



МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ
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1 семестр

Зачёт.

1. Чтение и аннотирование двух статей на выбор по разным типам мобильности современного профессионала.

Articles on different types of mobility (1-27)

1. Job mobility We believe that job mobility makes an essential contribution to the professional growth of people. Mobility is thus one of the pillars of a human resources policy. For employees, job mobility is a source of professional and personal fulfillment, an opportunity to develop new skills, broaden experience and cultivate professional networks. Job mobility is an important driver for career advancement. Curiosity, an open mind and a strong desire to progress are decisive to successful job changes. While people play the lead role in their professional development, the success of a new assignment is the fruit of a collaborative effort involving the employee, his or her manager, and Human Resources. A distinction is made between *horizontal* and *vertical* social mobility. The former refers to change of occupational position or role of an individual or a group without involving any change in its position in the social hierarchy, the latter refers essentially to changes in the position of an individual or a group along the social hierarchy or to any movement up or down a hierarchy of any kind. When a rural laborer comes to the city and becomes an industrial worker or a manager takes a position in another company there are no significant changes in their position in the hierarchy. Those are the examples of horizontal mobility. Horizontal mobility is a change in position without the change in status. It indicates a change in position within the range of the same status. It is a movement from one status to its equivalent. But if an industrial worker becomes a businessman or lawyer he has radically changed his position in the stratification system. This is an example of vertical mobility. Vertical mobility refers to a movement of an individual or people or groups from one status to another. It involves change within the lifetime of an individual to a higher or lower status than the person had to begin with.

2. Contest mobility refers to system of social mobility in which all individuals are seen as participants in a race where elite status is the end goal and the contest is an open one. The idea is also sometimes referred to as *tournament* mobility. This serves in opposition to *sponsored* mobility, in which controlled selection is prevalent. In a system of contest mobility, equal footing among individuals is assumed as a given. Achievement is attributed directly to the effort put in by each contestant. Skill is not as valued as enterprise or perseverance; a person of average intelligence who works hard is seen as more

deserving a reward than someone who is the most intelligent and does not try. "...the governing objective of contest mobility is to give elite status to those who earn it... Under the contest system society at large establishes and interprets the criteria of elite status."

These criteria are most commonly in the form of credentials, which are used by others to identify an individual's class. Examples of these can be material assets or skills.

Social control in a system of contest mobility is established by emphasizing a futuristic way of thinking and encouraging individuals to remember that they are competing for upward social mobility. In doing this, social norms are cultivated and emphasized as well. Also, elite control is perilous, because any individual can be displaced at any time. Looking past education to the realm of the working world, job success has also been studied in terms of contest vs. sponsored mobility; as for mobility in the workplace, contest mobility is shown to emphasize equity and productivity, and individuals who show originality and innovation are rewarded.

3. Apprentices' mobility is the movement of students and teachers in Vocational education or training (VET) to another institution inside or outside their own country to study or teach for a limited time. The term is usually used in the context of European Union (EU) policy. Under the EU Lisbon agenda attempts have been made to lower cultural, socioeconomical and academic barriers to mobility. Mobile learners are usually divided into two groups: *free-movers* are learners who travel entirely on their own initiative, while *program students* use exchange programs at department, faculty, institution or national level (such as Leonardo da Vinci II). The practice of going abroad to learn has been denoted by different terms in different contexts over the years, such as "*exchange*" or "*transnational mobility*". For the specific practice of sending people abroad on placements in public and private enterprise, the more neutral term of "*placements abroad*" has been preferred. Many different practices use the term "placement" as a denominator for their activities, and some form of definition is necessary to distinguish between these, and to mark it off from ordinary employment abroad as well as other forms of transnational mobility. Placements may be set up by an organizer who has made the necessary arrangements for a placement, defined the intended learning outcome, and thought out the pedagogic implications. Placements may also be self-organized by the participant. When a student organizes a work stay in another country during holidays or a study break, this may or may not qualify as a placement according to the criterion of intent. If the purpose is to acquire vocational skills and/or improve language and intercultural skills in general, it should be seen as a placement, and count it as such, rather than a holiday job. It may be inscribed in an educational context through accreditation of prior experiential learning (APEL), if the organization can be convinced that the person in question has sought out learning situations during the stay rather than just focused on having a good time or earning as much money as possible. Other activities in this borderline category are *au pair* placements and voluntary work in charitable institutions and organizations, e.g. as financed under the European Voluntary Service. The practice of some companies to send employees abroad in foreign subsidiaries for a period of time in order to acquire specific competences may also be considered under this label. It should be distinguished from employment abroad in general, which is another matter. The line is blurred, and different definitions may collide here. Any labour market activity where the participant draws some kind of wages or salary is juridically considered as employment. But payment is not necessarily a way of distinguishing between placements and proper jobs; placements may be paid or unpaid, even though the learning role of participants is often signified by the fact that they receive no – or a considerably reduced – payment.

4. Criteria for defining placements abroad in VET: Criteria have been established to define what a work placement is, in order to differentiate it from other activities. A placement

- is carried out in an authentic work environment. The placement period is not an artificially created situation, where the central feature is the learning of the participant. The most important thing here is continuing production, and learning is placed second or third or even lower down on the scale of priorities;
- implies involvement in concrete work processes. The participants are not merely onlookers to the activities, but are given an active role; is for a limited time. Placements are planned and carried out as a period abroad that is set in a (national) learning context – i.e. surrounded by this on both sides.

They are not open-ended. Duration, however, may vary considerably, from two weeks to two years. To this we may add other features, which we should term characteristics rather than criteria, since they need not always be applicable. A placement thus as a rule: demands professional experience as the

“entry ticket”. Workplaces where it is possible to become integrated in work processes immediately without any prior training or experience are few and far between. Therefore participation in most placement projects is contingent upon either a wholly or partly completed training course or solid practical experience; is not under the supervision of trained pedagogical staff. Contrary to a school environment or youth exchanges, there are usually no pedagogically trained staff (teachers) or experienced youth leaders around to offer guidance and practical support during the placement period. Mentors may be appointed, but the supervision of the participants is only a secondary task for them; does not take place among peer groups. In school stays or youth exchanges, the participants will often be surrounded by people in the same age bracket and societal position who are in a similar life situation. At the workplace, however, there is a broad spectrum of colleagues, who are largely in a different position from the participant and have different dreams, expectations and interests. Some activities are excluded from the definition.

5. “Work camps” organized to improve intercultural understanding bring together young people from many countries to accomplish a practical task such as building a playground, or restoring a building to be used by the local community. However, the work situation is an artificially created one, there are trained supervisors present, and the group is composed of young people in the same age bracket. Study visits are also excluded: even though they may be in authentic work environments, the participants are merely engaged as onlookers. A definition of the term “placement abroad” is “a shorter or longer period spent abroad in a public or private enterprise, which has been consciously organized for learning purposes, which implies active involvement in concrete work processes, and which can be paid or unpaid”. The phenomenon is often associated with past and present programs of the European Commission. These have grant-aided placements abroad, represent the largest single programs and initiatives, and provide the best statistical material. Currently, the Leonardo da Vinci program is much in evidence in discussions on mobility in VET for exactly these reasons. The practice goes well beyond these programs, however, and encompasses also programs and initiatives at a binational, national and regional level, as well as the activities of organizations and individuals, which are undertaken without any recourse to program funding.

6. Benefits: Placements abroad can be a pedagogical exercise. Mobility in a context of education and training differs substantially from other types of mobility in that it is primarily a pedagogical exercise: it is a tool used to produce certain kinds of learning of an affective and/or cognitive nature in the participant.

Placements abroad can be a means for achieving intercultural understanding, learning how to live peacefully together in Europe and in the world and develop a sense of “European Citizenship” as opposed to a strictly nationalist outlook. Placements abroad can be a method for acquiring “new basic skills” and developing “employability.” The world has changed fundamentally in the last decade. The world is flattening. We can focus on the many differences between apprentices and placements in Europe. And we can continue to question the importance of experience abroad for apprentices and other young people in IVET, who often work in small and medium sized enterprises with a regional focus. However the reality is that experience of mobility provides apprentices and IVET students with particular competences over and above those obtained from the vocational curriculum including communicative, social, meaning-related and change-related skills.

7. These critical competences benefit the individual apprentice and IVET student personally and they are also likely to make them more employable. Within this discourse, the rationale for the activity lies in the use of placements abroad as a didactic tool to equip participants with so called “key skills” that enable them to cope with the constant changes in occupational profiles, work organization and career paths arising as a consequence of globalization and technological change. This corresponds to a focus on education and training as a motor for economic growth, and the aims of the Lisbon-declaration concerning the creation of a “Europe of knowledge”. Placements abroad can be an activity linked to internationalization of education and training in Europe. In this case they are the response of national educational systems to the perceived negative effects of globalization. At the level of the individual, it enables the future workforce to acquire foreign language skills and intercultural skills so that they can deal with increased foreign contacts at the workplace. At systemic level, it allows national educational systems to fill in temporary gaps in training provision by sending trainees abroad to where such opportunities exist. Increasingly, employees from all levels need to be able to operate in an environment that deals with international customers and suppliers. Those companies and sectors that earn their

money abroad or work with foreign suppliers are more likely to be engaged in mobility. Although right now less than 50% of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) are internationalized, figures by the World Trade Organization, show that more and more economies are dependent on external and foreign trade. It is likely that this will increase the pressure on employers to hire people with a “worldly mindset”. In the best tradition of “Master craftsmen” who only got their credentials after having been abroad, sectors can use this changing environment to train their future employees. To facilitate knowledge-transfer between sectors, economies and generations, education should continue to play its role here. Placements abroad can be a method for promoting the free movement of workers in Europe. In this case they are concerned with learning how to live and work in another country, how to become a “migrant worker” willing and able to move across borders and thereby allay skills shortages in other Member States.

8. The rationales for mobility may differ for each actor. At EU level, several reasons for stimulating mobility are mentioned, i.e. more mobility between regions and jobs represents an essential part of the Lisbon Agenda, mobility is a tool for acquiring language skills and mobility contributes to increasing stability and peace of the EU. More exposure to other countries leads to increased intercultural awareness and good feelings about host nation/culture. Mobility implies acquiring international skills, which become increasingly important with the liberalization of trade and commerce. For individuals, mobility implies developing personal skills and competencies. For vocational schools and training centers hosting students and apprentices and other young people in IVET from abroad creates an international atmosphere that brings benefits for the whole institution (e.g. inspiration of other students, learning language). Transnational mobility projects can serve as a launch pad for transnational partnerships and for a proactive internationalization strategy and policy. For employers, reasons for engaging in mobility can be a faster diffusion and acquisition of knowledge and skills.

9. Benefits for stakeholders:

employers :

- Mobility is a means to address both short-term and long-term shortages in skills.
- Greater use of mobile workers and trainees is an important measure to cope with recruitment difficulties. In the long run, companies can include recruitment for young people in their human resource policies.
- While time for adaptation to key technologies is becoming shorter, the mobility of employees can facilitate a fast diffusion of knowledge.
- Hiring of trainees implies low costs. The risk of hiring trainees for the sole purpose of lowering the labour costs needs to be mitigated by some forms of control and accreditation by the education system.
- *Benefits for individuals*
- Mobility implies acquiring of international skills, what becomes increasingly important with the liberalization of trade and commerce.
- Mobility implies developing of personal skills and competencies such as change-related, relational, learning-related, and meaning-related skills.
- *Benefits for vocational schools and training centers*
- Hosting students and apprentices from abroad creates an international atmosphere that brings benefit for the whole institution (e.g. inspiration of other students, learning language).
- VET-institutions have the possibility to benchmark their course contents and pedagogic practices.
- Involvement of a VET-institution in mobility activities makes it attractive for students in comparison with other ‘not-towards-mobility-oriented’ institutions.
- Transnational mobility projects can serve as a launch pad for transnational partnerships and for a proactive internationalization strategy and policy.
- The role of VET-institutions is gradually changing from a traditional ‘school’ towards a regional knowledge centre. There is a need to reflect internationalization in their array of competences and skills.
- Mobility projects might imply income-generating activities.

10. Economic mobility is the ability of an individual, family or some other group to improve (or lower) their economic status - usually measured in income. Economic mobility is often measured by movement

between income quintiles. Economic mobility may be considered a type of social mobility, which is often measured in change in income.

Types: Mobility may be between generations (“inter-generational”) or within a person or groups lifetime (“intra-generational”). It may be “absolute” or “relative”.

Inter-generational mobility compares a person’s (or group’s) income to that of her/his/their parents.

Intra-generational mobility, in contrast, refers to movement up or down over the course of a working career. **Absolute** mobility involves widespread economic growth and answers the question “To what extent do families improve their incomes over a generation?” **Relative** mobility is specific to individuals or groups and occurs without relation to the economy as a whole. It answers the question, “How closely are the economic fortunes of children tied to that of their parents?” Relative mobility is a zero-sum game, absolute is not.

11. Labour power and labour market flexibilisation: The commercial value of human labour power is strongly linked to the assertion of human needs by workers as citizens. It is not simply a question of supply and demand here, but of human needs which must be met. Therefore labour costs have never been simply an economic or commercial matter, but also a moral, cultural and political issue. In turn, this has meant that governments have typically strongly regulated the sale of labour power with laws and rules for labour contracts. These laws and rules affect e.g. the minimum wage, wage bargaining, the operation of trade unions, the obligations of employers in respect of employees, hiring and firing procedures, labour taxes, and unemployment benefits.

This has led to repeated criticism from employers that labour markets are overregulated, and that the costs and obligations of hiring labour weigh too heavily on employers. Moreover, it is argued that over-regulation prevents the free movement of labour to where it is really necessary. If labour markets were deregulated by removing excessive legal restrictions, it is argued that costs to business would be reduced and more labour could be hired, thereby increasing employment opportunities and economic growth. However, trade union representatives often argue that the real effect of deregulation is to reduce wages and conditions for workers, with the effect of reducing market demand for products. In turn, the effect would be slower economic growth and a decline in living standards, with increased casualisation of labour and more “contingent labour”. It is argued that, because the positions of employees and employers in the market are unequal (it is usually easier for an employer to lose an employee than an employee to lose an employer), employees must be legally protected against undue exploitation.

12. Otherwise employers will simply hire workers as and when it suits them, without regard for their needs as citizens. A further twist in some countries is that unions are part of the political establishment, and not interested in collecting complaints and suggestions from individual employees, employing staff in proportion to dues received, backing employees’ legal cases, or rocking the boat in their public statements. For example, in China some workers are in prison for criticizing the official unions. Often the demand for “labour market flexibility” is combined with the demand for strong immigration controls, to block any movement of labour which would be only a burden for capital accumulation. The term “flexibility” is used because, while capital must be able to move freely around the globe, the movement of labour must be strictly controlled. If that control does not exist, it is argued, it could mean additional costs to employers and taxpayers.

13. Geographic mobility is the measure of how populations move over time. *Geographic mobility*, *population mobility*, or more simply *mobility* is also a statistic that measures migration within a population. Commonly used in demography and human geography, it may also be used to describe the movement of animals between populations. These moves can be as large scale as international migrations or as small as regional commuting arrangements. Geographic mobility has a large impact on many sociological factors in a community and is a current topic of academic research. It varies between different regions depending on both formal policies and established social norms, and has different effects and responses in different societies. Population mobility has implications ranging from administrative changes in government and impacts on local economic growth to housing markets and demand for regional services.

Geographic mobility data is available from census and public government records in the United States, The European Union, The People’s Republic of China and many other countries.

Population turnover is a related statistic that measures gross moves in relation to the size of the population, for example movement of residents into and out of a geographic location between censuses counts.

14. Influencing factors

Economic reasons – Most theoretical models attribute the desire to relocate to the impact of wages and employment on personal expected earnings. The prospect of gainful employment in another region leads to movement to capitalize on new opportunities and/or resources unavailable in the original community. Perceptions, gaps in prospective incomes, availability of accurate information, and geographic distance all play a part in the decision to migrate. Studies have shown that unemployment rates statistically correlate to measured migrations in the EU (a relatively mobile society). Further, there is evidence that comparable statistical results can be obtained using labor availability interchangeably with population migration data.

Surveys show potential movers also face anxiety about the prospects of actually finding a suitable job in their new location. The capacity to migrate depends on current income or access to credit to support the move, and is always up to chance. Economists have shown that the decline in home values in the US in the late 2000s diminished state-to-state migration, with roughly 110,000 to 150,000 fewer individuals migrating across state lines in any given year. Socialized unemployment insurance programs help to increase individual liquidity and lessen the burden of search costs and movement risk. Research has shown that overall the presence of social insurance does not have a strong effect on the rate of personal movement because while it lowers relative movement costs, it also increases the opportunity costs of movement. Current international laws present challenges to ideal geographic mobility. Migrants must have a physical means (legal or illegal) over which to travel to a new country. An increase in individual income was shown to increase access to long distance transportation and enable individuals more freedom of travel. Seeking a job in another country often requires sponsorship, visas, or may not even be possible in a given situation. Government support is in no way guaranteed for international geographic mobility. Existing language and cultural barriers also severely hamper geographic mobility on both regional and national levels.

15. Personal preferences – Personal preference factors besides economic logic can exert a strong influence on an individual's geographic mobility. Concerns such as climate, the strength of regional housing markets, cultural comfort, family, and local social capital all play into the decision to move or not. Individualization of the job market in industrializing countries has led to an increased preference among workers to follow market opportunities. Media driven self-awareness and highly individualistic symbolism exported from the western world have allowed people to imagine themselves living completely different lifestyles. Western media glamorizes the image of the self-sufficient youth, showing examples of both men and women who lead strong, individualistic, empowered lifestyles. Globalization has destabilized previously immutable social institutions, shifting cultural value away from old traditions to new more individualist and market friendly ideas. This combined with a privatization and individualization of labor has in many ways made fluidity more the norm than structure. The availability of geographic mobility can also directly affect an individual's selfempowerment. Large numbers of women in South Korea, Japan, and China are taking advantage of newly available travel opportunities: experiencing life overseas and touring or studying. In South Korea progressive educational reforms have led to large numbers of women receiving higher level degrees, but structural inequality in the job market makes it difficult for them to get middle or upper class jobs. 93% of women graduate from high school and 63% from college, but only 46.7% of college grads are employed. Further, those employed women suffer from a 76% wage differential compared to like qualified men. Japan has similar structural issues where half of the employed women in the country only work part-time. Geographic relocation presents social opportunities to both seek a more favorable job climate and a social order more accepting of educated women. The prospect of greater control over their own lives and careers draws many of these young women to build their futures away from their immediate surroundings: 80% of Japanese people studying abroad are women.

16. Social forces – Social forces can also foster individual geographic mobility. Support from the community can increase the probability of relocation; it has been shown that the chances of a migration in India improve when groups of houses from same sub-caste all decide to move together. Worldly exposure also increases one's tendency to be mobile. Public health studies measured higher geographic mobility among female sex workers who drank, had experienced violence, had worked for more than 4 years, and had a regular non-paying partner than those who did not.

Demographically, research shows that one's level of education tends to correlate to higher mobility, especially among university graduates. Youth and a lack of a family or children correlate to increased

mobility too, with the peak in mobility occurring in the mid-late 20s for populations surveyed in Europe.

17. Economic effects

Labor supply - Geographical mobility of labor allows the labor supply to respond to regional disparities, limiting economic inefficiencies. Low labor mobility quickly leads to inequality between static economic regions and a misappropriation of labor resources. Geographic mobility can help alleviate asymmetric shocks between regions with diversified economies, like in the European Union. A mobile population allows a region to shed workers when jobs are scarce and gives those workers the opportunity to seek employment elsewhere where opportunities might be better. While an increase in geographic mobility increases overall economic efficiency, the increased competition for jobs on the local level in otherwise prosperous regions could lead to higher unemployment than before the migration.

Female labor supply rates actually have larger statistical effect on mobility than male rates. Traditionally male jobs in the developing world have much more inelastic demand than female ones, so the variations in the female rate lead to more drastic changes in employment that more strongly affect mobility.

Resource allocation – Labor mobility theoretically leads to a more balanced and economically efficient distribution of jobs and resources overall. Individual employees can better match their skills to potential jobs on the open job market. They can seek out ideal jobs instead of artificially limiting themselves to their geographic areas. The opportunity to study abroad is a major vehicle of entry to western countries for Asian women. Moving to the West to study is a common career move for Asian women in their 20s, allowing them to abandon the traditional marriage track and pursue economic ventures outside the home.

On the other hand, mobility can also have negative consequences on a region facing widespread emigration. Brain drain and labor resource diminishment make it more difficult for troubled regions to recover after an economic stumble. Additional people migrating into a region can also place extra stress on existing social infrastructure for services like healthcare, welfare, and unemployment.

Remittances – Geographic mobility allows for remittances from distant family members back to support local needs. Loans and transfers can flow back from migrated members of a community to sustain those who remain behind. Remittances are one of the primary benefits of migration to the country of origin, not only substantially enhancing local family income but also spilling over into benefits of increased capital flow in the entire local economy. Remittances play a large role in sustaining the economies of many developing nations, for example bringing over US\$1bn into the Philippines every month and eclipsing the entire tourism profit of Morocco.

18. Female mobility

Empowerment – With heightened self-awareness, educated women hope to grasp opportunities from moving, leading to increased female individualization and empowerment. Given access to travel, international education provides one of few avenues for women in China to live non-traditional personally emancipated lives. In Japan geographic mobility offers an opportunity to gain real job experience and advance a career too. Japanese society places a great social pressure on women to get married, but many young women feel the need to “escape” and can find their independent selves in another setting.

Many migrants do choose to continue to benefit and rely on older home ties though. These women cannot change behavior too much from social norms or risk being cut off. Studies show that household choices in India are affected by distance from the ancestral home, especially within the caste system. There are also other new risks for women in new locations. Female sex workers have statistically higher sexually transmitted diseases and HIV rates when more mobile. There is also potential for male backlash in a new setting. Domestic violence can be sparked by power struggles when newly empowered women regain some control traditionally held by men.

Participation – Female labor participation is vital to improving regional disparities in a competitive world and will increase in value over time. Women’s participation and creative energy is vital for the success of economies on a global scale. Female labor participation can act as a substitute for more generalized labor mobility too. In the European Union women provide a dynamic substitute for male labor with fluctuations in the economy. This allows for more geographic stability while maintaining the variability of a flexible labor economy. When families do migrate, women often get employed first

and become the breadwinner for house. Even if this only lasts for duration of time, the experience is empowering and helps shape social dynamics within the home.

Often relocation is primarily motivated by lack of any better opportunities in their prior situation though. Many of the women go through the trial of moving and starting over due to economic and social circumstances outside of their control. Research also seems to indicate that women and minorities migrating into a new area often act as economic substitutes for local minorities rather than paving their own new ground. Female income effects from migration will only kick in if there are sufficient differences between males and females too, so long term changes will likely not happen quickly.

Transportation access – Women have traditionally had more limited access to improved means of personal transportation and thus had more limited local mobility. Women surveyed in England were less likely overall than men to have drivers' licenses and took longer to get to key destinations. Women often seek work closer to home compared to men, taking jobs in a more geographically confined area and relying more on non-automobile transportation. Access to personal transportation could improve women's choice of feasible destinations and decrease average trip time.

19. Effects on children, family, and education

Increased geographic mobility can offer new opportunities to previously isolated groups. In India, increasing mobility allows families the chance to strengthen family ties by sending children to traditional homes or expand educational opportunities with options to attend urban schools. Additional economic freedom bolstered by additional capital from remittances can allow children to stay in school longer without having to worry about supporting the core family.

Increased geographic mobility and long distance moves do place strains on the household. The loss of established strong ties decreases social support and can lower productivity. Geographic isolation from previous relationships increases personal dependence on the nuclear family unit and can lead to power unbalances within the household.

Migration for work allows the migrants themselves to develop new skills and receive new technical training abroad. Migrants surveyed in Australia and the US have lower rates of continual training than their native born peers as a whole, but are likely to continue gaining technical skills after establishing an initial technical aptitude. The appeal of new educational opportunities to migrants also loses appeal with age; older movers see less of an incentive to spend time to improve upon their existing skills.

Increased global mobility has helped to destabilize the prospects of young people looking for reliable work and led to a greater assumption of risk on behalf of young people. Coping strategies push them to put off long term commitments, decreasing the formation of families and lowering birth rates. Labor market volatility increases the dangers of settling down since incomes cannot be relied upon long term. Women in the workplace also face more disincentives to having children since they could be more easily replaced if forced to leave their job temporarily.

20. Effects on culture

Cultural exchange – Increased geographic mobility increases the depth and quality of cultural exchange between communities. Travel and cooperation bring people together across cultural bounds and facilitate the trade of customs and ideas. New community members bring unique talents and skills that can improve overall services and bring additional opportunity to an area. Additional population "churn" can also increase diversity and lower tensions that would arise otherwise with large concentrations of particular demographic groups. On the other hand, accelerated cultural exchange can dilute existing customs and cause social friction between competing immigrating populations too. Residents in communities with a large percentage of highly mobile occupants also worry about long term social cohesion. Rapid turnover can lead to cultural isolation and sometimes prevents neighbors from building close cohesive relationships.

Social networks – Increasing long range personal mobility tends to lead to geographic expansion of an individual's support network. Long distance connections require more time to visit and minimize the occurrence of unplanned social interaction. Increased mobility can decrease an individual's attachment to a local community and weaken local support networks. People often turn to information technology to maintain connections across distance, strengthening distance relationships and allowing people to pursue career opportunities despite geographic distance from a partner.

17. Social mobility is the movement of individuals or groups of people in social position. It may refer to classes, ethnic groups, or entire nations, and may measure health status, literacy, or education. More commonly it refers to individuals or families, and their change in income or wealth (economic

mobility)). It also typically refers to vertical mobility – movement of individuals or groups, up or down from one socio-economic level to another often by changing jobs or marriage. In addition it can also refer to horizontal mobility – movement from one position to another within the same social level.

Social mobility can be the change in status between someone (or a group) and their parents/previous family generations (“inter-generational”); or over the change during one’s lifetime (“intra-generational”). It can be “absolute” i.e. total amount of movement of people between classes, usually over one generation (such as when education and economic development raises the socio-economic level of a population); or “relative” which is an estimation of the chance of upward or downward social mobility of a member of one social class in comparison with a member from another class. A higher level of intergenerational mobility is often considered a sign of greater fairness, or equality of opportunity, in a society.

Mobility is enabled to a varying extent by economic capital, cultural capital (such as higher education), human capital (such as competence and effort in labour), social capital (such as support from one’s social network), physical capital (such as ownership of tools, or the “means of production”), and symbolic capital (such as the worth of an official title, status class, celebrity, etc.).

Inter- and intra-generational mobility – *Intra-generational* mobility (“within” a generation) is defined as change in social status over a single life-time. *Intergenerational* mobility (“across” generations) is defined as changes in social status that occur from the parents’ to the children’s generation.

21. Inter-generational mobility is generally measured in terms of intergenerational elasticity, or a statistical correlation between parent’s and children’s economic standings. The higher the intergenerational elasticity, the less social mobility a society offers. The higher the intergenerational elasticity, the more of a role childhood upbringing plays when compared to individual talents and capabilities. Income and wealth are two measures of well-being that are also typically used to measure mobility. Income mobility is low in the United States and Britain; however, because wealth can be transferred directly from parents to children, both intergenerational mobility and intragenerational wealth mobility are even lower. Sociologist Lisa Keister has shown that educational attainment and business startup are two important processes that allow people to become upwardly mobile. Sociologist Annette Lareau discusses two different ways to raise children: concerted cultivation and natural growth:

- Concerted cultivation, normally used by middle-class families, incorporates scheduling many structured, organized activities for the child. Such children learn to use their language to reason with parents and other adults, and they often adopt a sense of entitlement.
- Natural growth is almost the exact opposite of concerted cultivation. Occurring mainly in poor or working-class families, this style of childrearing does not include organized activities, and there is a clear division between the adult and the child. Children usually spend large amounts of their day creating their own activities, and they hardly ever speak with adults. In fact, adults use language in order to direct or order the children, never to negotiate with them.

These two different types of childrearing can affect inter-generational mobility. Children who grow up with a concerted cultivation style of childrearing learn from their parents how to talk with adults as equals and negotiate to get favorable outcomes in any situation. This skill helps them create powerful social networks, which can improve their social standing. Children with natural growth accomplishment tend to have a more difficult time improving their social standing. They lack the social skills and sense of entitlement that children raised with the concerted cultivation method have, and therefore are less likely to acquire good jobs (and therefore, improve their social standing).

22. Absolute and relative mobility – Absolute mobility measures whether (and by how much) living standards in a society have increased - often measured by what percentage of people have higher incomes than their parents. Relative mobility refers to how likely children are to move from their parents’ place in the income distribution.

The more absolute mobility, the better off the population is than their parents, and their children will consequently be better off than them. Relative mobility refers to the fluidity of a society. If one grows up in a poor family, one has a decent chance of moving up the relative-income ladder. Because relative mobility depends on one’s place in the distribution, it is a zero-sum phenomenon. In other words, if one person moves up in relative terms, another by definition must have moved down. In contrast, absolute mobility is not zero-sum. Sociologists can classify social mobility as:

- **vertical mobility**: the movement of individuals and groups up or down the socioeconomic scale. Those who gain in property, income, status, and position are dubbed “upwardly mobile”, while those who move in the opposite direction are “downwardly mobile”.
- **horizontal mobility**: the movement of individuals and groups in similar socioeconomic positions, which may be in different work-situations. This may involve change in occupation or remaining in the same occupation but in a different organization, or may be in the same organization but at a different location.
- **lateral mobility**: geographical movement between neighborhoods, towns or regions. Modern societies exhibit a great deal of geographical mobility. Lateral mobility is often combined with vertical as well as horizontal mobility. **Rules of status: ascription and achievement** – Achieved status is a position gained based on merit. Ascribed status is a position based on who a person is, not what he does.

Mobility regimes can be positive and/or a negative sum. *Structural mobility* is mobility resulting from changes in the number and kinds of jobs available in a society. Examples: Great Depression, many job losses, the government and many people in need of major help. According to sociologist John H. Goldthorpe, social mobility is normally seen in two ways: the first being that it is a basic source of social “structuration”; the second is that the extent of mobility may be a strong indicator of the balance of power and status within a society.

23. Structural and exchange mobility – Structural mobility is a type of forced vertical mobility that results from a change in the distribution of statuses within a society, owing more to changes in society itself than to individual efforts. It occurs when the demand for a particular occupation reaches its maximum and more people are needed to trade-off. This means, instead of positions reaching the maximum and more people being needed, positions are dropped and someone else must step up to fill the position. When ascriptive status is in play, there is not much exchange mobility occurring.

Upward and downward mobility – Upward social mobility is a change in a person’s social status resulting in that person rising to a higher position in their status system. However, downward mobility implies a person’s social status falls to a lower position in their status system. A prime example of an opportunity for upward mobility nowadays is in athletics. There is an increasing number of minorities holding top executive positions in the NBA.

Upward and downward social mobility is not directly correlated with higher education. A merit-based higher education system can offset the role of social class in determining economic outcomes. Post-secondary schooling is a filter that keeps parents’ economic position from simply passing straight through to their children, thus simultaneously promoting economic efficiency, social justice, and social mobility.

Social mobility is normally discussed as “upward only”, but it is a two-sided phenomenon – where there is upward mobility, there can also be relative downward mobility. If merit and fortune play a larger role in life chances than the luck of birth, and some people can manage a relative upward shift in their social status, then some people can also move downward relative to others. This is the risk that motivates people in power to increasingly devise and commission political, legal, educational, and economic mechanisms that permit them to fortify their advantages.

24. Labour Mobility – Labour mobility consists of changes in the location of workers both across physical space (geographic mobility) and across a set of jobs (occupational mobility). *Geographic mobility* can be further subdivided into short-distance and long-distance moves, as well as into voluntary and coerced migration. *Occupational mobility* can be *lateral* (within a broad class of jobs similar in socioeconomic status) or *vertical* (from one job to a better or worse job). The availability of large, nationally-representative longitudinal surveys in the late twentieth century has made it possible to measure the extent of mobility in all these dimensions, and how they are related, in several developed economies.

Recent analysis of *labour mobility* in Canada categorizes barriers to labour mobility as either “natural, economic barriers” or “artificial barriers.” *Natural, economic barriers* include distance and linguistic-cultural differences, although language differences are affected by law and regulations. *Artificial barriers* to mobility are those imposed by law and regulation, including “professional occupational licensing, government occupational licensing of trades, preferential hiring practices, income security programs, education and language requirements, and employment standards legislation.”

At the aggregate level, labour mobility conveys important economic benefits. The reallocation of workers across regions permits the exploitation of complementary resources as they are discovered in new places, while reallocation across sectors makes possible the use of new technologies and the growth of new industries. At the individual level, mobility allows for improvements in the economic circumstances of those whose skills or aspirations are a poor match for the job or location in which they find themselves.

The impact of labour mobility extends well beyond these economic considerations, however. Sociologists have examined the impact of mobility on the operation of communities and interpersonal relationships, and political scientists have considered how mobility effects political participation

25. Occupational mobility is often wrongly called *social mobility*. It refers to the movement of an occupational group itself, or of an individual member of an occupation, or of an occupational vacancy, through the stratification system of social space. Studies of the Hindu caste system illustrate the first; father-son occupational achievement the second; and Harrison White's study of clergy vacancy-chains the third.

Most studies assume a unidimensional scaling or gradation of occupations in terms of their prestige or status against which movement is then assessed. Thus, "downward" mobility refers to loss, and "upward" mobility to increase in occupational prestige. An important distinction is to be drawn between *within* or intra-generational mobility (for example career patterns) and *between* intergenerational mobility (for example caste mobility or father-son achievement). **Labor mobility** or *worker mobility* is the geographical and occupational movement of workers. Worker mobility is best gauged by the lack of impediments to such mobility. Impediments to mobility are easily divided into two distinct classes with one being personal and the other being systemic. Personal impediments include physical location, and physical and mental ability. The systemic impediments include educational opportunities as well as various laws and political contrivances and even barriers and hurdles arising from historical happenstance.

Increasing and maintaining a high level of labor mobility allows a more efficient allocation of resources. Labor mobility has proven to be a forceful driver of innovations.

26. International Labor Mobility – International labor mobility is the movement of workers between states. It is an example of an international factor movement. The movement of laborers is based on a difference in resources between countries. According to economists, over time the migration of labor should have an equalizing effect on wages, with workers in the same industries garnering the same wage. **Common impediments to worker mobility In the United States:**

- Minimum Wage laws that prevent unskilled workers, willing to work below minimum, from entering workforce.
- Absence of "right to work" laws / presence of forced unionization.
- Inadequate infrastructure and housing to accommodate fast moving changes in labor demand.
- Binding ties to a geographic location. e.g.: a worker's inability to sell his home for a price that covers his existing mortgage.
- A worker's lack of education and/or access to education.
- Government mandates on industry labor standards. e.g.: license requirements to cut hair or give a massage.
- Unemployment benefits that disincentivize workers from accepting employment at market clearing wage rates.
- *In the Asia-Pacific Region*, some common reasons workers are immobile include:
 - National and regional differences in the qualifications necessary for different jobs.
 - A lack of standards for skills and vocations.
 - Discrimination based on citizenship or national origin.
- *Other impediments to worker mobility:*
 - Discrimination based on social class.
 - Systems of economics and property rights that impede workers.

27. Youth mobility – The level of youth unemployment following the recession has become a serious concern. Across the EU, the unemployment rate amongst those aged 15-24 rose from 15.5% in 2007 to 19.8% in 2009. The increase in youth unemployment as a result of the recession hit across the board but particularly affected young men and those with low levels of education. The proportion of

unemployed youth in long term unemployment was slightly lower in 2009 than in 2007 but it has started to increase and whilst demand in the labour market remains low the fear is that it will continue to increase.

Unemployment rates alone do not paint a full picture of the situation for young people. Many young people are engaged in full-time education and the part that is actually active in the labour market varies considerably between countries. Moreover, the situation is not static over time as the number of young people who enter the labour market is sensitive to the economic cycle. The rates at which young people move from year to year between different labour market situations (employment, unemployment, student and other inactive) have changed since the onset of the recession. The proportion of young people who remained employed from one year to the next has fallen, as has the share that moved into jobs from unemployment.

On the other hand, a larger proportion either remained in education or returned to it. Furthermore, when this situation is compared with those over the age of 25, there is evidence that young people were hit disproportionately by both job losses and a reduced rate of new job creation. Analysis of the experiences of young people moving into the labour market from education over a four year period shows that those leaving education at an earlier age (16-17) tend to have less success in finding jobs than those who leave at an older age (18 or over). However, the data also suggest that there is not much gain (in terms of the chances of finding a job of any type) from remaining in education beyond the age of 20.

Further, a later exit from education into the labour market does not noticeably reduce the chances of experiencing unemployment during the transition period. In fact, those who moved into the labour market at an older age tended to experience more spells of unemployment and more time in unemployment than younger age groups despite being more successful in the long run. However, this pattern is not evident for all countries.

Young people are much more likely than other age-groups to be employed on a temporary contract. In 2009, 40% of employees aged 15-24 were on a temporary contract compared to just 10% of those aged 25-64. Although inherently less stable forms of employment, for young people temporary contracts can be valuable stepping stones towards more secure long-term employment. Analysis of how the employment situation of young people on temporary contracts changes over one or two years suggests that this is the case in some countries but not in others.

2. Вопросы для беседы по одной из тем курса:

1. What is your research problem?
2. What is of special interest in the problem of your research?
3. What is the subject of your research?
4. Why has the interest in this problem increased considerably in recent years?
5. Do you follow/stick to any theory/hypothesis/concept? What is it?
6. What concept is your research based on?
7. How does your research differ from other studies of the same problem?
8. Is there much literature available on your research problem?
9. Is your research problem described comprehensively/thoroughly/ extensively in literature?
10. Is the problem only outlined or mentioned in passing?
11. What are the main aspects of the problem that have been considered?
12. Have you already obtained any research results?
13. What are the main/comprehensive results of your current research?
14. Has your research been successful?
15. Have you succeeded in receiving extensive data?
16. Do your research data agree with the theory you follow?
17. Do your results coincide with those obtained by other researchers?
18. Are the results of purely theoretical or practical interest?
19. Do your research results appear to be of both theoretical and practical importance?
20. Are the data/observations you have obtained sufficient to formulate your final conclusions?

