Reading Passage 5

You should spend 20 minutes on questions 1–14, which are based on Reading Passage 5.

A The recent global economic shift away from state-regulated economies and towards privatization has affected many areas of society. The sporting world is no exception to this, and football is a prime example. In fact, it can be argued that over the last 10 years, football clubs have become more focused on the commercial opportunities presented by international and league cup events than on their players' sporting prowess. In addition to this, football has become so powerful an economic force in some countries that its impact can be observed in political and government circles.

B Over the years, football clubs have transcended their original function. No longer supporting their teams solely through membership contributions, they have transformed themselves into a highly lucrative industry. This change in the financial sponsorship model of professional football has been described by Andreff (2000) as a shift from the 'Spectators – Subsidies – Sponsors – Local' model, which was prevalent in the 1970s, to the 'Media – Magnates – Merchandising – Markets – Global' paradigm, which emerged in the 1980s.

C Over the last 30 years, the growth of the broadcasting industry, and in particular its effectiveness as a channel for marketing and advertising, has increased the commercial profitability of football at national and international levels. This in turn has attracted a wide range of private investors, including individual billionaires, multi-national media companies, sports equipment suppliers and health product manufacturers. Some, but not all, of these are driven purely by an interest in monetary gain. Others are genuine fans, in the original sense of the word; that is, they are fanatical about football, investing in the game to satisfy their passion.

D In order to maximize their profits, more commercially motivated investors have extended their interests beyond the boundaries of receiving income from ticket sales. Branding, which has become a highly successful income stream in the last few decades, is an example of this. Products of all kinds, ranging from clothing to tableware and from mascots to sports equipment are manufactured in factories in various countries and distributed through high street commercial outlets worldwide. For example, a T-shirt or a mug branded with the logo of a European premier league football club may be produced on a continent as far away as Asia. A further, and even more productive, source of income is the sale of broadcasting rights. For example, in 2010, the governing body of world football (FIFA), earned 2408 million US dollars from the sale of the television rights to the FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa and 1072 million US dollars in marketing rights. Another profitable, but arguably dubious, commercial operation is the transfer of players from one football club to another. Although individual players receive astronomical fees as a result of these transfers, it is difficult to view the process as being very different from that of trading manufactured goods.

E As well as raising specific ethical issues, the transfer of players for large sums of money highlights the tension between the social ideals on which many sporting associations are founded and commercial necessity. Although many sports clubs may still retain their original social aims, such as health, social interaction and physical development, the financial pressures of the modern competitive world of international business prevent them from attaining these aspirations.

F These concerns were echoed some years ago by Bayle and Durand (in Rouvrais-Charron and Durand, 2009) who noted 'a growing gap between ethics and behaviour' amongst the governing bodies of international sport. It must be recognized that the challenge of balancing ideology, social responsibility and commercial viability is not unique to football. Nevertheless, it could be argued that if sport (and in this case, football) is based on the principle that it has a uniquely social function, this conflict between ideology and commercial pressure may be felt to be all the more acute.

Questions 1–6

The reading passage has six paragraphs (A–F). Which paragraphs contain the following information?

1   different modes of sponsorship

2   the range of organizations that invest in football

3   reasons for investing in football

4   the development of football from a sport to an industry

5   examples of promotional goods

6   a change in the status of footballers

Questions 7–10

Do the following statements agree with the information given in the passage?

Write

TRUE	*if the statement agrees with the information in the passage.*
FALSE	*if the statement disagrees with the information in the passage.*
NOT GIVEN	*if the information is not mentioned in the passage.*

7   In the past, football was not a commercial venture.

8   FIFA earned more from marketing than from broadcasting rights to the FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa.

9   Sporting associations believe that they have a social responsibility.

10 Commercially motivated sponsors are not concerned with ethics.

Questions 11–14

*Look at the following items (Questions 11–14) and the list of groups below. Match each item with the correct group. Write the letter **A–C**.*

NB *You may use any letter more than once.*

  A football clubs
  B sponsors
  C the players

11 They use sport as a marketing tool.

12 They are becoming more controlled by private industry.

13 They are politically powerful.

14 They have been converted into merchandise.

Reading Passage 6

Parental roles

One of the most enduring elements of social and behavioural science research in the last half of the 20th century was the scholarly re-examination of traditional ideas about fatherhood and motherhood. For over 200 years maternal behaviour had been considered paramount in child development (Kagan, 1978; Stearns, 1991; Stendler, 1950; Sunley, 1955), and fathers were often thought to be peripheral to the job of parenting because children throughout the world spent most of their time with their mothers (Fagot, 1995; Harris, Furstenberg and Marmer, 1998; Munroe and Munroe, 1994). Some argued that fathers contributed little to children's development except for their economic contributions (Amato, 1998), and others believed that fathers are not genetically endowed for parenting (Belsky, 1998; Benson, 1968). Indeed, even though Margaret Mead concluded that fathers were important contributors to childcare, and that '(a)nthropological evidence gives no support ... to the value of such an accentuation of the tie between mother and child' (Mead, 1956, pp.642–643), Mead (1949) perceived basic differences between fathers and mothers. The mother's nurturing tie to her child is apparently so deeply rooted in the actual biological conditions of conception and gestation, birth and suckling, that only fairly complicated social arrangements can break it down entirely ... But the evidence suggests that we should phrase the matter differently for men and women – that men have to learn to want to provide for others, and this behaviour, being learnt, is fragile and can disappear rather easily under social conditions that no longer teach it effectively (pp.191–193).

However, many contemporary scholars now cite a growing body of empirical evidence that parental behaviours are not simply the consequence of biology and human nature, but rather are informed by cultural, historical and social values, circumstances and processes. In fact, as gender ideologies shifted in the last half of the 20th century, so too did researchers' exploration of variations in men's and women's behaviour generally, and fathering and mothering specifically (Rohner and Veneziano, 2001; Sanchez and Thomson, 1997). Moreover, contemporary perspectives on fatherhood and motherhood are in large part derived from research that concurrently studied fathers and mothers, rather than earlier research that focused almost exclusively on mothers.

Similarities and differences in fathers' and mothers' interactions with offspring

Much of the research into parent-child relations has been informed by the belief that mothers influence children's physical, emotional, psychological and social well-being through expressive and affective behaviours, including warmth and nurturance (Bowlby, 1969; Hojat, 1999; Mahler and Furer, 1968; Phares, 1992; Stern, 1995), whereas fathers have often been viewed as influencing children's development through the instrumental roles of provider and protector, and as role models for social, cognitive, psychological and gender-identity development (Bronstein, 1988; Gilmore, 1990; Lamb and Oppenheim, 1989; Mackey, 1996; Parsons and Bales, 1955; Radin, 1981b). However, contemporary research suggests that maternal behaviour is not situated exclusively in the expressive sphere any more than paternal behaviour is situated exclusively in the instrumental one. Indeed, multivariate research in the 1990s demonstrated the importance of paternal expressive and affective behaviours despite the fact that mothers are often characterized as 'superior caregivers', whereas fathers are

viewed as 'less capable of, and/or less interested in, nurturant parenting' (*Parents' Interactions with Offspring*, Hosley and Montemayor, 1997, p.175). As discussed below, fathers' and mothers' behaviours are in fact multidimensional and multifaceted, and these behaviours often vary as a result of contextual variables including youths' age and gender.

Youths' age and gender

According to Collins and Russell (1991), research in Western societies shows that fathers and mothers interact differently with their middle childhood (i.e., preteens) to adolescent children than with younger children. For example, fathers generally interact with their adolescents through focusing on instrumental goals (e.g., school and athletic achievement, future plans) and objective issues such as political discussions. Mothers' interactions with adolescents, on the other hand, tend to be marked more by discussions of personal issues. More specifically, in their review of the literature on US families, Collins and Russell (1991) reported that 15- to 16-year-old US adolescents spent twice as much time alone with their mothers as with their fathers. Collins and Russell also reported that 14- to 18-year-olds, more than 12- to 13-year-olds, spent more time alone with their mothers than with their fathers. As for middle childhood, Collins and Russell (1991) found that mothers tend to be more involved in caregiving, whereas fathers are more involved in play activities.

Questions 1–4

Read the following passage and select **TWO** *correct answers from the FIVE options (A–E).*

1 Until the late 20th century, academic views of child development considered that

   A men were naturally predisposed to childcare.

   B the father was not an important figure.

   C fathers failed to provide for their children.

   D the mother's role was central to child rearing.

   E men should spend more time with their children.

2 Margaret Mead believed that

   A women did not want to change society.

   B fathering could not be learnt.

   C mothers were genetically programmed to bond with their babies.

   D the mother-child relationship was difficult to change.

   E fathers naturally wanted to look after their children.

3 Modern research has discovered that

   A parenting is not an instinct.

   B the role of parents varies with external factors.

   C men and women have fixed parental roles.

   D motherhood had not been thoroughly researched.

   E fatherhood had been carefully researched in the past.

4 According to traditional research,

   A fathers had no effect on their children's intellectual growth.

   B fathers were not loving by nature.

   C mothers were responsible for a child's emotional development.

   D the development of the child's social identity depended on the father.

   E mothers were not naturally caring.

Questions 5–8

Complete the sentences in Questions 5–8 with words taken from the passage. Write NO
MORE THAN ONE WORD.

5 Early research into .... largely ignored the importance of the role of
fatherhood.

6 Modern research has found that emotional behaviour is not restricted to the
.... role.

7 The age and gender of the children affects their .... with their parents.

8 When children are in their teens they talk to their mothers more about ....
concerns.

Questions 9–13

Match each sentence beginning (9–13) with the correct ending (A–H) from the list below.

9 Modern research into parental roles differs from early research in that

10 It is now more widely accepted for

11 In 1991, Collins and Russell found that children aged 14 to 18

12 In spite of recent changes in parental roles,

13 Even at the end of the 20th century, research found

A men to be affectionate towards their children.

B fathers still tend to concentrate more on their children's tangible achievements than on
their emotional problems.

C spent more time with their fathers than with their mothers.

D only paternal roles have been investigated.

E that young children received more nurturing from their mothers.

F spent more time with their mothers than children aged 12 to 13.

G it takes into account changing attitudes to gender.

H that fathers preferred to spend time with their adolescent children.

Reading Passage 7

You should spend 20 minutes on questions 1–13, which are based on Reading Passage 7.

Their social life online: a parents' guide

Rachel Carlyle

Worried parents take heart – a growing body of research shows that teens who use social media are not reclusive geeks: they actually have a wider circle of real-life friends, a better sense of identity and belonging and are developing the essential technical skills they need to be citizens of a digital age.

'Social networking has become an embedded part of modern childhood,' says e-safety pioneer Stephen Carrick-Davies, who advises parents and schools on technology.

'Children do not consume media – dipping in and out to buy airline tickets or check emails as adults do – they inhabit it. That's neither good nor bad – it's what you do with it that counts.'

What teenagers mainly do with it is socialize with friends they already know. 'It's the modern equivalent of hanging around at the bus stop to share the in-jokes and catch up on the gossip: a kind of virtual bus stop,' says Tim Mungeam, a parenting consultant who runs social networking seminars for teens and their parents.

And it performs a similar function: helping teenagers develop a sense of identity away from their parents and learning to get on with their peers. Professor Kevin Durkin, a psychologist at Strathclyde University, says: 'Adolescence is a time when you are asking, who am I? Who do I want to become? Social networking can help you develop that self-identity: you can post notices about your favourite music or sports, discover what you enjoy, and you are constantly reminded that other people have different ways of looking at things and have different tastes. Research actually shows that keen social networkers are not as self-absorbed as others who don't.'

He says that embracing social media can also help shy teens blossom: 'They tend to find computer-mediated communication more comfortable than face-to-face, and there may be benefits from practising social skills in a less-threatening environment.'

Professor Andy Phippen, of Plymouth University, who is researching the use of social networking sites by teenagers, feels that these sites can also boost the confidence of children traditionally on the edge of friendship groups. 'Unlike in our day, when there were the Alpha* kids and those very much on the periphery of friendship groups, social networking can bring in the ones on the periphery so there's not so much difference between them,' he says.

It can be a life-saver for the quiet, geeky child who has a specialized interest because it can allow them to connect with others with similar interests. 'If you are one of only three kids in your school in Cornwall who is into Emo* culture, traditionally you would have felt quite isolated. But if you discover a social networking group of like-minded teenagers, there's suddenly a necessary critical mass and you can still be popular, just in a different context,' Professor Phippen adds.

Experts always used to advise monitoring your children's social networking activities, but there is a growing consensus that once they reach 13 or 14, and parents are happy they know the ground rules (stay civil, be kind, don't give out personal details to those you don't know in real life) they should trust them to get on with it.

It's the teenagers who are able to find new interests online, join networks of likeminded individuals – and then create their own content – who are really harnessing the potential of social networks, says Pamela Whitby, the digital education expert and author of *Is Your Child Safe Online?*

'Social networking is becoming a creative force: teenagers are making videos, joining YouTube groups, podcasting and blogging about the things that interest them. Sites like Pinterest, which is like a digital look-book, and Instagram, a photosharing network, are transforming creativity, and I think niche networks are going to become more and more common.

'I recently went into a school and thought I would be telling all these teenagers about how to use Instagram – but many were already using it. The keen photographers were networking with each other, learning skills, swapping images and deepening their own interest. This all adds to their employability and will undoubtedly benefit them in the workplace.

'Every single business is using social media to sell and to increase brand-awareness – and you need to understand how it works and how it can create customers. For example, if you develop a product and you have 700 friends on Facebook and 300 on other networks, they are all potential customers for that product. If you link all those networks together there's your customer base right there.'

Teenagers who use social networking as a creative force will reap the benefits in the world of work, agrees Mungeam. 'One of the fantastic aspects of Facebook and YouTube is the opportunity for collaborating with others to create content, then sharing it with others. Collaboration is a real 21st-century skill, and an essential part of being employable in a digital age.

'Social networking helps them find out what they are passionate about. They can be in touch with people all over the world sharing ideas and gradually they can build their online reputation: signing up to campaigns or joining groups to make their voice heard.

'Social networks amplify one person's voice, and no one appreciates this more than a teenager.'

Teenagers who use social networks will reap the benefits in the world of work.

* **Alpha kids** – most dominant children in a group
* **Emo** – a style of music/a community of emotionally sensitive people

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Questions 1–5

*Do the following statements agree with the information in the text? Write **TRUE**, **FALSE** or **NOT GIVEN**.*

1 Social media discourages adolescents from developing real friends.

2 Young people use the Internet to book tickets for concerts.

3 The majority of teenagers use online networking sites to meet new people.

4 Socializing online helps teenagers to collaborate with people of their own age.

5 Teenagers who socialize online tend to be more introverted than others.

Label the diagram with words taken from the passage. Write **NO MORE THAN ONE WORD**.

Skills that improve employability

Social networking

↓

6 ....

↓

7 ....

↓

Enhanced employability
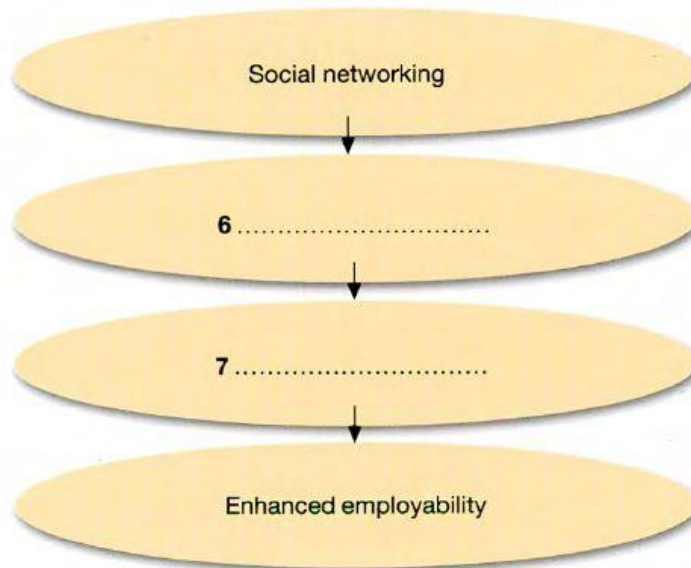
Questions 8–13

Complete the summary with letters (**A–H**) from the list in the box.

NB *There are two extra words on the list.*

Early research into **8** .... and social media suggested that teenagers who socialized online might be afraid of mixing with their **9** .... in real life. However, recent research has shown that adolescents who 'meet up' with their friends on social networking sites are actually less **10** ...., have a stronger sense of their own **11** .... and have more real friends than those who do not. Furthermore, online networking sites can offer less- **12** .... adolescents a safe platform from which to interact with their social circle, potentially reducing the distance between more assertive, popular group members and **13** .... individuals, who traditionally hover on the edges of their social group.

A quieter

B adolescence

C identity

D intelligence

E peers

F isolated

G confident

H parents