have been taken into care. The result of this has been:

1. The child has been protected while the parents have attempted to solve their drug problems.

2. The parents have understood why it has been necessary to take the child into care.

1. The child has been placed directly in a long-term foster home thus avoiding the frequent moves which would be harmful to the child's welfare.

Resident	проживающий	preconditions	предварительный; обусловить, оговорить заранее
ded-sitter acomoda- tion	жилая комната приют; помещение	intake drug	набор наркотик
Beneficial	благотворный, выгодный угрожать	staff pregnant	штат беременный
threaten upbringing	воспитание	adversity	несчастья, пре- вратности судьбы
pursuant	преследующий	relapse	повторение, реци- див
ativities unfavour- able	деятельность невыгодный	frequency addict	частотность наркоман
maladjust- ment	несогласованность, несо- ответствие	worthwhile	полезный, стоя- щий
homogenous	однородный		

SOCIAL WORK WITHIN CHILD WELFARE DEPARTMENTS AND CHILD GUIDANCE CLINICS

The Law Governing Child Welfare enacted in 1993, aims at ensuring that children and youths living in conditions which may be detrimental to their health and development receive assistance at the earliest opportunity. The Law seeks to ensure that children and youths are brought up in a secure environment. The Law aims at protecting all children under the age of 18. While the law is most often applied in cooperation with parents, it is possible to separate children from their parents against the wishes of the parents and transfer the responsibility for the child to the child welfare service.

The Law stipulates that the child welfare service shall contribute to providing the individual child with a sound environment and opportunities for development by providing advice, guidance and assistance. The child welfare service must investigate the family environment and when appropriate suggest measures to be taken *within* the family.

Measures to which parents agree, like providing a special contact person for the child, play time activities, kindergarten, economic help for the child, etc. are decided and implemented by the child welfare service.

More serious decisions, like placing children in foster homes, regulating contact between parents and child, and referring the child for medical treatment, are decided by the politically appointed county social welfare board.

All decisions must be in the best interests of the child. Importance is given to providing the child with good and stable adult contact. Continuity in the care provided the child is a key concern.

To summarize:

1. The child welfare service shall initiate measures to assist the child and the family. This can take the form of providing a person to support the child by having regular contact, or by providing a place for the child at a kindergarten, or by providing help in the home to aid parents in the care of the child, as well as providing weekend homes for the child.

2. Care orders may be made:

- a) if there are serious deficiencies in the care received by the child,
- b) if the parents fail to ensure that a child who is ill, disabled or in special need of assistance receives the treatment and training required,
- c) if the child is mistreated or exposed to other serious abuses at home,
- d) if there is every probability that the child's health or development may be seriously harmed because the parents are not in a position to take adequate responsibility for the child.

3. If there is a danger that a child will suffer material harm by remaining at home, the head of the child welfare service or the prosecuting authority may without the consent of the parents immediately make an interim care order.

When the municipal child welfare authorities receive word that a child lives under such circumstances they are obliged to examine these circumstances. If the child is deemed to be at risk they may apply supportive services, economic aid, or other devices which are aimed at improving the living situation for the child. Some examples of support include sending children to summer camp, organizing day-care, providing weekend fostering in a family with other children, providing a "father-figure" to spend time with a young boy in leisure-time pursuits, etc. These are just a few of the many ways that different child welfare departments try to help families manage better. If these supportive devices prove to be useless, the county social welfare board may decide to remove the child from his home and place him in foster care.

Ensure	обеспечивать, гаранти-	support	поддержка; поддержи-
	ровать		вать
assistance	помощь	abuse	оскорбление; оскорб-
			лять
kindergar-	детский сад	danger	опасность
ten			
foster	воспитывать; способст-	interim	временный, предвари-
	вовать		тельный
county	графство	circum-	обстоятельства
		stances	
continuity	непрерывность		

CHILD GUIDANCE CLINICS

Child welfare authorities often cooperate with the local child guidance clinic to determine whether or not a child has been psychologically damaged in the home. However, most clients within child guidance clinics are not referred by local child welfare authorities, but are often referred by other institutions and organizations in the local community.

The law governing mental health enacted in 1961 is the basis upon which the child guidance clinics operate. Work done in these child guidance clinics is based upon parental motivation. The law does not authorize child guidance clinics to force families to receive treatment. By and large, this lack of a forced component is supported by the social workers and other health professionals working in child guidance. Results of treatment are assumed to be better when the patient and family are motivated to participate in therapy.

Referral to child guidance must always be from a physician. However, ordinarily someone else who is in everyday contact with the child usually notices the problem first and attempts to get the family to consult a physician. Very often, parents themselves will take the initiative and contact the child guidance

clinic on their own, but most often, problems are first recognized at school, nursery, and in some cases at child welfare departments.

Reasons for referral can vary greatly. The child may suffer from a severe psychiatric illness, psychosis, developmental disturbances, withdrawal or aggression, depression, learning disabilities, and many other problems can prompt referral. Even when the child does not show any kind of individual symptom or problem, one may still refer the family to a child guidance clinic if there is concern that the child has been damaged by some external incident. This may include a severe conflict within the family, death or severe illness of a family member, sexual abuse or some other serious traumatic experience.

Child guidance clinics have therapists with different professional education. The staff includes child psychiatrists, psychologists, clinical social workers, and clinical pedagogues who all bring their expertise to bear in the treatment of children and their families. In some cases, all four professional groups are needed and employed to enhance the child's development and the family's resources. In other cases, only one therapist is used.

Damage	повреждение; по- вреждать	withdrawal	отказ; изъятие; уход
parental	родительский	prompt	напоминание; напоминать, подсказывать
physician	врач	traumatic	травматический
nursery	детские ясли		

THE FUTURE OF SOCIAL WORK

The breakneck pace of change in the modern world is shattering old assumptions and arrangements. The collapse of communism in the former Soviet Union and Eastern Europe is opening new opportunities for the profession of social work. The communist ideology never recognized the need for a social work profession. According to the communist doctrine, socialist societies, by definition, were supposed to be free of the human problems that social workers typically address. Now many of the former communist countries are assiduously seeking international assistance to develop both social work education and practice.

The end of the Cold War has created a historic opportunity for the transition to a peacetime economy. If this opportunity is wisely used, the decreasing international tensions may make enormous new resources available for improving the quality of human life—resources that hitherto had been appropriated for defense and military purposes. This opportunity could be translated into an expansion of social work education and improved human services in many societies.

These developments, coupled with other encouraging trends, including the gradual elimination of apartheid in South Africa and increased international cooperation in human services programs through the United Nations and international nongovernmental organizations, are causes for optimism. Still other world trends, such as the increasing disparity between both rich and poor nations and individuals and the aforementioned conservative attack on the welfare state, require a tempering of this optimism.

Given this context, what can one say about the future of social work internationally? Although we do not intend to make any predictions, we do offer a few speculations and some projections based on current trends. First, it seems axiomatic that social work practice will continue to be shaped by its proximate historical, cultural, social, economic, and political contexts. In some cases (for example, the European Community), these contexts will broaden and change, but social work practice will continue to reflect national boundaries more than international interaction. International standards of social work practice and education are not imminent.

Still, it is likely that the social work perspective on both education and practice will gradually become more international, largely because of the increasing internationalization of the context in which it is practiced. No nation can now remain isolated from the international impact of human problems any more than it can remain isolated from the international impact of political or economic problems. Policies on migrant labor and refugee programs already have worldwide implications. Social security policies and social services delivery systems are often better understood in a cross-national context. Thus, it will be necessary for social workers to extend beyond the boundaries of their own nation and into the international arena (Hokenstad, 1988b).

Internationally, as well as in individual countries, demographic and social changes will play a decisive role in determining the priorities of practice. Work with elderly people, new immigrants, and refugees will assume greater importance, and work with women and children, particularly those in single-parent families, will demand increasing attention. As was previously mentioned, diversity among people also will lie a key factor in determining the nature of practice. Social workers will increasingly be called on to promote intergroup tolerance in a world that is rapidly becoming more heterogeneous, multicultural, and pluralistic.

The availability of resources will obviously continue to be a major influence on the possibilities and priorities for social work roles and functions. Governmental funding for social programs will depend on economic growth, as well as on political ideology. Although, as the experience of industrialized and newly industrialized countries demonstrates, economic growth per se does not automatically bring about improved social conditions and social benefits for all people in the society, it is still a necessary base for funding social welfare programs.

Balancing economic development with social equity will continue to be the paramount concern of social workers and other human services providers, planners, and advocates. An intellectual challenge for social work educators and practitioners will be to demonstrate the reciprocal relation between economic growth and social welfare. The political challenge will be to persuade policy-makers to see this relationship and to fashion public policies accordingly.

The service delivery system in which social work is practised will diversify in many nations and continue to diversify in others. The economy of the system for delivering social services will continue to be mixed, with voluntary agencies under religious or secular auspices and, to a lesser extent, for-profit agencies coexisting with governmental agencies and state-subsidized agencies. Some privatization of services is likely to occur in such countries as Japan, Sweden, and the former communist countries that have not had this tradition. Certainly, societies that are shifting from command to market economies will expand their personal social services to complement already existing income-support and social-benefit programs. It is likely that the expansion of social work will be most apparent in those countries as well.

Changes in the vehicles for providing services that will have an impact on social work will also occur internationally. For example, such trends as the use of primary health structures to provide mental health services are apparent throughout the world. In this regard, deinstitutionalization and the resulting focus on the availability, accessibility, and effectiveness of community-based care are of equal concern to both developing and developed nations. The organization of services and the division of responsibilities between social workers and members of other disciplines for providing health care and social services, although affecting countries differentially, also are of international interest. These and other trends, such as the decentralization of the provision of services, will clearly influence social work roles and functions in many countries (Holmes & Hokenstad, 1991).

Within this environmental and service-delivery context, social work roles will continue to include an uneasy mix of social-control and social change functions. Social workers will continue to act as regulators and rationers of services, as well as champions and advocates of increased services, improved services, and universally accessible services (Harris, 1990). The creative use of the humane social-control function will be as important as social change if social workers are to contribute to improvements in the quality of the lives of both individuals and communities.

Social work roles in different countries have many similarities, but the place of the social worker in the provision of services differs sharply from nation to nation. As Hokenstad (1988a) explained, the position of social workers in the service delivery system is determined largely by two factors: (1) the stage of development of the profession and the corresponding roles and responsibilities of social workers in a specific country and (2) the amount and level of

training that social workers receive. Some of the countries discussed in the previous chapters accord trained social workers the primary role in the provision of social services, whereas others give it a limited or even peripheral role. It is likely that this situation will change in the future, but only as the profession becomes better established and social work education becomes more integral to university education throughout the world.

In view of the depletion of natural resources and the rapid deterioration of the physical resources in all countries—industrially advanced as well as those still struggling to become industrialized—environmental problems that were formerly regarded as being mainly of interest to the middle class will become a major concern of social workers throughout the world. Social workers are beginning to draw increasingly pointed attention to the interrelation between the physical and the social environment, as well as to the international character of environmental problems. Thus, the discussion of the toxic effects of deteriorating rural and urban environments on the health and well-being of individuals, families, and communities in different parts of the world is likely to become a major theme for international social work in the years ahead (Khinduka, 1977; Krauss, 1988; Rogge, 1992; Singh, 1991; Soine, 1987).

Social workers all over the world share common values yet operate within a specific context. All social work practice, like all politics, is local. There is much wisdom in the adage "Global in outlook, local in action." There is only a superficial contradiction between "indigenization" and internationalism. However, both indigenization and internationalism are easier preached than practiced. Developing the most appropriate synthesis of the universal and the unique, the global and the local, is perhaps the most formidable professional challenge that practitioners must confront.

Yet it is not an impossible task. Despite the obvious political, cultural, demographic, and economic differences among nations, the extraordinary similarity of issues that social workers face all over the world is probably the most salient conclusion one can draw from a review of social work in different countries. As social work becomes more internationally focused, there will be increased opportunities for shared understanding and collaborative action on these issues.

Conformity of economic, political and social conditions is the basis of social stability. Any changes in one of these spheres urge correction in others. As we know from History ignoring the connections lead to social destabilization. On the other hand if these changes are taken into consideration an opportunity arises to develop society without shakes and to satisfy the requirements of people.

Improving the living conditions of population are the usual goals of reforms. But in Russia living standards of different groups of people have changed for the worse. And one of these groups are the families with children, in particularly with schoolchildren, according to the results of sociological surveys.

The state strives to help families with children setting up different reliefs and to secure the guaranties for education, medical service, social insurance.

The local authorities participate in development of child welfare. The Committees on the problems of family, motherhood and childhood were established in structure of regional and municipal administrations. They render financial support families with children; have established institutions to help families in every district; render different kinds of help in these ones; established the rehabilitation centres for abuse children, for handicap children; cooperate with other departments of local administrations and public organizations in development of child welfare and etc.

The aim of social work with children and families to give professional social assistance to people, to humanize social and cultural environment, to create a mutually supportive and enabling environment in which people help themselves and each other. The child protection system is supposed to be a guaranty that the children and youth will get the care, safety and possibilities to development. The child protected service have the main responsibility for the children who suffer harm.

The work of child welfare institutions is combined control and support. The district centres provide different kinds of support to the children and families: counseling, guidance, supervision, etc. If these measures haven't positive results it will be suggested the help of special institutions - the rehabilitation centres or children's homes in which children are placed or in the other families.

The success of activity of child welfare institutions depends from providing society with information about life conditions of children and families, working with mass media, conducting research with this population to influence construction of plan of action and training of social work studies.

One of the most acute problems on activities of institutions for child welfare - the lack of staff of skilled specialists. Because the profession of social work appeared in Russia not long ago, we began to feel the serious shortage of specialists in this field with development of this system. Samara State University starts the training of social workers, who will work with children and their families. The specialists of Department of Pedagogics and Psychology of Samara State University prepared the program of training which includes law, sociology, anthropology, psychology, pedagogy, social pedagogy, social work theory and other subjects. The educational program attempts to intergrate practical, cultural and theoretical learning.

The main components of the program are theoretical education, practical training, field-work practice, project work and individual work. The methods of theoretical education will be lectures and seminars which are used extensively. The main goal of practical training utilizing special techniques (role games, psychodrama, video use, etc.) and instruction of specific activity programs. Great consideration will be given to field-work practice which concentrates

upon skill-development instruction. The project work and the individual work will be provided combination of theoretical knowledge and practical skills.

In the process of preparation the programmes for training we have studied historical traditions of social assistance in Russia, the activity of local administration — "zemstvo", the traditions of upbringing the young generation in the Soviet Union. We have acquainted ourselves with modern conceptions of social work in Russia, taking part in the conferences, seminars and sessions which were organized by Association of Social Pedagogues and Social Workers of Russia during 1991-1995 in Moscow, Kolomna, St. Petersburg and Samara.

We have researched the foreign experience, in particularly in Norway. This country has already built up the system of social work. It is a well known fact that the training of social workers in Norway has been forming for a number of decades and that the Norwegians have achieved the proper education in the field of training a number of professional corps in the sphere of social work with children. I'd like to note large support that was rendered to us by Steinar Stjerno, Oyvind Tutvedt, Judy Kokkin, Lawrence Young, Marianne Tellefsen, Wenche Ree, Per Arne Olsen and other specialists of Hogskolen i Oslo (College of Oslo).

The innovative re-thinking of traditions, theory and practice of social work give us opportunity to understand the perspectives of training of social workers.

Break-neck shatter	опасный	boundary	граница
assumption	разбивать, расшатывать, расстраивать	heterogeneous	разнородный
transition	предположение, допущение	pluralistic	множественный
tension	переход, перемена	auspices	предзнаменование
military	напряжение; неловкость	vehicle	колесо
expansion	военный, воинский	accessibility	доступность
elimination	расширение, распространение	contradiction	противоречие, опровержение, противоположность
disparity	исключение, уничтожение	collaborative	совместный
mentioned	неравенство, несоответствие	conformity	соответствие, согласованность
prediction	упомянутый выше	assiduously	прилежно, усердно
reflect	предсказание	acute	острый, пронизательный
imminent	отражать	corp	корпус
impact	близкий, угрожающий, надвигающийся	equity	справедливость, беспристрастность
	столкновение, воздействие, влияние		

PART III

GROUPWORK AS A STRATEGY FOR CLASSROOMS

"Why didn't they tell me when I was in teacher training that children learn by talking and working together?" asked a third-grade teacher who has tried groups at learning stations for the first time. Have you ever noticed that you learn more about concepts and ideas when you talk, explain, and argue about them with others than when you listen to a lecture or read a book? Although many of us as adults realize that this is so, very few classrooms allow students to talk together. This is a book for teachers who want to know how to make this principle of adult learning work for students of all ages. If a teacher wants to produce active learning, then groupwork, properly designed, is a powerful tool for providing simultaneous opportunities for all class members.

Small groups are not a panacea for all instructional problems. They are only one tool, useful for specific kinds of teaching goals and especially relevant for classrooms with a wide mix of academic and English language skills. The choice of groupwork as a strategy depends upon what the teacher is trying to achieve. Most teachers will want to use groups in combination with a variety of other classroom formats for different tasks.

Argue	спорить, доказывать, об-суждать	simultaneous	одновременный
adult	взрослый (человек)	relevant	уместный, относящийся к делу

WHAT IS GROUPWORK

This book defines groupwork as students working together in a group small enough so that everyone can participate on a task that has been clearly assigned. Moreover, students are expected to carry out their task without direct and immediate supervision of the teacher. Groupwork is not the same as ability grouping in which the teachers divide up the class by academic criteria so that they can instruct a more homogeneous group. It should also be distinguished from small groups that teachers compose for intensive instruction, such as the flexible grouping procedures often used in individualized reading instruction.

When teachers give students a group task and allow them to make mistakes and struggle on their own, they have delegated authority. This is a key feature of groupwork. Delegating authority in an instructional task is making students responsible for specific parts of their work; students are free to accomplish their task in the way they think best, but they are accountable to the teacher for the final product. Delegating authority does not mean that the learning process is uncontrolled; the teacher maintains control through evaluation of the final product.

In contrast to delegation of authority is the more common practice of direct supervision. The teacher exercising direct supervision tells students what their task is and how to do it. She monitors the students closely to prevent them from making mistakes and to correct any errors right away.

The question of who is in charge of the group is critical; if a teacher is in charge, regardless of the age and maturity of the students, the teacher will do more talking than the students. The teacher's evaluation of each member's performance will have far more weight than that of any other group member. If the teacher plays the role of a direct supervisor of group activity, members will talk, not to each other, but to the teacher as the authority figure who is overseeing performance. Group members will want to know what the teacher expects them to say and will be mostly interested in finding out what the teacher thinks of their performance. Even if the teacher assigns a task to the group but hovers nearby waiting to intervene at the first misstep or sign of confusion, she is not delegating authority; she is using direct supervision.

A second key feature of groupwork is that members need each other to some degree to complete the task; they cannot do it all by themselves. Students take over some of the teaching function by suggesting what other people should do, by listening to what other people are saying, and by deciding how to get the job done within the time and resource limitations set by the instructor.

Students in a group communicate about their task with each other. This may include asking questions, explaining, making suggestions, criticizing, listening, agreeing, disagreeing, or making joint decisions. Interaction may also be nonverbal, such as pointing, showing how, nodding, frowning, or smiling.

This process of group interaction is enormously interesting to students. Students who usually do anything but what they are asked to do become actively involved with their work and are held there by the action of the group. There are several reasons why this is so. Face-to-face interaction with other group members demands a response or, at least, attentive behavior. In addition, students care very much about evaluations of classmates; they do not want to let the group down by refusing to participate. Lastly, peers provide assistance so a student does not become hopelessly confused about what he or she is supposed to do. Students who are disengaged from their work in the classroom are often students who do not understand their assignments.

Although groupwork has potential for learning, talking and working together with peers is the source of a whole series of problems. Neither children nor adults necessarily know how to work successfully in the group setting. American culture, in particular, provides very few opportunities to learn group skills. These problems can be overcome with proper preparation of the task and of the students. This volume presents both problems and suggested solutions.

Flexible	гибкий, уступчивый	assign	назначать, определять
evaluation	оценивание, оценка	confusion	беспорядок, замешательство
monitor	наставник	nod	кивать головой
oversee	наблюдать	frown	хмуриться

WHY GROUPWORK?

Groupwork is an effective technique for achieving certain kinds of intellectual and social learning goals. It is a superior technique for conceptual learning, for creative problem solving, and for increasing oral language proficiency. Socially, it will improve intergroup relations by increasing trust and friendliness. It will teach students skills for working in groups that can be transferred to many student and adult work situations. Groupwork is also a strategy for solving two common classroom problems: keeping students involved with their work, and managing instruction for students with a wide range of academic skills.

Oral language proficiency – навык устной речи

INTELLECTUAL GOALS

Groupwork can help students learn academically, as in this example of Geraldo learning about magnification.

Geraldo watches the other children as they complete their task of making a water drop lens. "What do you see?" Geraldo asks another child, as he tries to peer into the finished lens. The other child looks up and lets Geraldo look more carefully at it. Geraldo very eagerly goes back to his own lens-making task. He appears to be having trouble taping a piece of clear plastic on a white index card with a hole in the middle; he keeps getting the plastic bunched up on the tape instead of getting the tape to hold the plastic on top of the card. "Oh shoot!" Geraldo says and gets up to see what another child is doing in constructing her lens. He returns to his task only to be distracted by the child next to him. "Oooh, it gets bigger!" she exclaims. Geraldo gets up and looks at her water drop lens. He raises his eyebrows and very quickly goes back and finishes his lens. Geraldo appears to have understood what the problem was in completing the lens because he rapidly tapes it together without any further trouble. He now reaches over and takes the eye dropper from a glass filled with water. He very carefully fills it with water, centers it over his lens card and squirts one drop over the plastic where the hole is cut. Apparently satisfied with what he did he puts the excess water in the eye dropper back in the jar. He gets a piece of cloth to examine under his lens. The water slides around the plastic covering the paper and

he cries out, "Oh, no!" He puts his lens down, straightens out the cloth and then carefully slides the lens on top of the cloth. He very slowly looks into his lens and shouts out, "Oooh—bad—oooh!" "What did you see?" asks one of the girls. "Look how big mine got." says Geraldo. "What are you going to write?" she asks. Geraldo looks into the lens again and says, "It gets bigger." He then takes other flat objects and places his water drop lens on top of each one. As he looks at each object with his lens, he nods his head and says, "Yep!" Talking to himself he says, "They all get bigger." He looks at the girl he has been talking with and finally asks her "Did yours get bigger too?" (Navarrete, 1980, pp. 13-14)

Geraldo has "discovered" the principle of magnification. The process has not been an easy one, and he would never have been successful without the assistance of a classmate working on the same task. Just being able to watch others at work gave him some important information. And being able to talk things over seemed to help even further. Notice that Geraldo understands the idea in such a way that he can apply it to a new setting— when he is able to understand a concept in a new setting, we know that he has a true grasp of the abstract idea.

How else could Geraldo have learned about magnification? Could he have understood it through a teacher's explanation? By reading about it? By completing some paper and pencil exercises on the subject? In order for him to understand much at all the materials and talk would have to be in English and Spanish, but Geraldo has limited reading skills in both languages. It is unlikely that he would grasp the idea in such a way that he could transfer it to new settings. In the setting where this interaction was recorded, Geraldo had access to instructions in English, Spanish, and pictographs; he also had access to Spanish-speaking as well as English-speaking classmates, and to teachers who spoke both languages. A major advantage of combining a manipulative task with a group setting is that Geraldo has a number of helpful resources, including concrete materials to represent abstract ideas and other people engaged in the same task. He can watch them; he can ask them questions; he can discuss and argue with them; he can try to explain things; and he can demonstrate ideas nonverbally with the materials. Most importantly, Geraldo is allowed to struggle on his own, to make his own mistakes. No adult rushes in to tell him what to do and to give him a verbal explanation—such assistance might well have short-circuited his discovery.

Magnification	увеличение, усиление
lens	линза
gasp	понимать; зажимать (в руке)

SOCIAL GOALS

Social research has gathered impressive evidence to show that when people work together for group goals, there are a number of desirable effects on people's feelings for one another. When groups engage in cooperative tasks, they are more likely to form friendly ties, to trust each other, and to influence each other than when the task stimulates competition among members (Deutsch, 1968). Studies of cooperative learning in classrooms show similar results. When students were taken out of class and given a group task, those who came from classes using cooperative learning showed far more helpful and cooperative behavior—and much reduced negative or competitive behavior—than those coming from classrooms where only whole class instruction was in use (Sharan et al., 1984).

Stimulate побуждать, поощрять
evidence очевидность, доказательство

POSITIVE INTERGROUP RELATIONS

Cooperative groups and teams are particularly beneficial in developing harmonious interracial relations in desegregated classrooms. Slavin (1983) reviewed fourteen cooperative classroom experiments whose groups were ethnically and/or racially mixed. In eleven of these studies there were significantly more friendship choices across racial and ethnic lines among those students who had worked in cooperative, interracial groups than among students who had not had this opportunity. Particularly striking are the results of Slavin's team method (1983, p. 13), where interracial groups are given an overall score achieved by combining test scores of individual members of the team. In his book on cooperative learning, Slavin concludes that it is high quality positive interpersonal interaction that leads to interpersonal attraction; through interaction individuals perceive underlying similarities across racial lines (Slavin, 1983, Chapter 4). Cooperative goals or group rewards help to produce this deeper level of interaction, interaction that is not usually available in desegregated classrooms.

Sharan and his colleagues have examined how members of different ethnic groups treat each other while working together on a cooperative goal. Their comparison of techniques of cooperative learning such as Group Investigation with traditional whole class instruction shows that cooperative learning produces more cross-ethnic cooperation and less negative and competitive behavior between members of different ethnic groups (Sharan et al., 1984, pp. 73-103; Sharan & Shachar, 1988).

It is true that an instructor is more likely to produce positive intergroup relations with cooperative groups than with a competitive or individualized re-

ward system. Yet even under cooperative conditions, groups can fail to "mesh" and to achieve a unified "we" feeling. Interpersonal relations can at times be the opposite of harmonious; certain individuals can completely dominate the interaction of the group. To obtain the benefits of cooperation, it is necessary to prepare the students for the cooperative experience. Researchers and educators who work with cooperative classroom groups (including Sharan) have developed ways to train students for the experience of groupwork.

Cooperative - совместный

THE DILEMMA OF GROUPWORK

Common problems in groupwork can be illustrated by a visit to a hypothetical classroom, in this case that of Ms. Todd, who is making her first attempt at using groupwork in her class. Ms. Todd has decided that she has been doing too much of the talking in class and that students should have the opportunity for more participation. She has given her fifth grade class a group assignment in social studies based on a chapter from the textbook along with the comprehension questions provided in the teacher's manual. The class has supposedly already read this chapter. Each group has been told that they are expected to answer the questions as a group. At the end of the period each group is to hand in one set of answers that represents the group's opinion. Ms. Todd was afraid that if she tried to compose the groups, the students would be upset at being separated from their friends. Therefore she has told them that they must find a group of four with whom they would like to work.

We look in on the classroom ten minutes into the period and find the work under way: There is a constructive buzz of voices as students bend to their task. Everything appears to be going very well indeed, although as we look around we realize that the groups have segregated themselves so that they are either all boy or all girl. Wait a minute! What is going on in the group by the window? As we quietly move nearer we can see that two of the four students have their heads together over the book. One has the answer paper and the other is leafing through the chapter looking for the answer. The other two members of the group, however, are not working on this task at all. One seems to be finishing a math assignment, and the other is gazing dreamily out the window.

And look at that other group in the back of the room! Did you hear what they said? One girl just told the other that she didn't have time to read the chapter, so she won't be much help. Another is saying to the group, "Look, Susanna is the only one who gets A's in social studies, so we should only put down what she thinks. Susanna, you tell us the answers, and I'll write them down for you."

In a third group of boys over by the door, Rick Williams is acting like a regular Mr. Take-Charge. He is telling everyone where to look things up, and then when they come up with an answer, he always thinks he has a better idea. What's worse—even when his ideas are clearly wrong, the group goes along with him.

There are just three African-American students in this otherwise all-white classroom (the school is part of a small voluntary desegregation program). How are they doing in the groupwork scene? Look, two of them are not saying very much in their groups. They have the book open and look interested, but no one in the group is paying any attention to them.

And how is poor little Annie doing? No one chose Annie as a group member because she doesn't have any friends in the class. Ms. Todd whispers to us that she had to "persuade" one of the groups to accept Annie as a member and that it was embarrassing. Annie, at the moment we observe, has her head on her arms; her eyes are closed.

Now things are getting a little out of hand. In still another group two boys are just about to come to blows over what is the right answer. They don't seem so concerned over social studies as they are over who is going to be boss. These two are friends, but they fight all the time. At least they are arguing over the assignment which is better than one of the other groups of boys currently engaged in an arm-wrestling contest. That is not too surprising, considering that Jimmy is the ring-leader: Jimmy can only read at the third-grade level and just hates social studies.

"Let's have a little order in here!" pleads Ms. Todd, who has been moving is around the room and has seen what is going on. "Five more minutes," she calls out—even though the period only half over. We decide we had better leave. Ms. Todd looks uncomfortable with having visitors and she is not pleased with what is happening.

Why were the results of Ms. Todd's experiment so dismaying? This classroom scene raises many issues about what goes on inside small groups. Why do the students allow one member of the group to do all the work and make all the decisions? It makes some sense in Susanna's case, because she really is a top notch student, but look at Rick's group. They are going along with Rick's ideas even when they must know he is wrong—he just talks more loudly than the others. In the cases of Rick and Jimmy (the classroom troublemaker and the school-yard hero), the two students who are arguing foolishly just to see whose opinion will carry the day, and unpopular little Annie, it is almost as if the pecking order of student play and friendship groups has invaded the classroom groups. And why aren't the students nicer to each other? Why aren't they aware of how those two African-American students must feel about having no chance to talk? And why don't they see that Annie is on the verge of tears?

One thing is clear: The teacher who has no more tools for the planning of groupwork than an initial attraction to an idea of groupwork as a democratic and creative setting for learning is likely to run into trouble in trying out the new methods. Although the results are unlikely to be as consistently disappointing as in Ms. Todd's class, careful observation of any class working under her form of grouping and task instruction will reveal patterns of undesirable domination on the part of some students and nonparticipation and withdrawal on the part of others. In addition, there appear to be both disciplinary and motivational problems that are not

characteristic of Ms. Todd's class when she uses her more traditional methods of whole class presentation or well-supervised seatwork.

Some of these disciplinary and motivational problems are closely related to our initial observations of domination and lack of participation. Some are related to Ms. Todd's failure to select and define a more suitable task for the groupwork setting and her failure to prepare the students in the skills they will need for groupwork. This chapter focuses on the problems of unequal participation and undesirable domination of groups by certain students.

Let us imagine that Ms. Todd persists beyond the first trial and in her second attempt tries to compose groups so that students of more similar abilities are placed together. She reasons that one student who gets much better grades won't take over and do all the work. Furthermore, this arrangement has the added advantage of separating friends who play rather than work, spares her the problem of Annie the social isolate, and desegregates the sexes.

As she walks around the room and listens carefully to what is happening in each group, she finds that although the discipline problem is much improved, in most of her groups one student is doing far more talking and deciding than anyone else, and at least one student is saying practically nothing. Again two of the three African-American students are quiet members of their respective groups. In at least one of the groups she observes, there is a real struggle going on as to whose opinion will be adopted by the group. Their talk is not an intellectual discussion about the meaning of the chapter but an interpersonal conflict over who is going to be the leader of the group.

What is the matter? Are the students just too immature to work in groups? The problem is not one of immaturity: Adults working in small groups will also exhibit problems of dominance—they will struggle over leadership in a group and will participate unequally.

Hypothetical	предположительный	exhibit	показывать, выставлять
persist	упорствовать; сохраняться	immature	незрелый

EXPECTATIONS AND THE SELF-FULFILLING PROPHECY

Basic to our understanding of the way in which the process operates is the idea of a *status characteristic*. A status characteristic is an agreed-upon social ranking where everyone feels it is better to have a high rank than a low rank. Examples of status characteristics are race, social class, sex, reading ability, and attractiveness.

Attached to these status characteristics are general expectations for competence. High status individuals are expected to be more competent than low status individuals across a wide range of tasks that are viewed as important.

When a teacher assigns a task to a group of students, some of whom are higher and some lower on any of the status characteristics described above, these general expectations come into play. They cause a kind of self-fulfilling prophecy to take place in which those who are higher status come to hold a high rank in the status order that emerges from the group interaction. Those who hold lower status come to hold a low rank on that same status order.

From the start of the group's interaction, high status students are expected to be more competent at the new assignment; moreover, these students also expect themselves to be more competent. This is due to the operation of general expectations for competence. Thus they are very likely to start participating right away.

Low status students who are not expected to make an important contribution and who share the group's evaluation of themselves are unlikely to say much of anything. As high status students continue to talk, others tend to address their remarks to them, and one of them rapidly becomes the most influential person in the group. By the end of the interaction, this person is likely to be viewed by group members as having made the most important contribution to the group's performance. Thus the status order that emerges from the group assignment is very much like the initial differences in status with which the group started.

Returning to *Shoot the Moon* for a moment, when interracial groups knew nothing about each other beyond the fact that they were of different races, whites were more likely to be active and influential than African-Americans (Cohen, 1972). In this case, the group used race as a basis for forming expectations for competence in the game. Since in our culture people of color are generally expected to be less competent on intellectual tasks than whites, these racist expectations came into play in the innocent game of *Shoot the Moon*. Once this had happened, it was very likely that the whites would talk more and become more influential in group decision making than the African-Americans.

In accordance with Expectations States Theory (Berger, Rosenholtz, & Zelditch, 1980) the same thing happened in the Rosenholtz groups playing *Shoot the Moon*. Here the students used information they had about each other's standing on the academic status characteristic of reading ability to organize their expectations for competence on the new game of *Shoot the Moon*. Group interaction turned out to mirror initial differences in reading ability.

In the classes that Rosenholtz studied, peer status was closely related to academic status so that those students who were seen as influential in the informal social relations between classmates tended to be the same students who were seen as best in schoolwork. In other classrooms, students like Jimmy in Ms. Todd's class will have high peer status but low academic status.] Students with high peer status will have the same effect on a classroom group as students with high academic status; in either case they are likely to be more active and influential than students with either low peer status (like Annie) or low academic status.

A note of caution is necessary. The operation of expectations based on status does not result in the domination by high status children of every group in the class-

room. Although research finds that, on the whole, high status persons are more active and influential than low status persons, in the case of particular groups, some low status members are more influential than high status members. There are two other factors that help to account for what happens in a particular task group. These are the nature of the task, and who participates frequently at the beginning of the session.

Studies of small-group interaction almost always conclude that some of the patterns of behavior observed are a function of the peculiarities of the task that has been selected. The same holds true of classrooms. Suppose that you introduce a science task in which the group is asked to do observations of a live meal worm. Some students will be fascinated with touching and holding the worm, while others will be squeamish. Those who are fascinated are likely to be more active and influential than those who are squeamish. This ordering of behavior is linked to the peculiar nature of this task and may have nothing to do with the standing of the students on any of the status characteristics we have discussed. The nature of the task can also affect the total amount of interaction in the group. Some classroom tasks are intrinsically interesting and provoke a high level of interaction while others are boring and produce only desultory talk. Still other classroom tasks may be carried out nonverbally by manipulating the material or by communicating through writing. Such tasks will have a low level of verbal interaction, but a high level of other kinds of communication.

In addition to differences stemming from the nature of the task, studies of groups show that members who start talking right away, regardless of their status, are likely to become influential. Suppose Annie had been given the task of handing out the materials to the group. She might have had an advance look at these materials and so might have been able to explain what was to be done with them. Just such an event can change what happens in a particular group quite radically. Because the group would need to turn to her from the beginning to find out more about the materials, Annie might have become quite active in that particular group.

Expectation	ожидание, надежда, вероятность	competence	способность, компетентность
prophecy	пророчество	caution	(пред) осторожность;
Initial	(перво) начальный		предостерегать
influential	влиятельный	squeamish	шепетильный; болезненный

PREPARING STUDENTS FOR COOPERATION

The first step in introducing groupwork to the classroom is to prepare students for cooperative work situations. It is a great mistake to assume that children (or adults) know how to work with each other in a constructive collegial fashion. The chances are that they have not had previous successful experience in cooperative tasks working with people who are not personal friends or family members. Although many students have had some contact with cooperative learning, often they were given no preparation for that experience.

Students must be prepared for cooperation so that they know how to behave in the groupwork situation without direct supervision. It is necessary to introduce new cooperative behaviors in a training program. The goal of the training program is the construction of new *norms* or rules for how one ought to behave. Sometimes norms are written rules, and sometimes they are unspoken expectations for behavior.

When an individual comes to feel that he or she ought to behave in this new way, the norm has become *internalized*. Internalized norms produce not only the desired behavior but a willingness to enforce rules within the group. In cooperative learning settings, even very young students can be heard lecturing other members of the group on how they ought to be behaving.

Teachers have far more power than they realize in constructing new norms for classroom behavior. The beginning teacher is often told, "Be even stricter on the first day than you will actually be later on." The teacher is setting the norms for this particular classroom and is informing the students that regardless of what they may have "gotten away with" in someone else's classroom, the written and unwritten rules for this classroom are different and will be enforced.

The norms of traditional classrooms include: Do your own work; don't pay attention to what other students are doing; never give or ask for advice from a fellow student while doing an assignment in class; pay attention to what the teacher is saying and doing and not to anything else; keep your eyes toward the front of the room and be quiet. When dealing with younger students, teachers constantly reinforce these norms through repetition, reward, and punishment. By the time students are in high school, norms have become internalized to such an extent that compliant students are quite unconscious of why they behave in class the way they do.

Assigning group tasks involves a major change in traditional classroom norms. Now the student is asked to depend on other students. Now students are responsible not only for their own behavior but for group behavior and for the product of group efforts. Instead of listening to the teacher, they are asked to listen to other students. In order for the group to work smoothly, they must learn to ask for other people's opinions, to give other people a chance to talk, and to make brief, sensible contributions to the group effort. These are examples of new norms that are useful to teach before starting groupwork..

Studies of groups with no special preparation for cooperative learning suggest that if students are not taught differently, they will talk about specific procedures and will not discuss ideas or articulate their own thinking (Webb, Ender, & Lewis, 1986). If teachers want more articulate and abstract discourse, the students will need to be taught specific skills for discussion and for dealing with each other. These are not an automatic consequence of cooperative learning. Many students have no strategies for dealing with disagreement and conflict other than physical or verbal assault.

Teachers, particularly in secondary schools, feel so much pressure to cover curriculum that they do not want to take time to prepare students for cooperation. This is not a wise decision: In the long run more time is lost through disorganized group behavior than would be spent on advance training.

Compliant	угодливый; податливый	Smooth	ровный, гладкий, успокаивать,
behave	вести себя, поступать		улаживать
sensible	разумный, рассудительный; осознающий	punish-ment	наказание

TRAINING FOR COOPERATION

Students need to understand your purposes in introducing small groups and why groupwork skills are important. I was amazed to discover that some children in the sixth grade do not realize that adult life calls for working with people who are not close friends. Students in one class felt that the instructors were trying to force them to be friends with classmates assigned to their group. When they were told that in the work world many important tasks are accomplished in small groups of people who are not personal friends such as research teams, fire-fighting personnel, nursing teams, committees, and construction crews, they were still doubtful. We then requested that they ask their parents if this was how adults worked. When their parents concurred, students were willing to accept membership in groups composed by the teacher.

Preparing students for cooperative groups requires you to decide which norms and which skills will be needed for the groupwork setting you have in mind. These norms and skills are best taught through exercises and games, referred to as "skill-builders." People rarely learn new behaviors or convictions about how one ought to behave through lectures or general group discussion alone.

One note of caution about the skillbuilders: Don't judge their suitability for your class by whether or not they seem too easy for your students. The point of the activities is to learn how to work together. The tasks themselves are just a vehicle for new skills and norms, not an end in themselves. They should not be too complex; otherwise students will be distracted from group processes and will become too involved in the activity for its own sake. In each case, the key

to learning lies in the combination of the experience and the discussion that follows. The teacher must assist the class in reflecting on important features of what has happened and in developing key insights about the relevance of this experience to the forthcoming groupwork.

Discover	открывать, обнаруживать	reflect	отражать
concur	совпадать, соглашаться, содействовать	relevance	уместность
complex	сложный, составной	forth come	приближаться, наступать

COOPERATION AND ANTI-SOCIAL BEHAVIOR

Vigorous disagreement about how to solve a problem, or about the social issues under discussion, is one of the positive features of cooperative learning and should be encouraged. Students learn as a result of being exposed to conflicting views; they are forced to justify their own views and come to the realization that there is often more than one legitimate perspective on a problem.

However, some students do not know how to handle disagreement. They may engage in personal attacks or "put downs," they may even hit each other, or they may get up and walk away from the group, feeling that their ideas have been rejected. Teachers are understandably distressed. How can students proceed with the content of the cooperative learning lesson if they have so few strategies for working together? Such behavior may be common in classes where there are many students who have had little experience with negotiation and much experience with verbal and physical violence.

Other common problems, particularly with students in the middle school, are physical and social rejection of some members of the group. They may quite directly say that they don't want a particular student in their group; or they may indicate their rejection with body language. The student may be barred from the materials with elbows and turned backs. Rejection may take the form of nonresponse to any of that person's contributions. The group may act as if he or she were invisible.

Diane Kepner is a teacher who has been trained in conflict resolution (Kreidler, 1984; Rosenberg, 1983); she applies work from this field to anti-social behavior within cooperative groups in her seventh grade classroom. Central to her interventions is the observation that conflict escalates with a cycle of blaming: "He told me my ideas stink"; "He called me a bad name"; "She told me to sit down and shut up"; and on up to "He pushed me first." If students learn to translate these blaming statements into "I feel" statements in which they express honestly how they felt in response to the other person's statement or behavior, it has a remarkable way of defusing the conflict. For example, a student

might say, "When you told me that my ideas stunk, I felt like no one in this group wanted to hear anything I had to say— ever again." This provides a natural opening for the other person to explain more carefully the basis for their negative evaluation of the first person's ideas, and the path is opened to normal conversation once more.

Since this is not a "natural" way for most people to talk, it is necessary to give students the chance to practice translating blaming statements into "I feel" statements. Kepner also trains her students to follow the "I feel" statement with a positive request such as "I want you to wait until I finish before you start talking" instead of the negative statement "Stop interrupting me." Positive requests should be specific and constructive rather than vague and negative in requests for changed behavior in others. She has created specific examples of troublesome behavior in small groups so that students can practice "I feel" statements and positive requests.

Once students have mastered these concepts, Kepner is able to intervene in conflict situations, asking students to think about how they might replay what has happened in the group using alternative ways to express distress and disagreement. When members can talk to each other in a more constructive way, they are often able to move ahead with the groupwork. Kepner cautions that these interventions will not work if the source of the conflict is some serious difficulty between students that is of long standing, or is a product of an acute conflict that is currently taking place in the school. If students cannot put this antagonism aside in order to work together in the classroom, she changes the composition in the group, or in the case of such serious problems as gang conflicts, she may send students out for counseling with school staff.

It is not only what people say to each other that causes so much harm; it is also their body language that signals rejection, dislike, and anger. Many students are not aware that they are sending messages with their bodies. Kepner advises talking with students about what an important form of communication this is. Body language includes facial expressions, posture, and gestures. She explains that messages that are received may be misunderstood, and that a complaint of "She's giving me looks" may have no actual basis in hostility. She then divides the students into groups and tells them they are going to be given a situation to act out with only a minimum of talking. The rest of the class must then determine what the message is through the interpretation of their body language.

Kepner has selected the following situations, as examples from her experience, of what often goes wrong among students in groups:

- Two members sit beside each other and hold the book or the information card so that the other members of the groups cannot see them;
- Two group members sit across from each other and form a wedge to exclude a third member as they write and talk about their project;
- Group members actively discuss while one member withdraws;

- During a discussion group members show by facial expressions and other movements that one member's contributions are never accepted;
- As one member joins the group, another member shows that he or she wants nothing to do with this person;
- During a presentation to the class, one person shows that she or he does not want to be associated with the rest;
- During preparation for a skit, one member of the group is treated as if he or she cannot do anything right.

To follow up this exercise, Kepner observes groups in operation. Upon spotting one of these nonverbal problems, she says to the group, "Take a look at yourselves and how you are sitting and working. What are you communicating to each other?" She then leaves it to the group to figure out what is wrong and how to correct the problem.

Vigorous	сильный, энергичный	rejection	отказ
realization	осуществление, выполнение	invisible	невидимый, незаметный
legitimate	законный, правильный, допустимый	blame	обвинять
handle	обсуждать; управлять	escalate	обострять (конфликт), ввергать
violence	насилие	work-sheet	

MANAGEMENT OF CONFLICT

Disagreement about ideas is a healthy sign during groupwork as long as intellectual disagreement does not degenerate into sharp interpersonal conflict. Some interpersonal conflict is inevitable and should not be taken as a sign of failure. Nor should it be an opportunity for you to intervene and take over the reins immediately, acting as arbiter, juror, and judge.

What can you do? Ask the group what seems to be the difficulty. Then ask them to think of some alternative strategies for handling the conflict. If you have prepared your class with strategies for conflict resolution, they will be able to envision alternative ways to behave. If you have really delegated authority, then the group should take responsibility for solving its interpersonal problems. Even younger students are able to develop workable strategies for managing conflict when challenged to do so and when the teacher persists in demanding that they talk things through until they find a solution.

If the problem is due to a volatile combination of students, make a note not to put that combination together again. Changing the composition of groups on

a regular basis and rotation of roles will help to defuse interpersonal problems so that the conflict does not become chronic. If, however, you think you are seeing the same problem in a number of groups, there may be a difficulty with the way you have prepared the students and/or the nature of the task. Take the time to have a whole class discussion during wrap-up and see if you can locate the general problem. Be prepared to make adjustments in your task, to do some retraining and reinforcing of rules and roles, or to develop some strategies with the class as a whole that will solve the problem.

Degenerate	вырождаться, ухудшаться	volatile	непостоянный, изменчивый
arbiter	арбитр, судья	retraining	переподготовка
authority	власть, управление		

WORKING AS A TEAM

One of the most gratifying experiences for a teacher is to plan and carry out groupwork designs with a trusted colleague. Just as students use each other as resources in groupwork, teachers can do the same. With the joint wealth of past experience as to what tasks work well with students and as to how instructions can be made clear, teachers can be highly creative as they work together. They can also provide honest and constructive feedback as ideas develop.

When instruction is complex, as is the case with groupwork, having teachers work together means that they are able to be of great assistance to each other while the class is operating. Perhaps one teacher can stop to work with a group needing intervention, while another keeps an eye on the classroom as a whole; One teacher can prepare the orientation while another can do the wrap-up. The labor of preparing complex materials for learning stations can also be divided.

Another advantage of a colleague is the benefit that accrues when two or more teachers hold formal, scheduled meetings. In these meetings (even if they are as short as twenty minutes) one has a chance to consider various problems that have come up, to raise possible alternatives, to choose one, and to talk once more in the next meeting about how good or bad the decision was. This kind of thoughtful and evaluative decision making is very difficult to carry out all by oneself. Teachers who hold regular team meetings are better able to implement complex and sophisticated instruction than those who rely on brief huddles just before and during class (Intili, 1977; Cohen & Intili, 1982).

The last major advantage of working with a colleague lies in having someone to make an observation and systematic evaluation of your groupwork in progress. It is almost impossible to run groupwork and evaluate what is happening at the same time. Chapter 9 includes a number of simple techniques for a colleague to use in helping to evaluate your groupwork. Even beginning teach-

ers can provide helpful feedback using these techniques. And you can return the favor by observing in your colleague's classroom.

Gratify	удовлетворять	schedule	расписание; составлять расписание
advantage	преимущество	sophisticated	сложный; искушенный

TREATING EXPECTATIONS FOR COMPETENCE

It is time now to return to the dilemma of groupwork. What have we done about the problem of high status students dominating interaction and of low status students withdrawing from the group? There is an even more fundamental question: Have we done anything to change low expectations for competence, the underlying cause of nonparticipation by low status students?

Recall that high status students are generally expected to do well on new intellectual tasks and low status students are generally expected to do poorly on these same tasks. When the teacher assigns a groupwork task, general expectations come into play and produce a self-fulfilling prophecy in which the high status students talk more and become more influential than the low status students. The net result of the interaction is that the low status students are once again seen as incompetent. This occurs even if groups are given a rich new task that does not stress ordinary academic skills.

Two strategies will have some impact on this problem: (1) establishing cooperative norms such as "everyone participates" and "everyone helps"; and (2) giving every student a part or role to play. Both of these strategies will raise participation rates of both low and high status students and will prevent high status students from doing all the talking. Furthermore, low status students, just by talking and working together, will improve their performance.

Doesn't that take care of the whole status problem? Not exactly—nothing has happened to change expectations for competence. Imagine a well-trained group with different students playing different roles; the low status students are doing just as much talking, on the average, as the high status students. Nevertheless, members of the group still think of the low status student as having fewer and poorer ideas than the high status students. The low status students may be active, but they are still less influential and less active than the high status students. And the low status students still feel that their contributions to the group are less valuable and less competent than the contributions of the high status students. Furthermore, in moving from the successful group experience to other groupwork tasks, there is no improvement in expectations for competence.

In order to produce active behavior in low status student that will be per-

ceived as competent, and in order to produce expectations for competence that will transfer to other tasks something must be done to change the nature of those expectations for competence. They are too uniform, and too consistently negative. It is necessary to create some positive expectations for intellectual competence that will combine with the preexisting set of negative expectations.

If you are successful in attacking the problem of consistently low expectations, students who have been unsuccessful in your classroom can acquire a sense of competence that will be acknowledged by their classmates. As you proceed to different groupwork tasks, students can expect themselves and can be expected by classmates to make good contributions to each new assignment.

Valuable
competence
consistently

ценный, полезный
способность, компетенция
согласно; последовательно

GLOSSARY

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