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УНИВЕРСИТЕТ**

ИНСТИТУТ МЕЖДУНАРОДНЫХ ОТНОШЕНИЙ

Высшая школа иностранных языков и перевода

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ПРЕДИСЛОВИЕ

В современных условиях английский язык стал официальным международным языком всех сфер общественной жизни и отношений: широко применяется в науке и бизнесе, выступает частью объективной реальности. Важнейшей характеристикой современного представителя научно-профессиональной сферы является умение работать с оригинальными источниками на английском языке (читать, переводить, анализировать и критически оценивать информацию из аутентичных текстов, адаптировать и применять полученный опыт и знания от зарубежных коллег).

Учебное пособие “English for Academic Reading Practice” предназначено для работы по программе дисциплины «Чтение иноязычной научно-учебной литературы» и может использоваться на занятиях по дисциплине «Синтетическое чтение» студентами пятого курса и магистрами направления подготовки «Педагогическое образование (с двумя профилями подготовки)». Данное пособие основано на аутентичном материале – курсе университетских лекций профессора Р. Лонга «Введение в социологию», что привносит в иноязычную подготовку междисциплинарный характер.

Целью пособия является развитие навыков чтения иноязычной научно-учебной литературы, обучение письменным и устным формам академической речи на английском языке, а также элементам научного дискурса. Основные навыки восприятия, получения, обработки и передачи информации развиваются в пособии через структуру, сочетающую практические задания с упражнениями к прочитанному материалу. Теоретический материал позволяет обучающимся получить общее представление о содержании научного текста; практические задания нацелены на отработку навыков чтения, письма и говорения; вопросы для самопроверки применяются для закрепления знаний по заданной тематике, а перечень ключевых терминов структурирует изученный материал и позволяет студентам

свободно ориентироваться в заданном научно-академическом контексте.

Текстовый материал сопровождается заданиями типа “pre-task” (“pre-reading”), и “post-task” (“after-reading”), направленными на развитие лексических и фонетических навыков, способствующими формированию навыков ведения научной дискуссии, аннотирования и реферирования текста.

Пособие состоит из 9 модулей, каждый из которых содержит 2 темы. Представленные в пособии тексты затрагивают дискуссионные вопросы актуальных социологических исследований. В конце пособия представлен словарь ключевых слов, которыми должны владеть студенты после освоения данного пособия, а также список литературы и интернет-источников.

Материалы пособия могут быть использованы как для аудиторной работы, так и для самостоятельного обучения.

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MODULE 1

Text 1 What is Sociology?

Pre-reading tasks

1. Work in groups of three or four and discuss the following:

- What does Sociology study?
- What subject areas in Sociology do you know?
- How does the society influence the individual?

2. Before reading the text, practice the following proper names for pronunciation:

Barkan ['bɑ:kən]

Plummer ['plʌmə]

Appelbaum ['æpəl, bɑ:um]

Chambliss ['tʃæm, blɪs]

Peter Berger ['pi:tə 'bɜ:gə]

3. Guess the meaning of the following words and expressions:

social life

social change

social cause

social being

social structure

critical thinking

4. Study the following words and expressions:

advocate v. ['ædvəkət] – выступать в защиту, защищать

argue v. ['ɑ:gju:] – утверждать, доказывать

attitude n. ['ætɪtju:d] – отношение, позиция

augment v. [ɔ:g'ment] – повысить

bias n. ['baɪəs] – предубеждение, предвзятость

concise adj. [kən'saɪs] – краткий

conduct v. [kən'dʌkt] – управлять

consequence n. ['kɒnsɪkwəns] – следствие, результат

contentious adj. [kən'ten.ʃəs] – спорный

contradictory adj. [,kɒntrə'dɪktəri] – противоречивый

controversy n. ['kɒntrəvɜ:sɪ] – спор, дискуссия

deviance adj. ['di:vɪəns] – отклонение, девиантность

domain n. [də'meɪn] – сфера (деятельности), область

enhance v. [ɪn'hɑ:ns] – улучшить

ethnicity n. [,eθ'nɪsɪti] – расовая принадлежность, этническая группа

evidence n. ['eɪdɪəns] – основание, доказательство, очевидность

experience n. [ɪk'spɪəriəns] – (жизненный) опыт, познание

explore v. [ɪk'splɔ:] – исследовать, изучать

guideline n. ['gaɪdlaɪn] – принцип, директива, руководящее указание

insulted adj. ['ɪn.sʌltɪd] – обиженный

interact v. [,ɪntə'rækt] – взаимодействовать

involve v. [ɪn'vɒlv] – включать, вовлекать

issue n. ['ɪʃ.u:] – проблемы

mold v. [məʊld] – формировать

poverty n. ['pɒvəti] – бедность, нищета

preach v. [pri:tʃ] – проповедовать

profoundly adv. [prə'faʊnd.li] – глубоко

regarding adv. [rɪ'gɑ:dɪŋ] – относительно, касательно

relevant adj. ['reləvənt] – значимый, уместный, относящийся к делу

revolt n. [rɪ'vəʊlt] – мятеж, бунт

revolve v. [rɪ'vɒlv] – вращаться

rigorous adj. ['rɪg.ər.əs] – строгий, тщательный, точный

willingness n. ['wɪlɪŋnɪs] – готовность

5. Read and translate the text using a dictionary if necessary:

What Is Sociology?

The American Sociological Association (2006) describes “sociology as the study of social life, social change, and the social causes and consequences of human behavior”. The ASA contends that “sociologists investigate the structure of groups, organizations, and societies, and how people interact within these contexts”. Sociology is the scientific study of society and human behavior. This means, when sociologists apply their trade, they use a rigorous methodology.

The influence of society is the central question asked by sociologists when they attempt to explain human behavior. People are social beings more than they are individuals. Our thinking and motivation are largely shaped by our life experiences as we interact with one another. According to Barkan (1997:4), “society profoundly shapes their behavior and attitudes”. We exist within social structure, which refers to patterns of social interaction and social relationships. Social structure, in turn, has great influence on who we are as individuals. It influences our behavior, our attitudes, and our life chances. Social structure is complex and often contradictory.

A. Topics of Study

Subject areas in Sociology are as varied as society itself.

- Sociologists can study very small social relationships involving only a few people (such as the family). They can also explore relationships in much larger social collectivities such as organizations and institutions.
- Sociology may be concerned with issues revolving around social class, poverty, gender, race and ethnicity, or religion as well as social mobility and education. Other topics may include culture, socialization, conflict, power, and deviance.
- Very large social relationships such as those between nation states are also the domain of sociology as are the characteristics of the economy and political system. In fact, the whole topic of globalization is relevant to sociologists.

B. The Relationship between People and Structure

Within the vast field of sociology, the common denominator is people. Sociology explores the “forces that influence people and help shape their lives ... Society shapes what we do, how we do it, and how we understand what others do” (Univ. of Limerick 2007). Options in life are determined in the past and are molded by currently existing structures that provide well-established guidelines for how individuals conduct their lives. To quote Macionis and Plummer, “In the game of life, we may decide how to play our cards, but it is society that deals us the hand”.

C. Critical Thinking

Sociology requires one to look at the world critically. Peter Berger argues that students of sociology should acquire a healthy skepticism regarding overly simplified (or commonly accepted) conceptions of human affairs. Critical thinking is a willingness to ask any question, no matter how difficult; to be open to any answer that is supported by reason and evidence; and to confront one’s own biases and prejudices openly when they get in the way (Appelbaum and Chambliss, 1997:5).

Given that Sociology explores problems of pressing interest; its topics are often objects of major controversy and conflict in society itself (see Giddens, 1987:2). Rarely do sociologists “preach” revolt, but they do call attention to the fundamental social questions of our day. Sociology helps bring contentious issues into sharper focus. In doing so, however, feelings may get hurt and individuals may become insulted. I will probably step on everyone's toes at least once. In advance, I apologize.

Stepping on toes, after all, is nothing new for sociology. Sometimes sociologists step on toes of high ranking officials to the point where national governments advocate a policy of limiting the number of sociologists.

D. Multiple Perspectives

“Sociology provides many distinctive perspectives on the world, generating new ideas and critiquing the old” (ASA 2006). Sociology, as a matter of course, utilizes multiple perspectives when critiquing social phe-

nomena. It, likewise, employs a wide range of methodological techniques to answer questions that have social relevance.

We should come to realize that there are a variety of points of view on any given subject. These points of view are perspectives. Perspectives are limited. Social facts, therefore, are understood in the context of many perspectives which are often complex and contradictory. Sociology is a method of organizing your thoughts about society and your place in society.

E. Beyond Sociology: Benefits of Studying Sociology

There are numerous reasons why one might want to study sociology even if they do not work in sociology directly. World Wide Learn (2007) points out that a background in sociology:

- assists one in recognizing trends and patterns in society,
- allows the development of critical thinking skills,
- encourages good research skills in data collection,
- instructs in creating concise reports and essays,
- develops planning and organizational skills,
- augments oral presentation skills and interpersonal communications,
- enhances management skills and grant writing ability.

Sociology is useful in “social and marketing research, sport development, psychology, law, human resources management, information science, journalism, and corporate communications, geography and environmental management, and development studies”.

(Source: <https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-1-lecture-notes-1-3/1097337/view>)

6. Answer the following questions:

1. What is Sociology?
2. Who said that “society profoundly shapes their behavior and attitudes”?

3. What is the central question asked by sociologists when they attempt to explain human behavior?
4. What is the impact of the social structure on our lives?
5. What does Sociology say about the relationships between people and structure?
6. What are the main topics of Sociology?
7. What does *critical thinking* mean?
8. Why should students of Sociology have critical thinking?
9. What is the significance of multiple perspectives in Sociology?
10. What are the benefits of studying Sociology?

7. Match the words with their definitions:

1	Augment	A	causing a lot of argument and disagreement between people
2	Bias	B	to increase the value, amount, effectiveness etc. of something
3	Concise	C	to carry out a particular activity or process, especially in order to get information or prove facts
4	Conduct	D	an opinion about whether a person, group, or idea is good or bad that influences how you deal with it
5	Contentious	E	facts or signs that show clearly that something exists or is true
6	Deviance	F	short, with no unnecessary words
7	Domain	G	when something is different, especially in a bad way, from what is considered normal
8	Enhance	H	rules or instructions about the best way to do something
9	Evidence	I	to improve something
10	Guideline	J	an area of activity, interest, or knowledge, especially one that a particu-

			lar person, organization etc. deals with
11	Insult	K	to influence the way someone's character or attitudes develop / to shape a soft substance by pressing or rolling it or by putting it into a mould
12	Mold	L	a refusal to accept someone's authority or obey rules or laws
13	Preach	M	to offend someone by saying or doing something they think is rude
14	Revolt	N	careful, thorough, and exact
15	Rigorous	O	to talk about a religious subject in a public place, especially in a church during a service

8. Fill in the blanks with the correct words:

1. The ASA contends that “sociologists ... the structure of groups, organizations, and societies, and how people ... within these contexts”.
2. People are ... more than they are individuals.
3. Our thinking and motivation are largely ... our life experiences as we interact with one another.
4. Sociology may be ... issues revolving around social class, poverty, gender, race and ethnicity, or religion as well as social mobility and education.
5. Sociology ... one to look at the world critically.
6. Peter Berger argues that students of sociology should ... a healthy skepticism regarding overly simplified (or commonly accepted) conceptions of human affairs.
7. Given that Sociology ... problems of pressing interest.
8. I will probably... everyone's toes at least once.
9. It is not ... support one view over another.
10. We should ... realize that there are a variety of points of view on any given subject.

Words: designed to, explores, investigate, come to, interact, concerned with, social beings, shaped by, step on, acquire, requires.

9. Translate the following sentences from Russian into English:

1) Социология — это научное исследование общества и поведения людей.

2) Влияние общества является главным вопросом, задаваемым социологами, когда они пытаются объяснить человеческое поведение.

3) Общественное устройство/социальный строй, в свою очередь, имеет огромное влияние на нас как личностей.

4) Социальный строй сложен и часто противоречив.

5) Области изучения в социологии столь же разнообразны, сколь и само общество.

6) Социологи могут изучать очень маленькие социальные связи, включающие лишь несколько людей (такие, как семья).

7) Социология изучает «силы, которые влияют на людей и помогают им сформировать их жизни».

8) Социология требует критического взгляда на мир.

9) Социология помогает заострить внимание на проблемах, приобретающих хронический характер.

10) Главная задача наших занятий — понять, что альтернативная точка зрения существует.

10. Complete the chart with the appropriate forms of the words if possible:

VERB	NOUN	ADJECTIVE
describe		
	sociology	
investigate		

	motivation	
interact		
		social
		contradictory
explore		
	context	
support		
	reason	
confront		
		pressing
	controversy	
agree		
		polite
	context	
	benefit	
encourage		
develop		

11. Read the text. Six sentences have been removed from it. Choose from the sentences (A-G) the one which fits each gap (1-6). There is one sentence you don't need to use.

a. Very large social relationships such as those between nation states are also the domain of sociology as are the characteristics of the economy and political system.

b. Within the vast field of sociology, the common denominator is people.

c. Our thinking and motivation are largely shaped by our life experiences as we interact with one another.

d. The general point of this class is to understand that alternate points of view exist.

e. To quote Macionis and Plummer, “In the game of life, we may decide how to play our cards, but it is society that deals us the hand”.

f. Critical thinking is a willingness to ask any question, no matter how difficult; to be open to any answer that is supported by reason and evidence; and to confront one’s own biases and prejudices openly when they get in the way.

g. Sociology is the scientific study of society and human behavior.

The American Sociological Association (2006) describes sociology as “the study of social life, social change, and the social causes and consequences of human behavior”. The ASA contends that “sociologists investigate the structure of groups, organizations, and societies, and how people interact within these contexts.”

1	
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This means, when sociologists apply their trade, they use a rigorous methodology. The influence of society is the central question asked by sociologists when they attempt to explain human behavior. People are social beings more than they are individuals.

2	
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According to Barkan (1997:4), “society profoundly shapes their behavior and attitudes”. We exist within social structure, which refers to patterns of social interaction and social relationships. Social structure, in turn, has great influence on who we are as individuals. It influences our behavior, our attitudes, and our life chances. Social structure is complex and often contradictory.

3	
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Sociology explores the “forces that influence people and help shape their lives ... Society shapes what we do, how we do it, and how we understand what others do” (Univ. of Limerick 2007). Options in life are determined in the past and are molded by currently existing structures that

provide well-established guidelines for how individuals conduct their lives.

4

Sociology requires one to look at the world critically. Peter Berger argues that students of sociology should acquire a healthy skepticism regarding overly simplified (or commonly accepted) conceptions of human affairs.

5

Given that Sociology explores problems of pressing interest; its topics are often objects of major controversy and conflict in society itself (see Giddens, 1987:2). Rarely do sociologists “preach” revolt, but they do call attention to the fundamental social questions of our day. Sociology helps bring contentious issues into sharper focus. In doing so, however, feelings may get hurt and individuals may become insulted. I will probably step on everyone's toes at least once. In advance, I apologize. It is important in a class like this one that we agree to disagree. I hope that we can be as polite as possible.

6

Text 2 Sociological Perspectives

Pre-reading tasks

1. Discuss the following in pairs:

You have already known that a variety of points of view on any given subject is called perspectives. Have you ever heard about Theoretical and Functionalist Perspectives? Speculate on the topic.

2. Study the following words and expressions:

adversely adv. [ˈædvɜːslɪ] – неблагоприятно

alter v. [ˈɒltər] – изменять

assumption n. [əˈsʌmpʃən] – предположение, представление

attempt v. [ə'tempt] – пытаться, стараться
 certain adj. ['sə:tən] – определенный, несомненный
 circumstance n. ['sɜ:kəmstəns] – обстоятельство
 consequence n. ['kɒnsɪkwəns] – следствие
 contribute v. [kən'trɪbjʊ:t] – делать (вносить) вклад
 encounter v. [ɪn'kaʊntər] – сталкиваться
 inequality n. [ɪnɪ'kwɒlɪtɪ] – неравенство
 inherently adv. [ɪn'hɪərəntli] – по своей сути, по природе
 interrelated adj. [ɪntəri'reɪtɪd] – взаимосвязанный
 justification n. [dʒʌstɪfɪ'keɪʃən] – оправдание, обоснование
 maintain v. [meɪn'teɪn] – поддерживать, сохранять
 perform v. [pə'fɔ:m] – выполнять, демонстрировать
 resist v. [rɪ'zɪst] – сопротивляться
 trace v. [treɪs] – прослеживать, следить

3. Read and translate the text using a dictionary if necessary:

I. What is a Theoretical Perspective?

Perspectives might best be viewed as models.

1. Each perspective makes assumptions about society.
2. Each one attempts to integrate various kinds of information about society.
3. Models give meaning to what we see and experience.
4. Each perspective focuses on different aspects of society.
5. Certain consequences result from using a particular model.

No one perspective is best in all circumstances. The perspective one uses may depend upon the question being asked. If one is exploring bureaucratic organization, then one might like to use a perspective that is concerned with social order. On the other hand, if one is concerned with social inequality, then perhaps the conflict perspective is more useful.

Perhaps the best perspective is one which combines many perspectives.

II. The Functionalist Perspective

1. The origins of the functionalist perspective can be traced to the work of Herbert Spencer and Emile Durkheim.

2. The problem of maintaining social order is a central problem for understanding society.

3. Understanding society from a functionalist perspective is to visualize society as a system of interrelated parts. All the parts act together even though each part may be doing different things.

4. Institutions, such as family, education, and religion are the parts of the social system and they act to bring about order in society.

5. Integration of the various parts is important. When all the “parts” of the system work together, balance is maintained and the overall order of the system is achieved.

6. Social structures in society promote integration, stability, consensus, and balance.

A. A System with Parts

The parts of society, while performing different functions, work together to maintain the stability of the whole social system.

In order to understand the idea of “social system”, it may be helpful to visualize a different kind of system. For example, biological organisms are systems. In fact, many sociologists use biological models to explain human society. The biological metaphor is successful in that it calls attention to how a social “organism” consists of various unique parts. Those parts, in turn, function together to support and maintain the whole system.

B. What's the Purpose?

Functionalists, like Emile Durkheim, Vilfredo Pareto, Talcott Parsons, and Robert Merton, are interested in how the parts of the social system contribute to the continuation of the social system. When functionalists encounter the various aspects of society, they may ask “What is its purpose?” A primary purpose of all parts (institutions like police, newspapers, religion) is to encourage consensus.

C. Critique of Functionalism

1. Functionalism Resists Change

Invoking a biological model has certain built-in assumptions connected to it. Biological organisms do not perform very well when they encounter great change in their environment. Society, however, is not biological. It is social. Social systems can tolerate much greater change than can biological systems.

2. Functionalism is Inherently Conservative

Change tends to be viewed as a negative consequence. All the parts of society act as a part of a unified system. Altering one part of the system has impact on all the other parts. Therefore, there is a tendency to protect existing institutions out of a fear that change in one area of society will adversely influence other parts of society. Fear of creating disorder in society is often used as a justification for avoiding change.

(Source: <https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-2-lecture-notes-3-8/1097344/view>)

4. Answer the following questions:

- 1) What are the main features of the Theoretical Perspective?
- 2) Is it possible to combine Perspectives?
- 3) What is a Functionalist Perspective?
- 4) Whose work can be attributed to the origins of the Functionalist Perspective?
- 5) What is a social system?
- 6) What is the main purpose of such parts of the social system as the police, newspapers, religion?
- 7) Is there any weak spot in the Functionalist Perspective?

5. Match the words with their synonyms:

1. Adversely	a. speculation
2. Alter	b. to stand against
3. Assumption	c. a try

4. Attempt	d. to change
5. Encounter	e. correlated
6. Inherently	f. to run back
7. Interrelated	g. negatively
8. Justification	h. to face
9. Resist	i. excuse
10. Trace	j. as a matter of fact

6. Match the two parts to make up a sentence:

1. The problem of maintaining social order	a. are the parts of the social system and they act to bring about order in society.
2. Understanding society from a functionalist perspective	b. it may be helpful to visualize a different kind of system.
3. Institutions, such as family, education, and religion	c. is a central problem for understanding society.
4. When all the “parts” of the system work together,	d. work together to maintain the stability of the whole social system.
5. The parts of society, while performing different functions,	e. to explain human society.
6. In order to understand the idea of “social system”,	f. is to visualize society as a system of interrelated parts.
7. In fact, many sociologists use biological models	g. balance is maintained and the overall order of the system is achieved.

7. Read the text quickly and explain the main idea in your own words.

8. Translate it into Russian in writing. Use a dictionary if necessary.

The Conflict Perspective

Conflict theorists see society less as a cohesive system and more as an arena of conflict and power struggles. Instead of people working together to further the goals of the “social system”,

- People are seen achieving their will at the expense of others.

- People compete against each other for scarce resources.
- Basic inequalities between various groups is a constant theme of conflict theory.
- Power, or the lack of it, is also a basic theme of conflict theory.
- Since some people benefit at the expense of others, those who benefit use ideology to justify their unequal advantage in social relationships.

Marx is a conflict theorist. He argued that the struggle between social classes was the major cause of change in society. Much change, in fact, happens as rich people and poor people compete over scarce resources.

(Source: <https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-2-lecture-notes-3-8/1097344/view>)

9. Read the following text quickly and write down its key words:

Not all conflict theorists are Marxist. Weber is also a conflict theorist. Whereas Marx focused on class conflict as the “engine” of historic change, others see conflict among groups and individuals as a fact of life in any society. Conflict can occur over many other aspects of society unrelated to class. For example, conflict can occur over water rights (in West Texas and New Mexico). Conflict occurs when two people have a car accident. Conflict occurs between men and women.

Both Functionalism and Conflict theory are macro perspectives. They focus on very large aspects of society. The functionalists might explore institutions. The conflict perspective, on the other hand is interested in the relationships that occur between social classes (like the working class and the owning class).

As a result of tension, hostility, competition, and disagreements over goals and values, change is one of the basic features in society. In general, change occurs because of inequality and the battle over scarce resources. Conflict occurs because people want things (power, wealth, and prestige) that are in short supply. One should realize that conflict is not intrinsically

bad. Conflict provides grounds where people unite in order that they may act on their common interests. Conflict is the motor for desirable change.

Like the functionalists, conflict theorists recognize the existence of social structures, but instead of structures existing for the good of the whole system, social structures (institutions) serve the interests of the powerful. One should also recognize the flip side of this coin. Structures that serve the powerful also are designed to keep other groups in society in their place for the privilege of others. Instead of following the functionalist path of addressing dysfunction (i.e. something that doesn't work) conflict theorists would ask "Who Benefits?"

(Source:<https://www.bataviacsd.org/site/handlers/filedownload.ashx?modulein-stanceid=613&dataid=2329&FileName=chapter%201a%20notes.pdf>)

10. Divide the text into logical parts and give a headline to each.

11. Retell the text using your plan and the key words you wrote for Ex.9.

12. Sum up all the information and vocabulary of the Unit. Using the active vocabulary and additional information make up a presentation on one of the following topics:

- Sociology
- Types of Perspectives (briefly describe each one)

Glossary of the module

Benefit n. ['benɪfɪt] – something that produces good or helpful results or effects or that promotes well-being.

Compete v. [kəm'pi:t] – be in a state of rivalry.

Consequence n. ['kɒnsɪkw(ə)ns] – something produced by a cause or necessarily following from a set of conditions.

Explore v. [ɪk'splɔ:] – to investigate, study, or analyze.

Hostility n. [hɒ'stɪləti] – conflict, opposition, or resistance in thought or principle.

Inequality n. [ɪnɪ'kwɒləti] – the quality of being unequal or uneven.

Influence n. ['ɪnflʊəns] – the capacity to have an effect on the character, development, or behaviour of someone or something, or the effect itself.

Interact v. [ɪntər'akt] – act in such a way as to have an effect on each other.

Interrelated adj. [ɪntərɪ'reɪtɪd] – having a mutual or reciprocal relation.

Perspective n. [pə'spektɪv] – a variety of points of view on any given subject

Scarce adj. [skeəs] – deficient in quantity or number compared with the demand.

Skepticism n. ['skeptɪsɪzəm] – an attitude of doubt or a disposition to incredulity either in general or toward a particular object.

Society n. [sə'saɪəti] – a particular large group of people who share laws, organizations, customs etc.

Sociology n. [ˌsəʊsɪ'ɒlədʒi] – the scientific study of societies and the behaviour of people in groups.

Tension n. ['tɛnʃən] – a state of latent hostility or opposition between individuals or groups.

MODULE 2

Text 3 Sociology as a Science

Part 1

Pre-reading tasks

1. Work in groups of three or four and discuss the following:

- Why is Sociology a science?
- What (other) sources of social knowledge about society do you know?

2. Before reading the text, practice the following proper names for pronunciation:

Neuman ['nu:mən]

Arnold Schwarzenegger ['ɑ:nld 'ʃwɔ:zə ,negə]

Gergen ['gɜ:ɡən]

D'Andrade [d'andrade]

Archimedes [,ɑ:kɪ'mi:di:z]

Galileo [,gæli'leɪəʊ]

Schaefer ['ʃeɪfə]

Lamm ['læm]

3. Study the following words and expressions:

ability to predict [ə'bilɪtɪ] [pri'dɪkt] – способность прогнозировать

cling to past traditions [kɪŋ] [pɑ:st] [trə'dɪʃnz] – цепляться за прошлые традиции

common sense ['kɒmən sɛns] – здравый смысл; практический ум

count n. [kaʊnt]– подсчет

dictatorship n. [dɪk'teɪtəʃɪp] – диктатура

distort reality [dɪs'tɔ:t rɪ'ælɪtɪ] – исказить действительность

Enlightenment period [ɪn'laɪnmənt 'prɪərɪəd] – эпоха Просвещения

every bit ['evri bɪt] – вылитый

ground v. [graʊnd] – основывать

inappropriate adj. [,ɪnə'prəʊpɪət] – неподходящий

intentionally adj. [ɪn'tenʃnəli] – намеренно
matter n. ['mætə] – предмет
mutate v. [mju:'teɪt] – видоизменяться
notorious adj. [nəʊ'tɔ:riəs] – печально известный
overestimate v. [əʊvər'estimeɪt] – переоценивать
prejudice n. ['preɪdʒʊdɪs] – предрассудок
vigorous adj. ['vɪgərəs] – сильный
wield v. [wi:ld] – обладать, владеть; уметь обращаться.

4. Read and translate the text using a dictionary if necessary:

Sociology as a Science

Social research is a process for producing new knowledge about the social world in a structured, organized, and systematic way (Neuman, 1997).

I. Why is Sociology a Science?

Why is social science (sociology) a science? Is sociology simply a pseudo-science? After all, its ability to predict the future is questionable! Isn't it? What is science? In mathematics, $2 + 2$ always = 4. Sociology often cannot make precise predictions.

In response, one might argue that just because the subject matter of sociology is more difficult to study than the subjects pursued in other sciences, it does not mean that the scientific method is inappropriate for the social sciences. The subject matter of sociology experiences continuous change. This fact alone renders efforts at prediction difficult. Problems relating to prediction can be found in the biological science as well. One should note the problems encountered as biologists try to track the AIDS virus. It too continually mutates.

Sociology is a science every bit as much as biology or chemistry. Social sciences, like natural and biological sciences, use a vigorous methodology. This means that a social scientist clearly states the problems he or she is interested in and clearly spells out how he or she arrives at their

conclusions. Generally, social scientists ground the procedure in a body of existing literature. This is precisely how other sciences function.

II. Alternatives to Science

The scientific method of understanding society is relatively new in the grand course of human history. It arose during the Enlightenment period in Europe during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Before exploring scientific sociology, let's begin with a brief discussion of other sources of social knowledge about society. I do this for two reasons:

In order to understand where we are, it is sometimes helpful to understand where we have come from and where we are going (with the lectures to follow). That is why we study history!

Further, a good way to determine the worth (or lack of worth) of anything social is within a comparative context that offers alternatives.

A. Authority

Often, we get our knowledge from significant others like parents, teachers, books, or political leaders. When one accepts something as true because someone in authority says it is true, then they are relying on authority. It is a quick, simple, and inexpensive way to gain information.

The problem associated with relying on authorities is that overestimating the expertise of someone or some publication is possible. An expert in one area might ...

- try to use his or her expertise in an area where the authority has little if any knowledge. Neuman (1997) reminds us that “experts” used to measure intelligence by counting the number of bumps on the skull.
- An overreliance on authority may also produce problems in a democratic society. Allowing authorities to wield too much authority can be dangerous! Over-reliance on authority might lead to dictatorship.

B. Tradition

Neuman contends that tradition is a special case of authority, the authority of the past. “It has always been done that way”. One problem with relying on tradition as a source of information is that conditions change. People can cling to past traditions without understanding why something

was true in the past (e.g., A shot of whiskey cures a cold). Tradition can also be based on simple prejudices that people pass down from one generation to the next. Even if traditional knowledge was once true, it can become distorted over time. (E.g., The best way to plow a field is with a mule-drawn plow, or one should always plant by the full moon.)

C. Common Sense

Common sense is the knowledge people gain about the world through their everyday experience. It works sometimes. In fact, sociology might require that one uses a little common sense when engaging in research projects. On the other hand, one still has to remember that common sense is not the truth in any objective sense. It is only a shared social idea that people find comfortable and safe.

D. Media Myths

This one is obvious. Have you ever heard Arnold Schwarzenegger say “Hasta la vista baby” for George Bush? The TV is notorious for distorting reality about crime, romance, etc. The news also can distort truth whether intentionally or otherwise (to meet deadlines, etc.).

(Source: <https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-3-lecture-notes-5-9/1097348/view>)

5. Answer the following questions:

- 1) What is Sociology? Is it a science or pseudo-science?
- 2) What is the subject matter of Sociology? What methodologies are used by social sciences?
- 3) When did the scientific method of understanding society arise?
- 4) Why do sociologists need to study history?
- 5) What problems are associated with relying on authorities?
- 6) Can we contend that a tradition is a special case of authority, and why?
- 7) What is “common sense”? How should common sense be used by social scientists?

6. Match the words with their definitions:

1	Cling	A	an unreasonable dislike and distrust of people who are different from you in some way, especially because of their race, sex, religion etc – used to show disapproval
2	Inappropriate	B	the ability to behave in a sensible way and make practical decisions
3	Mutate	C	quite; just; equally
4	Prejudice	D	to hold someone or something tightly, especially because you do not feel safe
5	Vigorous	E	to change the appearance, sound, or shape of something so that it is strange or unclear
6	Overestimate	F	to change and develop a new form; if an animal or plant mutates, it becomes different from others of the same kind, because of a change in its genetic structure
7	Ability	G	to be based on a particular idea, principle etc.
8	common sense	H	not suitable or right for a particular purpose or in a particular situation
9	Distort	I	the state of being able to do something
10	Matter	J	done deliberately and usually intended to cause harm
11	Intentionally	K	using a lot of energy and strength or determination
12	Dictatorship	L	the process of counting, or the total that you get when you count things
13	Count	M	a subject or situation that you have to think about or deal with
14	Ground	N	a country that is ruled by one person who has complete power
15	Every bit	O	to think something is better, more important, etc., than it really is

7. Fill in the blanks with the correct words (see below):

- 1) In response, one might argue that just because the ... of Sociology is more difficult to study than the subjects pursued in other sciences, it does not mean that the scientific method is ... for the social sciences.
- 2) Problems relating to ... can be found in the biological science as well.
- 3) Sociology is a science ... as much as biology or chemistry.
- 4) Social sciences, like natural and biological sciences, use a ... methodology.
- 5) This means that a ... clearly states the problems he or she is interested in and clearly spells out how he or she arrives at their...
- 6) The scientific... of understanding society is... new in the grand course of human history.
- 7) It arose during the ... in Europe during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.
- 8) Further, a good way to ... the worth (or lack of worth) of anything social is within a comparative context that offers...
- 9) Often, we get our knowledge from ... like parents, teachers, books, or political leaders.
- 10) When one accepts something as true because someone in authority says it is true, then they are ... on authority.
- 11) The problem associated with relying on authorities is that ... the expertise of someone or some publication is possible.
- 12) Allowing authorities to ... too much authority can be dangerous!
- 13) People can ... to past traditions without understanding why something was true in the past.
- 14) Tradition can also be based on simple ... that people pass down from one generation to the next.
- 15) ... is the knowledge people gain about the world through their everyday experience.

Words: enlightenment period, cling, prediction, every bit, vigorous, prejudices, relying, social scientist, conclusions, method, relatively, inappropriate, subject matter, alternatives, overestimating, significant others, wield, determine, common sense.

8. Find words and phrases in the text which have the opposite meaning.

- 1) appropriate
- 2) underestimate
- 3) unintentionally
- 4) easy
- 5) vaguely
- 6) refuse
- 7) expensive
- 8) ignorance
- 9) mistrust
- 10) dangerous

9. Combine the words in column A with those in B to make up word combinations and use them in sentences of your own.

A

- 1) AIDS
- 2) common
- 3) social
- 4) media
- 5) scientific
- 6) Enlightenment
- 7) subject
- 8) traditional
- 9) distort
- 10) lead

B

- a) sense
- b) period
- c) method
- d) virus
- e) knowledge
- f) to dictatorship
- g) research
- h) truth
- i) matter
- j) myths

Part 2

1. Read the following text quickly and write down its key words:

The Scientific Method

The scientific method is a systematic, organized series of steps that ensures maximum objectivity and consistency in researching a problem. The following are some components of the scientific method.

A. Test ideas. Don't take assumptions for granted. Don't rely on common sense. Don't rely on traditional authority figures.

B. Evidence must be observable. Evidence should be observable because other sociologists might want to perform the same study in order to verify or refute findings.

C. Describe how evidence is gathered.

Any study of society should specify the methods the researcher used to obtain his or her information, the setting (where the researcher conducted the study), and the population (whom they studied). This is done so that other social scientists may test your findings. Social scientists are cautious in accepting the findings of others. Studies are often replicated to verify findings of initial studies.

D. Theory

A theory is a set of ideas [generalizations] supported by facts. Theories try to make sense out of those facts. Social scientists seldom accept theories as laws. Often they are not considered totally true. Furthermore, the subjects they attempt to explain (i.e. people and social institutions) are variable. Gergen in D'Andrade (1986:27) states:

“It may be ventured that with all its attempts to emulate natural science inquiry, the past century of sociobehavioral research and theory has failed to yield a principle as reliable as Archimedes principle of hydrostatics or Galileo's Law of uniformly accelerated motion”.

E. Hypothesis

Because theories are general ideas, social scientists do not test them directly. A hypothesis is a speculative (or tentative) statement that predicts

the relationship between two or more variables. It is, in essence, an educated guess. It specifies what the researcher expects to find. To be considered meaningful, a hypothesis must be testable; that is, capable of being evaluated.

(Source: <https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-3-lecture-notes-5-9/1097348/view>)

2. Divide the text into logical parts and give a headline to each part.

3. Retell the text using your plan and the key words you wrote for

Ex.1.

Text 4 What is Hunger?

Thanks to FOOD FIRST for permission to reprint this article which was originally found in the January/February, 1987 edition of the La Montanita Food Co-op Newsletter in Albuquerque, New Mexico. Later this article was reprinted in the Paso Del Norte Food Co-op's May, 1987 newsletter in El Paso, Texas.

1. Work with a partner. Student A: read **Part 1**. Student B: read **Part**

2.

2. Make up a summary of your text in English to tell the partner.

3. Listen to your partner's summary, ask him / her questions.

Text 4. Part 1

The material presented below is intended to complement the discussion concerning problems with science. It's not meant as a critique of those who use quantitative methods. Rather, "What is Hunger" is included to highlight the idea that the research method chosen has significant impact on the type of questions one might ask as well as the conclusions one might draw.

Despite a year of heightened attention to famine in Africa and huge amounts of donated food, millions of people on that continent are still starving. This is hunger in its acute form, but there is another form. It is

less visible. It is the chronic, day-in, day-out hunger afflicting as many as 800-million people. While chronic hunger rarely makes headlines, it is just as deadly. Each year it kills as many as 18-million people—more than twice as many as died annually during World War II.

These statistics are staggering. They shock and alarm, however, several years ago I began to doubt the usefulness of such numbers. Numbers can numb, distancing us from what is actually very close to us.

So I ask myself – what really is hunger?

Is it the gnawing pain in the stomach when we try to stay on that new diet? Is it the physical depletion that comes with chronic undernutrition?

Yes, but it is more. I became convinced that as long as we conceive of hunger only in physical measures, we will never truly understand it, certainly not its roots.

What, I ask myself, would it mean to think of hunger in terms of universal human feelings, feelings that each one of us have experienced at some time in our lives? I will mention only three such emotions to give you an idea of what I mean.

To begin with, being hungry means making choices that no human being should have to make. In Guatemala, many poor Indian families send a son to join the army. They know that this same army is responsible for killing tens of thousands of civilians, mostly the Indians themselves. But the \$25 a month the army pays each soldier's family—half the total income of a typical poor family in Guatemala – may be the only means the family has to feed their other children.

Dr. Charles Clements is a former Air Force Pilot and Vietnam veteran who, as a medical doctor, spent a year treating peasants in El Salvador. In his book, *Witness to War*, he describes a family whose son and daughter had died from fever and diarrhea. “Both had been lost”, he writes, “in the years when Camila and her husband had chosen to pay their mortgage, a sum equal to half the value of their crop, rather than keep the money to feed their children. Each year, the choice was always the same. If they

paid, their children's lives were endangered. If they didn't, their land could be repossessed”.

Thus, being hungry means anguish, the anguish of making impossible choices. But it is more.

(Source: <https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-3-lecture-notes-5-9/1097348/view> “What is hunger?”)

Vocabulary

acute adj. [ə'kju:t] – острый

afflict v. [ə'flikt] – причинять страдание, приводить в отчаяние

anguish n. ['æŋɡwɪʃ] – мука, мучение

civilians n. [sə'vɪljən] – гражданское население, мирные жители

complement v. ['kɒmpləmənt] – дополнять

conceive v. [kən'si:v] – воспринимать, осмысливать

day-in, day-out – изо дня день

depletion n. [di'pli:ʃən] – истощение

donate v. [dəʊ'neɪt] – внести пожертвование

endanger v. [ɪn'deɪndʒə] – подвергать опасности, ставить под угрозу

famine n. ['fæmɪn] – голод

gnawing adj. ['nɔ:ɪŋ] – терзающий, ноющий

mortgage n. ['mɔ:ɡɪdʒ] – ипотечный кредит

newsletter n. ['nju:zletə] – информационный бюллетень

numb v. [nʌm] – вызывать онемение

peasants n. ['pezənt] – крестьяне

repossess v. [ˌri:pə'zes] – изымать

staggering adj. ['stægəriŋ] – ужасающий, ошеломляющий

undernutrition n. [ˌʌndənju:'triʃən] – неполноценное питание, нехватка питательных веществ

Text 4 Part 2

In the United States and throughout the world, the poor are made to blame themselves for their poverty. Walking into a home in the rural Philippines, the first words I heard were an apology for the poverty of the dwelling. Today, millions of Americans who once proudly claimed they would not accept welfare are dependent on soup kitchens to feed their families.

Being hungry means living in humiliation.

Anguish and humiliation are a part of what hunger means, but increasingly throughout the world, hunger has a third dimension. In Guatemala, in 1978, I met two highland peasants. With the help of a U.S. based voluntary aid group, they were teaching other poor peasants to make “contour ditches”, reducing the erosion on the steep slopes to which they had been pushed by wealthy land-owners in the valley. Two years later, the friend who had introduced us visited our institute in San Francisco. I learned that one of the peasants I had met had been killed and the other had been forced to go underground. Their crime was teaching their neighbors better farming techniques. Any change that might make the poor less dependent on low-paying jobs on plantations threatens Guatemala's oligarchy.

Increasingly, then, the third dimension of hunger is fear.

What if we were to refuse simply to count the hungry? What if instead we tried to understand hunger as three universal emotions: anguish, humiliation, and fear? We would discover that how we understand hunger determines what we think are its solutions.

If we think of hunger as numbers (numbers of people with too few calories), the solution also appears to us in numbers (numbers of tons of food aid or numbers of dollars in economic assistance). But once we understand hunger as real families coping with the most painful of human emotions, we can perceive hunger's roots in powerlessness. We need only ask ourselves: when we have experienced any of these emotions ourselves,

hasn't it been when we felt out of control of our lives? Powerless to protect ourselves and those we love?

Truly, then hunger is the ultimate symbol of powerlessness.

With this insight, our responsibility to the hungry becomes clear. Food giveaways can fill bellies but they can never end hunger. For unlike food, one cannot give people power over their lives. What we can do, however, is make sure that we do not further undercut the hungry by blocking their efforts at change. Instead of asking ourselves how many tons of food or how many dollars in aid poor people need, we must ask ourselves: Are the policies of our government and multinational corporations shoring up the political and economic power of a few, making the powerlessness of the many inevitable?

Statistics will not provide the answer to such a question. Only identifying with needless human suffering will.

(Source: <https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-3-lecture-notes-5-9/1097348/view> “What is hunger?”)

Vocabulary

contour ditches ['kɒntʊə dɪtʃ] – контурная дренажная канава

dimension n. [daɪ'menʃən] – величина, аспект, степень

dwelling n. ['dwɛlɪŋ] – жилище

giveaways n. ['gɪvəweɪz] – бесплатная раздача

humiliation n. [hju:mɪlɪ'eɪʃən] – унижение

increasingly adv. [ɪn'kri:ʃɪŋli] – более того, все сильнее

inevitable adj. [ɪn'evɪtəbl] – неизбежный

needless adj. ['ni:dlɪs] – излишний

powerlessness n. ['paʊələsnɪs] – беспомощность

rural adj. ['rʊərəl] – сельский

soup kitchens [su:p 'kɪtʃɪn] – бесплатная столовая для нуждающихся

steep slopes [sti:p sləʊp] – крутой уклон

threaten v. ['θreɪn] – грозить
to cope with [tu: kəʊp wɪθ] – справляться
to shore up [tu: ʃɔ:r ʌp] – подпира́ть
ultimate adj. ['ʌltɪmət] – окончáтельный
undercut v. [ʌndə'kʌt] – сбивáть
welfare n. ['welfeə]– социальное обеспечение

Now read the whole text and do the following tasks:

4. Answer the questions:

- 1) What is the less visible form of hunger?
- 2) Is the chronic, day-in, day-out hunger as deadly as hunger in its acute form?
- 3) Can numbers numb?
- 4) Does the chronic hunger often make headlines?
- 5) Can we truly understand hunger and its roots as long as we conceive of it only in physical measures?
- 6) Why do many poor Indian families in Guatemala send a son to join the army?
- 7) How much does the army pay each soldier's family?
- 8) Who is Dr. Charles Clements?
- 9) Why should we refuse simply to count the hungry?
- 10) What are the three universal emotions which make us think of hunger as of the ultimate symbol of powerlessness?

5. Find the terms in the texts which mean the following.

- 1) Happening in or relating to the countryside, not the city.
- 2) Anyone who is not a member of the military forces or the police
- 3) A feeling of shame and great embarrassment, because you have been made to look stupid or weak.
- 4) Something that is given away free, especially something that a

shop gives you when you buy a product

- 5) A house, apartment etc. where people live.
- 6) A deficiency of calories or of one or more essential nutrients.
- 7) A situation in which a large number of people have little or no food for a long time and many people die.
- 8) When an amount of something is greatly reduced or nearly all used up.
- 9) A legal arrangement by which you borrow money from a bank or similar organization in order to buy a house, and pay back the money over a period of years.
- 10) Mental or physical suffering caused by extreme pain or worry

6. Match the following words with their synonyms:

- 1) welfare
- 2) powerlessness
- 3) ultimate
- 4) threaten
- 5) afflict
- 6) peasant
- 7) inevitable
- 8) famine
- 9) staggering
- 10) fear
- a) final
- b) distress
- c) hunger
- d) benefit
- e) unavoidable
- f) stunning
- g) weakness
- h) farmer
- i) fright
- j) menace

7. Complete the table with the correct form of the word.

VERB	NOUN	NOUN	ADJECTIVE
	humiliation	powerlessness	
threaten			inevitable
afflict			gnawing
donate			staggering
endanger		anguish	

8. Sum up all the information and vocabulary of the Unit. Using the active vocabulary and additional information make up a presentation on one of the following topics:

- Sociology as a Science
- the Hunger

Glossary of the module

Anguish n. [ˈaŋɡwɪʃ] – severe mental or physical pain or suffering.

Authority n. [ɔːˈθɔːrɪti] – a person or organization having political or administrative power and control.

Common sense n. [ˈkɒmən sɛns] – the knowledge people gain about the world through their everyday experience.

Depletion n. [dɪˈpliːʃn] – reduction in the number or quantity of something.

Evidence n. [ˈeɪvɪd(ə)ns] – the available body of facts or information indicating whether a belief or proposition is true or valid.

Famine n. [ˈfæmɪn] – an extreme scarcity of food.

Humiliation n. [ˌhjuːmɪliˈeɪʃn] – the action of humiliating someone or the state of being humiliated.

Hypothesis n. [hɪˈpɒθɪsɪs] – a supposition or proposed explanation made on the basis of limited evidence as a starting point for further investigation.

Powerlessness n. [ˈpaʊələsniːs] – lack of ability, influence, or power.

Prejudice n. [ˈpreɪdʒʊdɪs] – preconceived opinion that is not based on reason or actual experience.

Pseudo-science n. [ˈsjʊːdəʊˌsaɪəns] – a collection of beliefs or practices mistakenly regarded as being based on scientific method.

Science n. [ˈsaɪəns] – knowledge about the world, especially based on examining, testing, and proving facts.

Scientific method [ˌsaɪənˈtɪfɪk ˈmɛθəd] – a systematic, organized se-

ries of steps that ensures maximum objectivity and consistency in researching a problem.

Theory ['θiəri] – a set of ideas supported by facts.

MODULE 3

Text 5 Culture and Society

Part 1

Pre-reading tasks

1. Work in groups of three or four and discuss the following:

- Try to give a definition to the word “culture”.
- What types of culture can you name?
- What is a subculture?

2. Before reading the text, practice the following proper names for pronunciation:

Schaefer ['ʃeɪfə]

Appalachia [ˌæpə'lætʃiə]

Charon [tʃarən]

Weber ['weɪbə]

Hostetler ['hɔːstetlə]

Keiser ['kaɪsə]

3. Study the following words and expressions:

account for [tə ə'kaʊnt fɔːr] – объяснять

assume v. [ə'sju:m] – предполагать

attempt v. [ə'tempt] – пытаться

beneficial adj. [benɪ'fɪʃəl] – благотворный

bonding adj. ['bɒndɪŋ] – связующий

brotherhood n. ['brʌðəhʊd] – братство

concoct v. [kən'kɔkt] – придумывать

connotation n. [kənə'teɪʃən] – созначéние
 contamination n. [kən'tæməneɪt] – зараженность, загрязнение
 countercultures n. ['kaʊntə,kʌltʃə] – контркультура
 daring n. ['deərɪŋ] – смéлость
 distinctive adj. [dɪs'tɪŋktɪv] – своеобразный
 falsehood n. ['fɔ:lshud] – ложь
 in essence n. ['esəns] – в сущности
 inappropriate adj. [ɪnə'prəʊpriət] – неподходящий
 nitty-gritty n. [ˌnɪti 'grɪti] – суть
 particular adj. [pə'tɪkjulər] – определенный
 protection money [prə'tekʃən 'mʌni] – плáта за «крышу»
 regardless adv. [rɪ'gɑ:dli:s] – не счита́ясь с
 reinforce v. [ri:ɪn'fɔ:s] – укреплять
 relativism n. ['relətɪvɪzəm] – относительность
 salvation n. [sæl'veɪʃən] – спасéние
 superficial adj. [ˌsu:pə'fɪʃəl] – поверхностный
 to hustle money from [tu: 'hʌsl 'mʌni frəm] – «трясти» дéньги с
 когó-либó
 to jump somebody [tu: dʒʌmp 'sʌmbədi] – набрóситься на когó-
 либó
 to strip away [tu: stri:p ə'weɪ] – сдирáть
 wickedness n. ['wɪkɪdnɪs] – грехóвность

4. Read and translate the text using a dictionary if necessary:

I. Culture and Society

A. What is Culture?

Culture is the totality of learned, socially transmitted behavior.

Culture is all the values, norms, and customs that people share with one another.

Culture includes language and beliefs

Culture is all of the material objects such as monuments, three-piece suits, the lottery, fur coats, and fine automobiles.

Culture is ideas (like the belief in democracy and freedom) found within a society.

Culture is what individuals think is right and important as they interact.

Culture is a way of life. When people talk about “the way of life” of people with a distinctive life style, whether they live in Appalachia or Norway, they are talking about culture. It defines what is important and unimportant. Culture refers to everything that people create. Values, norms, goals, and culture in general, develop as people interact with one another over time.

Culture accounts, in part, for the unprecedented success of the human species. It allows us to adapt to extreme environments. We could not survive without our culture. In a sense, we create our culture, but our culture, in turn, recreates us (See Robertson, 1989:38-42).

Culture provides the context (back ground) that we use to interact with each other. It defines boundaries that we use to distinguish us from them.

B. Language. Henslin (2006:38-40) notes that language is the primary way people communicate with one another. It’s a system of symbols which all use to communicate abstract thought (Henslin, 2004:40). It’s a perspective which allows culture to exist. Language is universal in that all cultures have it, but it is not universal in that people attach different meanings to particular sounds.

1. The Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis

The Sapir-Whorf hypothesis argues that language provides categories through which social reality is defined and constructed. It argues that thinking and perception are not only expressed through language but also shaped by language.

C. Perspectives

We need to keep in mind the notion of perspective when talking about culture. A culture is a “shared perspective”. It is not absolute truth. Perspectives are limited by their nature. They allow us to see life from only a certain angle. As we interact, we come to share ideas about the way the world is. Perspectives filter what we see (Charon, 1986:199-203). Example: “The Allegory of the Cave”.

D. Ethnocentrism

Ethnocentrism, according to Farley (1995), refers to the tendency to view one's own culture as the norm. There is a tendency to assume one's culture is superior to others. “Our” truths and values are so central to whom “we” are that it is difficult to accept the possibility that our culture represents only one of many. A particular culture does not represent universal “TRUTH”. This is not to say that to be proud of one's heritage is inappropriate. On the contrary, a little ethnocentrism is beneficial because of its bonding effect. Ethnocentrism becomes a problem when we expect others to become like us.

E. Cultural Relativism and Verstehen

To accurately study unfamiliar cultures, sociologists have to be aware of culturally-based biases. Max Weber advocates the use of “value-free” Sociology, which means that one should eliminate as much as possible, bias and prejudice.

Weber calls attention to the German idea of *verstehen* to describe the practice of understanding unique culture from the standpoint of others. Cultural relativism refers to the understanding of a culture on its own terms. In essence “you have to be able to stand in the other person’s shoes”. When you can “see” from the perspective of another, then you can understand that culture.

Variations within Cultures: Sub-Cultures and Counter Cultures

Some cultures in the U.S. have remained relatively isolated from the dominant culture. These are subcultures. Charon (1986:199) points out, that subcultures have goals, values, and norms that are different from those of the dominant culture. Although their culture differs from the dominant

culture, they do not openly oppose the dominant culture. Members of subcultures are usually content to avoid the dominant culture.

Countercultures, on the other hand, like the SDS, Hippies, and the Black Panthers are examples of subcultures that openly oppose the dominant culture. Countercultures actively seek to change the dominant culture.

The following are two examples of subcultures. They are not counter cultures. Neither group seeks to change the status quo.

A. The Amish

The Amish represents a subculture. Hostetler (1980 in Charon, 1986:218) describes the Amish as governed by the teachings of the Bible. There is a strong desire among the Amish to separate themselves from the outside world. They have a dualistic view of the world. They see good and evil, light and darkness, truth and falsehood. The Amish have little interest in improving the material world. Instead they seek salvation.

The goal of the Amish is to separate themselves (as much as possible) from the “negative”. They define negative as urban and distant from God. They see the city as the “center of leisure”, of non-productivity, and wickedness. To avoid evil, the Amish forbid all intimate contact with outsiders. Contamination by the outside world tempts one away from the Kingdom of God. Part of the separation from the outside includes not using electricity, telephones, or automobiles. Married men grow beards, but are not allowed to grow mustaches. They do not encourage formal education past elementary school. The Amish use horses and other non-mechanical equipment for farming.

B. The Vice Lords

The Vice Lords is another subculture. In a book called *Vice Lords* R. Lincoln Keiser (in Charon, 1987:221-4) discussed four aspects [which Keiser calls ideological sets] that the Vice Lords use to define their world and guide their actions. Keiser defines four ideological sets which he calls Heart ideology, Soul ideology, brotherhood ideology, and game ideology.

1. Heart Ideology:

Heart ideology refers to the displays of courage and daring which are important for the Vice Lords. A member has to show that he's willing to put his personal safety on the line. An individual who talks a lot about fighting, but who doesn't back up his rhetoric is a “punk”.

2. Soul Ideology:

Soul for the Vice Lords has the same general connotation as it does for the Black community. Soul refers to ways of conducting oneself that strips away the superficial surface and gets down to the nitty-gritty. Soul is the essence of the Black community. The Vice Lords judge one another in terms of soul.

3. Brotherhood Ideology:

The spirit of brotherhood is also important. Drinking wine is an important shared social experience for the group. Each person contributes what money he has for a “bottle”. Each then gets an equal amount regardless of how much money he puts in. Drinking wine reinforces the brotherhood.

4. Game Ideology:

In “game ideology” the gang member attempts to manipulate other gang members by playing games. Manipulating others through games is a significant part of the Vice Lords life. Such games may include hustling money from strangers. A “light weight” game player may simply ask for money. More than likely he gets turned down. A “heavy” on the other hand may concoct a story that another street gang is going to jump the stranger. Therefore the stranger should pay protection money to the “lords”.

(Source:<https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-4-lecture-notes-8-9/1097356/view>)

5. Answer the following questions:

- 1) Does culture allow us to adapt to extreme environments?
- 2) Does culture recreate us?
- 3) Can we survive without our culture?

- 4) Do people attach different meanings to particular sounds?
- 5) Who argues that language provides categories through which social reality is defined and constructed?
- 6) Can a little ethnocentrism be beneficial?
- 7) Who advocates the use of “value-free sociology”?
- 8) Are there any variations within cultures?
- 9) Is there a strong desire among the Amish to separate themselves from the outer world?
- 10) What aspects do the Vice Lords use to define their world?

6. Match the words with their definitions:

1	distinctive	A	to give a satisfactory explanation of why something has happened or why you did something
2	account for	B	a quality or an idea that a word makes you think of that is more than its basic meaning
3	salvation	C	the art, beliefs, behavior etc. of people who are against the usual or accepted behavior, art etc. of society
4	assume	D	having a special quality, character, or appearance that is different and easy to recognize
5	beneficial	E	an opinion about whether a person, group, or idea is good or bad that influences how you deal with it
6	reinforce	F	to think that something is true, although you do not have definite proof
7	Bias	G	something that prevents or saves someone or something from danger, loss, or failure
8	connotation	H	having a good effect
9	relativism	I	not studying or looking at something carefully and only seeing the most noticeable things
10	counterculture	J	to give support to an opinion, idea, or feeling, and make it stronger

11	superficial	K	to make a place or substance dirty or harmful by putting something such as chemicals or poison in it
12	bonding	L	the belief in philosophy that nothing is absolutely true and that things can only be judged in comparison with one another
13	brotherhood	M	to invent a clever story, excuse, or plan, especially in order to deceive someone
14	contamination	N	a feeling of friendship between people
15	concoct	O	a process in which a special relationship develops between two or more people

7. Read the text. Six sentences have been removed from it. Choose from the sentences (A-G) the one which fits each gap (1-6). There is one sentence you don't need to use.

- a. Cultural relativism refers to the understanding of a culture on its own terms. In essence “you have to be able to stand in the other person’s shoes”.
- b. “Our” truths and values are so central to whom “we” are that it is difficult to accept the possibility that our culture represents only one of many.
- c. They see good and evil, light and darkness, truth and falsehood.
- d. Ethnocentrism becomes a problem when we expect others to become like us.
- e. Charon points out that subcultures have goals, values, and norms that are different from those of the dominant culture.
- f. Countercultures actively seek to change the dominant culture.
- g. Contamination by the outside world tempts one away from the Kingdom of God.

Ethnocentrism, according to Farley (1988:16-17), refers to the tendency to view one's own culture as the norm. There is a tendency to assume one's culture as superior to others.

1

A particular culture does not represent universal “TRUTH”. This is not to say that to be proud of one's heritage is inappropriate. On the contrary, a little ethnocentrism is beneficial because of its bonding effect.

2

To accurately study unfamiliar cultures, sociologists have to be aware of culturally-based biases. Max Weber advocates the use of “value-free” Sociology, which means that one should eliminate as much as possible, bias and prejudice. Weber calls attention to the German idea of verstehen to describe the practice of understanding unique culture from the standpoint of others.

3

When you can “see” from the perspective of another, then you can understand that culture. Some cultures in the U.S. have remained relatively isolated from the dominant culture. These are subcultures.

4

Although their culture differs from the dominant culture, they do not openly oppose the dominant culture. Members of subcultures are usually content to avoid the dominant culture. Countercultures, on the other hand, like the SDS, Hippies, and the Black Panthers are examples of subcultures that openly oppose the dominant culture.

5

The following are two examples of subcultures. They are not counter cultures. Neither group seeks to change the status quo. The Amish represents a subculture. Hostetler describes the Amish as governed by the teachings of the Bible. There is a strong desire among the Amish to separate themselves from the outside world. They have a dualistic view of the world.

6

The Amish have little interest in improving the material world. Instead they seek salvation. The goal of the Amish is to separate them-

selves (as much as possible) from the “negative”. They define negative as urban and distant from God. They see the city as the “center of leisure”, of non-productivity, and wickedness. To avoid evil, the Amish forbid all intimate contact with outsiders.

8. Fill in the blanks with the correct words:

1) When people talk about ... of people with a distinctive life style, whether they live in Appalachia or Norway, they are talking about culture.

2) ... refers to everything that people create.

3) It's a ... which allows culture to exist.

4) The Sapir-Whorf ... argues that language provides categories through which social reality is defined and constructed.

5) There is a ... to assume one's culture is superior to others.

6) A particular culture does not ... universal “TRUTH”.

7) To accurately study unfamiliar cultures, sociologists have to be aware of culturally-based...

8) Cultural ... refers to the understanding of a culture on its own terms.

9) Charon points out that ... have goals, values, and norms that are different from those of the dominant culture.

10) ... by the outside world tempts one away from the Kingdom of God.

Words: biases, contamination, culture, hypothesis, tendency, perspective, relativism, “the way of life”, subcultures, represent.

Part 2

Text 6 Socialization

Pre-reading tasks

1. Discuss the following in pairs:

Try to define the term “nurture”. Speculate on the importance of cultural and biological factors in the developmental process of human beings.

2. Study the following words and expressions:

acquire personality [ə'kwɪə pə'sə'nælɪti] – приобретать индивидуальность

anticipatory socialization [an'tɪsɪpə't(ə)rɪ ,səʊʃələ'zeɪʃən] – предварительная социализация

authority n. [ɔ:'θɒrɪti] – власть, начальство

convent n. ['kɒnv(ə)nt] – монастырь

encompass v. [ɪn'kʌmpəs] – включать в себя

engage v. [ɪn'geɪdʒ] – участвовать

exposure n. [ɪk'spəʊʒə] – демонстрация

grasp v. [grɑ:sp] – хватать

heredity n. [hə'redəti] – наследственность

in all likelihood [ɪn ɔ:l 'lɪkli'hʊd] – по всей вероятности

nurture n. ['nɜ:rtʃər] – воспитание

override v. [,əʊvə'reɪd] – отвергать, отменять

primary socialization ['prɪm(ə)rɪ ,səʊʃələ'zeɪʃən] – первичная социализация

reinforce v. [ri:ɪn'fɔ:s] – укреплять

superimposed adj. [,su:pə'ɪm'pəʊzd] – наложенный

total institution ['təʊt(ə)l ɪnstɪ'tju:ʃ(ə)n] – тотальный институт

voluntarily adv. ['vɒl(ə)ntrɪli] – добровольно

3. Read the first extract quickly and explain the main idea in your

own words:

Socialization

I. Nature vs. Nurture

The nature vs. nurture debate explores the relative importance of cultural (social environment) and biological (heredity) factors in the developmental process of human beings. Is our biology most important in determining who we are or is our social environment? Do we learn our character or is it determined at birth genetically? In all likelihood the answer to this question is a complex interaction between the two. Few would reject the position that biology plays an important role. Biology provides us with large brains that allow us to think abstractly (e.g., we can create things in our minds and build them in reality). Biology also provides us with opposable thumbs that allow us to grasp tools.

Learning is also very important in determining who we are. The chapter on culture points out that culture defines much of what is important to people. Further, it is responsible for our ability to adapt to the environment.

(Source: <https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-5-lecture-notes-7-10/1099109/view>)

4. Read the following text and write down its key words:

A. Twining Studies. It is often difficult to separate learning from our biology because we begin learning at the moment we are born. In order to document the effects of learning, social scientists sometimes use “twining studies”. By following the life course of twins, which are separated at birth, we are able to lend support to the hypothesis that the environment (e.g., learning) has far-reaching effects in human development. Social experiences appear to override biology. For example, Appelbaum and Chambliss (1997: 103-104) describe research involving twins, which compares criminal records of twins. The research shows a low correlation between genetic factors and criminal behavior. In other words, people learn

criminal behavior.

II. Socialization

Socialization is learning (see Charon, 1987:63-69). Socialization refers to all learning regardless of setting or age of the individual. Socialization is the process by which we learn the ways of a particular group. In every group one has to learn the rules, expectations, and truths of that group, whether the group is your family, the army, or the state (nation). Socialization is the process whereby people acquire personality and learn the way of life of their society. Essentially, one has to learn Culture. Learning culture encompasses all the truths, values, rules, and goals that people share with one another. Culture is a shared perspective. The most important time when socialization occurs is between the ages of one and ten. We obviously learn throughout our lives, but this first ten years is most important in determining who we are for the rest of our lives.

A. Primary Socialization. Primary socialization is the process whereby people learn the attitudes, values, and actions appropriate to individuals as members of a particular culture. For example, Eskimos learn to enjoy eating the raw intestines of birds and fish while Chinese people eat Carp's heads and the tripe (stomach tissue) of pigs.

B. Anticipatory Socialization. Anticipatory socialization refers to the processes of socialization in which a person "rehearses" for future positions, occupations, and social relationships (See Appelbaum & Chambliss, 1997:76). Henslin (2004:71) offers the example of a high school student who, upon hearing he had been accepted to a university, began to wear college student-type cloths.

The Looking-Glass Self

The looking-glass self is the term Charles Horton Cooley coined to describe the process by which we develop a sense of self. We see ourselves through the eyes of other people. We may even use those views of ourselves when formulating our own self-concept.

For example,

Mattie is a new sociology professor at the local college. During her first lec-

ture, she noticed that some students were yawning. Based on her interpretation of the students yawning, Mattie has decided she is a boring teacher.

C. Gender Socialization and Gender Roles. Henslin (1999:76) contends that “an important part of socialization is the learning of culturally defined gender roles”. Gender socialization refers to the learning of behavior and attitudes considered appropriate for a given sex. Boys learn to be boys and girls learn to be girls. This “learning” happens by way of many different agents of socialization. The family is certainly important in reinforcing gender roles, but so are one’s friends, school, work and the mass media. Gender roles are reinforced through “countless subtle and not so subtle ways” (1999:76).

Examples: Henslin (2004:66) suggests that the fact that parents let their preschool boys roam farther from home than their preschool girls illustrates the how girls are socialized to be more dependent. A parent who buys his male children trucks while buying his female children dolls is engaging in gender socialization.

D. Resocialization. Resocialization is the process of learning new norms, values, attitudes, and behaviors. It refers to the process of discarding former behavior patterns and accepting new ones as part of a transition in one's life. Resocialization occurs throughout the human life cycle (Schaefer & Lamm, 1992: 113). Resocialization can be intense with the individual experiencing a sharp break with past and the learning and exposure to radically different norms and values. An example would be the experience of a young man or woman leaving home to join the Marines. Radical resocialization occurs in a total institution.

E. Total Institutions. This term was coined in 1961 by Erving Goffman and was designed to describe a society which is generally cut off from the rest of society but yet still provides for all the needs of its members. Therefore, total institutions have the ability to resocialize people either voluntarily or involuntarily. For example, the following would be considered as total institutions: prisons, the military, mental hospitals and convents (Schaefer & Lamm, 1992: 113).

(Source:<https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-5-lecture-notes-7-10/1099109/view>)

5. Divide the text into logical parts and give a headline to each part.

6. Retell the text using your plan and the key words from Ex.4.

7. Read the last extract of the text and translate it into Russian in writing. Use a dictionary if necessary.

III. Goffman lists four characteristics of such institutions:

All aspects of life are conducted in the same place and under the same single authority.

Each phase of a member's daily activity is carried out in the immediate company of others. All members are treated alike and all members do the same thing together.

Daily activities are tightly scheduled. All activity is superimposed upon the individual by a system of explicit formal rules.

A single rational plan exists to fulfill the goals of the institution.

Agents of Socialization. Agents of socialization are people and/or groups that influence self concepts, emotions, attitudes and behavior (Henslin, 1999:76-81).

A. The Family. The family is the most important of the agents of socialization. Family is responsible for, among other things, determining one's attitudes toward religion and establishing career goals.

B. The School. The school is the agency responsible for socializing groups of young people in particular skills and values in our society.

C. Peer Groups. Peers refer to people who are roughly the same age and/or who share other social characteristics (e.g., students in a college class).

D. The Mass Media.

E. Other Agents: Religion, Work Place, the State.

(Source:<https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-5-lecture-notes-7-10/1099109/view>)

8. Answer the following questions

- 1) What are the examples of the impacts biology has on an individual's character?
- 2) How are the twinning studies used in order to document the effects of learning?
- 3) What is socialization?
- 4) What is the difference between primary and anticipatory socialization?
- 5) What does the term "the looking-glass self" mean?
- 6) What are the examples of gender socialization?
- 7) Where does radical resocialization occur?
- 8) What are the examples of total institutions?
- 9) Which characteristics do total institutions have?
- 10) What are the main agents of socialization?

9. Sum up all the information and vocabulary of the Unit. Using the active vocabulary and additional information make up a presentation on one of the following topics:

- Culture and Society
- Socialization

Glossary of the module

Agents of socialization ['eɪdʒənts, ɒv səʊʃəlaɪ'zeɪʃən] n. – people and/or groups that influence self concepts, emotions, attitudes and behavior.

Behavior n. [bɪ'heɪvjə]– the way in which one acts or conducts oneself, especially toward others.

Bias n. ['baɪəs] – prejudice in favor of or against one thing, person, or group compared with another, usually in a way considered to be unfair.

Countercultures n. ['kaʊntə,kʌltʃə] – a way of life and a set of ideas that are completely different from those accepted by most of the society, or the group of people who live this way.

Cultural relativism ['kʌltʃərəl' relətɪvɪzəm] – the idea that a person's beliefs, values, and practices should be understood based on that person's own culture, rather than be judged against the criteria of another.

Ethnocentrism n. [ˌɛθnə(ʊ)'sentrɪz(ə)m] – refers to the tendency to view one's own culture as the norm.

Language n. ['læŋgwɪdʒ] – a system of communication by written or spoken words, which is used by the people of a particular country or area.

Perspective n. [pə'spektɪv] – a particular attitude towards or a way of regarding something; a point of view.

Primary socialization ['prɪm(ə)rɪ ,səʊʃləɪ'zeɪʃən] – the period early in a person's life during which they initially learn and build their selves through experiences and interactions around them.

Resocialization n. [ˌrɪ:səʊʃləɪ'zeɪʃən] – the process of learning new norms, values, attitudes, and behaviors.

Socialization n. [ˌsəʊʃləɪ'zeɪʃən] – the process by which people, especially children, are made to behave in a way that is acceptable in their society.

Subculture n. ['sʌb,kʌltʃə] – a particular group of people within a society and their behaviour, beliefs, and activities – often used to show disapproval.

Total institution ['təʊt(ə)l ɪnstɪ'tjuːʃ(ə)n] – a closed social system in which life is organized by strict norms, rules, and schedules, and what happens within it is determined by a single authority whose will is carried out by staff who enforce the rules (prisons, the military, mental hospitals)

and convents).

Culture n. [ˈkʌltʃə] – the beliefs, way of life, art, and customs that are shared and accepted by people in a particular society.

MODULE 4

Text 7 Problems with the Concept of Human Nature

Part 1

Pre-reading tasks

1. Work in groups of three or four and discuss the following:

- How do you understand the term “human nature”?
- What characteristics does it have?
- Have you ever heard about children raised by animals?
- What is the most well-known story about them?
- Do you think these stories are trustworthy?

2. Guess the meaning of the following words:

abnormally [æbˈnɔːməli]

apathy [ˈæpəθi]

genetic problems [dʒɪˈnetɪk ˈprɒbləmz]

hallucination [həˌluː.sɪˈneɪʃən]

human nature [ˈhjuːmən ˈneɪtʃə]

physical contact [ˈfɪzɪkəl ˈkɒntækt]

social isolation [ˈsəʊʃəl ˌaɪsəˈleɪʃən]

3. Study the following words and expressions:

anxiety n. [æŋˈzaɪəti] – тревога

assumption n. [əˈsʌmp.ʃən] – предположение

conceive v. [kənˈsiːv] – зачать, понимать

contribute v. [kənˈtrɪbjʊːt] – способствовать

encounter v. [ɪnˈkaʊntə(r)] – сталкиваться

essential adj. [ɪˈsenʃl] – существенный

exist v. [ɪg'zɪst] – существовать
inequality n. [,ɪnɪ'kwɒləti] – неравенство
investigate v. [ɪn'vestɪgeɪt] – исследовать
potty n. ['pɒti] – ночной горшок
savage n. ['sæv.ɪdʒ] – дикость
sense of self [sens əv self] – самоощущение
sleeping bag ['sli:pɪŋ bæɡ] – спальный мешок
survival n. [sə'vaɪvəl] – выживание
untrustworthy adj. [ʌn'trʌst,wɜ:ðɪ] – ненадежный

4. Read and translate the text using a dictionary if necessary:

Problems with the Concept of Human Nature

A. What is Human Nature?

Charon (1987:56-59) points out that our acts and beliefs are often based on our assumptions about human nature. Human nature refers to nearly permanent qualities, which humans possess. They are also biologically based. One should be able to see these characteristics in every culture (e.g., people have an innate urge to reproduce, find shelter, and find food).

Human nature should not be used to refer to characteristics that come about because of the environment or our society.

B. Impossible to Determine Human Nature

Biology certainly determines part of what we are, but we start learning as soon as we are conceived. Sense what we learn is so important to who we are and what we do, how can we separate biologically determined behavior from learned behavior.

C. Human Nature: An Excuse to End Discussion

The second problem is that human nature is often used as an excuse to close off discussion on social topics. Human nature is used to justify inequality rather than search for reasons for inequality.

Social Survival

Physical contact with others is essential to meet our social and emotional needs. The very survival of the individual and the group depends on its members being properly socialized (See Robertson, 1989:69-74).

A. Feral Children

Feral means untamed, savage, and wild. Feral children literally describe children raised in the wild by wild animals. Appelbaum and Chambliss (1997:68-70) contend that numerous accounts exist which describe children raised by animals. They argue that most stories of children raised in the wild are untrustworthy. In general, the explanation that “wild children” are raised by wild animals is more than likely an excuse to cover up extreme child abuse. On occasion, children are discovered who have few social skills and who lack the ability to speak. Upon closer inspection, it is discovered that these children suffer from extreme social isolation.

B. Children Raised in Isolation

There are numerous accounts of children raised in near total isolation. Appelbaum and Chambliss (1997:70) introduce us to a girl named “Genie”. Genie was raised in near isolation for the first twelve years of her life. She was often strapped to a child's potty or confined to a sleeping bag. She saw only her father and mother and this contact was occurred only at feeding. Needless to say, she failed to develop social skills.

It is apparent that severe social isolation contributes to poor social development, but it's difficult to prove “scientifically”. Social workers encounter children raised in isolation at the end of the process of isolation. (Presumably, the children are removed to more “humane” surroundings.) It's impossible to say whether the “wild” behavior is a result of the isolation or the result of genetic problems that may have caused the isolation in the first place.

Ethics rule out doing experiments on the effects of isolation on children. One cannot simply isolate a child from human contact to see what happens. Therefore, research on isolation has to focus on children who have experienced isolation in the past or it has to investigate the effects of isolation on animals.

C. Institutionalized Children: Rene Spitz

Rene Spitz explored the development (or lack of development) of institutionalized children. In the 1945 study involving human babies, Spitz followed the social development of babies who, for various reasons, were removed from their mothers early in life. Some children were placed with foster families while others were raised in institutions (e.g., a nursing home). The nursing home babies had no family-like environment. The setting was very institutional. Care was provided by nurses who worked eight hour shifts. The babies raised in the nursing home environment suffered seriously. More than a third died. Twenty-one were still living in institutions after 40 years. Most were physically, mentally, and socially retarded.

D. The Harlow Study

The importance of the social environment is demonstrated by Harry and Margaret Harlow. In a laboratory setting, the Harlows removed baby monkeys from their mothers at birth. The babies were provided with all the necessities of life such as food and warmth (temperature), but the babies had no contact with other monkeys. Bizarre behavior developed. The Harlows concluded that social isolation caused the monkeys raised in isolation to develop abnormally.

E. Conclusion

Research like that of Spitz and the Harlows proves that people need physical contact throughout life. Isolation will bring on hallucinations, extreme apathy, anxiety, and the loss of the sense of self.

(Source: <https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-5-lecture-notes-7-10/1099109/view>)

5. Answer the following questions:

- 1) What does Charon point out?
- 2) What does biology determine?
- 3) What is human nature used to do?

- 4) Is the physical contact essential to meet our social and emotional needs?
- 5) Why did Genie fail to develop social skills?
- 6) What does social isolation contribute to?
- 7) What is the essence of Rene Spitz's research?
- 8) What were the baby monkeys provided with?
- 9) What do the given researches prove?

6. Give English equivalents to these expressions:

- 1) указывать
- 2) основываться на
- 3) постоянные качества
- 4) врожденное желание
- 5) многочисленные свидетельства
- 6) жестокое обращение с детьми
- 7) дом престарелых, частная лечебница
- 8) потеря чувства самоощущения
- 9) быть социально отсталым
- 10) биологически обусловленное

7. Give English definitions to the following words and expressions and make up sentences of your own: Human nature, inequality, feral children, institutionalized children, innate urge, extreme child abuse, social survival, to be physically, mentally, and socially retarded.

8. Complete the table with the forms of the words given. Use a dictionary if necessary:

VERB	NOUN	ADJECTIVE
	belief	
to refer		
		isolated
	contact	

to develop		
		separated
	survival	

9. Fill in the blanks with the correct forms of the following words:

Words: to justify, necessities, to suffer, innate, to explore, apparent, assumptions, to raise.

1) According to Charon, our acts and beliefs are often based on our ... about human nature.

2) People have an ... urge to reproduce, find shelter, and find food.

3) Human nature is used to ... inequality rather than search for reasons for inequality.

4) Feral children literally describe children ... in the wild by wild animals.

5) It is discovered that these children ... from extreme social isolation.

6) It is ... that severe social isolation contributes to poor social development, but it's difficult to prove "scientifically".

7) Rene Spitz ... the development (or lack of development) of institutionalized children.

8) The monkeys were provided with all the ... of life such as food and warmth (temperature), but they had no contact with other monkeys.

Part 2

1. Scan the text and explain the main idea in your own words.

2. Translate it into Russian in writing. Use a dictionary if necessary.

Socialization

Socialization is learning (see Charon, 1987:63-69). Socialization refers to all learning regardless of setting or age of the individual. Socializa-

tion is the process by which we learn the ways of a particular group. In every group one has to learn the rules, expectations, and truths of that group, whether the group is your family, the army, or the state (nation).

Socialization is the process where people acquire personality and learn the way of life of their society. Essentially, one has to learn Culture. Learning culture encompasses all the truths, values, rules, and goals that people share with one another. Culture is a shared perspective.

The most important time when socialization occurs is between the ages of one and ten. We obviously learn throughout our lives, but this first ten years is most important in determining who we are for the rest of our lives.

Primary socialization is the process whereby people learn the attitudes, values, and actions appropriate to individuals as members of a particular culture. For example, Eskimos learn to enjoy eating raw intestines of birds and fish while Chinese people eat Carp's heads and the tripe (stomach tissue) of pigs (Schaefer & Lamm, 1992: 98).

Anticipatory socialization refers to the processes of socialization in which a person “rehearses” for future positions, occupations, and social relationships (See Appelbaum & Chambliss, 1997:76). Henslin (2004:71) offers the example of a high school student who, upon hearing he had been accepted to a university, began to wear college student-type cloths.

In his last semester of high school, Michael has received a word that he has been accepted to State University. Soon he begins to dismiss high school activities as being “too high schoolish”, and begins to wear clothing styles and affect mannerisms that are characteristic of State University students. Michael is exhibiting signs of anticipatory socialization.

(Source:<https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-5-lecture-notes-7-10/1099109/view>)

3. Read the following text quickly and write down its key words:

The looking-glass self is the term Charles Horton Cooley coined to describe the process by which we develop a sense of self. We see ourselves through the eyes of other people. We may even use those views of ourselves when formulating our own self-concept.

For example, Mattie is a new sociology professor at the local college. During her first lecture, she noticed that some students were yawning. Based on her interpretation of the students yawning, Mattie has decided she is a boring teacher.

Gender Socialization and Gender Roles. Henslin (1999:76) contends that “an important part of socialization is the learning of culturally defined gender roles”. Gender socialization refers to the learning of behavior and attitudes considered appropriate for a given sex. Boys learn to be boys and girls learn to be girls. This “learning” happens by way of many different agents of socialization. The family is certainly important in reinforcing gender roles, but so are one’s friends, school, work and the mass media. Gender roles are reinforced through “countless subtle and not so subtle ways” (1999:76).

Examples: Henslin (2004:66) suggests that the fact that parents let their preschool boys roam farther from home than their preschool girls illustrates how girls are socialized to be more dependent. A parent who buys his male children trucks while buying his female children dolls is engaging in gender socialization.

Resocialization is the process of learning new norms, values, attitudes, and behaviors. It refers to the process of discarding former behavior patterns and accepting new ones as part of a transition in one's life. Resocialization occurs throughout the human life cycle (Schaefer & Lamm, 1992: 113).

Resocialization can be intense with the individual experiencing a sharp break with past and the learning and exposure to radically different norms and values. An example would be the experience of a young man or woman leaving home to join the Marines. Radical resocialization occurs in a total institution.

The term “total institutions” was coined in 1961 by Erving Goffman and was designed to describe a society which is generally cut off from the rest of society but yet still provides for all the needs of its members. Therefore, total institutions have the ability to resocialize people either voluntarily or involuntarily. For example, the following would be considered as total institutions: prisons, the military, mental hospitals and convents.

(Source:<https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-5-lecture-notes-7-10/1099109/view>)

4. Divide the text into logical parts and give a headline to each part.

5. Retell the text using your plan and the key words you wrote for Ex.3.

6. Sum up all the information and vocabulary of the Unit. Choose one topic from the following:

- The Concept of Human Nature.
- Children Raised in Isolation.
- Socialization and Resocialization.

Text 8 Social Structure

Pre-reading tasks

1. Work in groups of three or four and discuss the following:

- What do you know about social structure?
- What aspects does it have?
- Have you ever heard the words: “All the world is a stage and all the men and women merely players”? Where are they taken from?
- How do you understand this quotation relating to social statuses?

2. Guess the meaning of the following words:

bureaucracy [bjʊə'roʊkrəsi]

macro aspects ['mækrəʊ 'æspekts]
micro aspects ['maɪkrəʊ 'æspekts]
social mobility ['səʊʃəl məʊ'bɪlɪti]
social status ['səʊʃəl 'steɪtəs]

3. Study the following words and expressions:

ascribed status [ə'skraɪbd 'steɪtəs] – предписанный статус

contradict v. [kɒntrə'dɪkt] – противоречить, опровергать

de-emphasize v. [di:'emfəsɪz] – преуменьшать

framework n. ['freɪmwɜ:k] – основа, каркас, рамки

merely adv. ['miəli] – просто, только

merit n. ['mɛrɪt] – заслуга

negotiate v. [ni'gəʊʃieɪt] – вести переговоры, реализовывать

obscure structures [əb'skjʊə 'strʌktʃəz] – неясные, незаметные
структуры

perpetuate v. [pə'petʃueɪt] – увековечивать

provide justifications [prə'vaɪd ,dʒʌstɪfɪ'keɪʃənz] – обеспечить
обоснование

remote adj. [ri'məʊt] – удаленный

route n. [ru:t] – путь

self-fulfilling prophecy [self fʊl'fɪlɪŋ 'prɒfɪsi] – исполняющееся
предсказание

subpar fashion [ˌsʌb'pɑ:(r) 'fæʃ(ə)n] – не должным образом

a tongue and cheek fashion [tʌŋ ænd tʃi:k 'fæʃ(ə)n] – шутливая
манера

4. Read and translate the text using a dictionary if necessary:

I. What is Social Structure?

Social structure refers to patterns around which society is organized. Henslin (1999:96) defines social structure as “the framework of society that was already laid out before you were born”. Social mobility is often

achieved by routes provided by the social structure. In a bureaucracy, the patterns are well defined (in the army one moves up in rank).

There are micro aspects of social structure such as statuses and roles. Larger social structures include groups and institutions (e.g., government, education, religion). Still larger are more obscure structures, (like those related to the economy). Often, ordinary people are not even aware of their existence. These obscure structures nonetheless have great impact on the character of society overall.

Macro vs. Micro Approaches to Sociology

The micro-level refers to social relations that involve direct social interaction with others including families, friends, and coworkers. Symbolic Interactionist Theory explores micro-sociological issues.

An example would be Liebow and Anderson's study of how street corner men in Washington coped with life on a day-to-day basis.

The macro-level refers to the larger, more invisible, and often more remote social processes that help to shape the micro world. Macro processes include political, economic, cultural, and other institutional social forces (Appelbaum and Chambliss, 1997:6). Functionalists and Conflict Theory are the domain of macro-level studies.

Karl Marx's concern with social class is an example of macro sociology.

II. Micro Sociology:

Roles, Status, and Expectations

Henslin (1999:95-97) draws a distinction between status and roles. Status refers to the social positions that exist in society while roles refer to “expected” patterns of behavior, obligations, and privileges attached to a particular social status. Associated with each role (or social position) are many expectations concerning how a person should behave.

Expectations are like norms. Viewing life simply in terms of roles that people occupy, one begins to see all life as if it were a stage play. Shakespeare said in “As You Like It”:

“All the world is a stage and all the men and women merely players. They have their exits and their entrances And one man in his time plays many parts”.

To act in a role is simply to act according to the norms (rules) and expectations attached to it.

A. Ascribed Status vs. Achieved Status.

Henslin (1999:96) calls attention to the distinction between ascribed status and achieved status.

Ascribed statuses are involuntary. One is born with ascribed status such as race or sex. Age is also an ascribed status.

Achieved status, on the other hand, is earned. It is based on merit.

B. Role Distancing and Role Conflict

Unlike a stage play, however, we do not define roles. We negotiate social roles.

1. Role Distancing

When an individual disagrees with the expectations associated with a particular role, the individual may try to de-emphasize the importance of that role. Irving Goffman (1961) calls this “role distancing”. Role distancing is the act of separating oneself from the role. For example, the actor may only play the role in a tongue and cheek fashion.

2. Role Conflict

Some roles that have to be played contradict other important roles (See Henslin, 1999:108). Here the individual does not know what is expected. We call this "role conflict."

Expectations and Inequality: the Self-Fulfilling Prophecy

Henslin contends that a self-fulfilling prophecy refers to a false assumption of what is going on that happens to come true simply because it was predicted.

Example: A rumor spreads that a bank is in trouble and that depositors will not be able to get their money. As a result of the rumor, depositors rush to the bank to get their money. The initial rumor was false, but

now it may be true that depositors can't get their money because of the run on the bank.

The self-fulfilling prophecy helps maintain and perpetuate inequality on a societal level. If a society holds negative expectations toward a particular group of people (e.g., the group is expected to perform in a subpar fashion), that group may internalize these expectations. Literally, they may begin to behave according to the expectations (see Henslin, 1999:323). Negative behavior will, in turn, provide justifications for a dominant group to continue a policy of disrespect. Social structure helps in the formation and maintenance of expectations for both parties.

The Zimbardo study and the Rosenhan experiment highlight the “self-fulfilling prophecy”. If one expects a certain kind of behavior from an individual, one may unconsciously create the conditions that fulfill expectations. For example, an athlete who thinks he is a loser seldom wins. However, an athlete who believes that he is a winner tends to win (all other things held equal).

(Source: <https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-6-lecture-notes-10-13/1099149/view>)

5. Answer the following questions:

- 1) How does Henslin define social structure?
- 2) How can social mobility be achieved?
- 3) What is the difference between macro and micro approaches to sociology?
- 4) What are the examples of macro-level studies?
- 5) Which term has the meaning of “expected” patterns of behavior, obligations, and privileges attached to a particular social status?
- 6) Can you give examples of ascribed status?
- 7) What is achieved status?
- 8) Why does role distancing happen?

9) What happens when a role that has to be played contradicts other important roles?

10) How does the “fulfilling prophecy” theory describe people’s behavior?

6. Match the words with their synonyms:

1. remote	a. just, only
2. to negotiate	b. sustenance, support
3. societal	c. to arrange, to realize
4. justification	d. distant
5. framework	e. immortalize
6. maintenance	f. confirmation
7. to perpetuate	g. structure
8. merely	h. social

7. Give English definitions to the following words and expressions and make up sentences of your own: social structure, macro level, micro level, social status, social role, ascribed status, achieved status, role distancing, and role conflict.

8. Complete the table with the forms of the words given. Use a dictionary if necessary:

VERB	NOUN	ADJECTIVE
to expect		
	behaviour	
		distinct
to respect		
	maintenance	
		aware
to contradict		

9. Fill in the blanks with the correct forms of the following words:

Words: to contradict, economic, to achieve, behaviour, social, stage, expectations, coworkers, to separate, unconsciously, negative.

1) Social mobility is often ... by routes provided by the social structure.

2) The micro-level refers to social relations that involve direct ... interaction with others including families, friends, and

3) Macro processes include political, ... , cultural, and other institutional social forces.

4) The entire world is a ... and all the men and women merely players.

5) Role distancing is the act of ... oneself from the role.

6) Some roles that have to be played ... other important roles.

7) If a society holds ... expectations toward a particular group of people, that group may internalize these

8) If one expects a certain kind of ... from an individual, one may ... create the conditions that fulfill expectations.

Part 2

The Power of Roles

1. Work with a partner. Student A: read **Text A**. Student B: read **Text B**. Check the words in bold with your dictionary if necessary.

2. Make up a summary of your text in English to tell the partner. Express your opinion about the power of roles.

Listen to your partner's summary, ask him / her questions.

Text A. The Zimbardo Study

The Zimbardo study (1971) (also called the Stanford Prison Study) considers the behavior of **mature**, stable, intelligent, middle-class college

students who were asked to play roles. Twenty-four students were paid \$15 dollars a day.

The 24 students were **randomly** assigned to two groups. Half were asked to play the role of prison guards. The other half were asked to play the role of prisoners.

Once groups' assignments were made, the Palo Alto police literally arrested the students, whom Zimbardo defined as prisoners. They put them through the whole **incarceration process** as if they were real prisoners (e.g., they were picked up, booked, finger printed, and placed in a holding cell). At this point the "prisoners" were blind folded, their cloths were taken from them, and they were transported to Zimbardo's labs at Stanford. At this point the "guards" of Zimbardo's project took over (Zimbardo, 1971).

The student-guards were told that they had to make the student-prisoners lose their sense of identity (e.g., college student) and accept their new identity as prisoner. Guards could not physically mistreat the student-prisoners, but they could **intimidate**. They were also given symbols of power and oppression such as billy-clubs. The prisoners arrived at "jail" with chains on their feet. They were often asked to strip and in the process guards would **humiliate** the prisoners. They would wake up prisoners at odd times (like 2:30 am) for cell searches (Zimbardo, 1971).

Within a few days the students internalized their roles. Charon (1986:173) contends the situation became so nightmarish that the study came to an early end. On the second day of the study, the prisoners protested and as punishment guards took away their beds. Other student-prisoners who didn't follow the rules were placed in "the hole" which was an area used for **solitary confinement**. Going to the bathroom became a privilege for the model prisoners.

According to Zimbardo, "There were dramatic changes in virtually every aspect of their behavior, thinking, and feeling. We saw some boys (guards) treat others as if they were despicable animals. Those playing prison guards took pleasure with inflicting cruelty. The other boys (prisoners) became servile, dehumanized robots who thought only of escaping, of

their own individual survival, and of their mounting hatred for the guards” (see Charon, 1986:174). Zimbardo (1971) noted that some prisoners attempted to fake **insanity** in an effort to be removed from the experiment. In the case of one young man, the prisoner appeared to actually “lose it”.

(Source: <https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-6-lecture-notes-10-13/1099149/view>)

Text B. The Rosenhan Study

The Rosenhan study highlights the power of roles. Expectations associated with roles and statuses are also highlighted. The Rosenhan study shows that when an individual is “labeled” or defined as occupying a certain role by society, altering the **perceptions** of others is very difficult.

Rosenhan notes that often there is only a loose association between the person labeled mentally ill and the actual act. Often the label or status that we **impose upon** others becomes the primary tool for knowing how to respond to another individual. To put it in other words, if we see a person in a given role, certain expectations accompany that role. It becomes very difficult for ordinary people to “know an individual” outside those perceptions and expectations.

To demonstrate this point, Rosenhan asked: “What would happen if **sane** people sought **admission** to a psychiatric hospital?” To explore this question, several of his graduate students went to psychiatric hospitals complaining of hearing voices. Professional staff diagnosed all as having mental disorders. All the students were admitted to the psychiatric hospitals. After their admission, however, they stopped displaying all inappropriate behavior (i.e. hearing voices). Their goal after admission was to **convince** the staff that they were sane.

Hospital staff diagnosed most of the pseudo patients as schizophrenic. The graduate students were hospitalized for an average of nineteen days. The staff never did realize that the pseudo patients were frauds. Other patients, however, did realize. 35 of 118 “real” patients expressed **sus-**

pictions like: “You're not crazy, you're journalist or protester” or “You're checking up on the hospital”.

Apparently, once they stuck the label on the patient, nothing the pseudo patient could do would change the expectations of the professional staff. Rosenhan notes that in all likelihood some of the professional staff also realized that Rosenhan's students were not really “sick”, but said nothing in order to save face.

In the second part of the experiment Rosenhan informed the hospitals that they could expect one or more pseudo patients to enter their hospital. Of 193 patients who were admitted, forty-one were **alleged** to be pseudo patients by at least one hospital's staff. In reality, no pseudo patients were admitted.

(Source:<https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-6-lecture-notes-10-13/1099149/view>)

3. Sum up the information of the Unit.

Using the active vocabulary and additional information make up a presentation on one of the following topics:

- Social Structure. Macro vs. Micro Approaches to Sociology.
- Expectations and Inequality: the Self-Fulfilling Prophecy.
- Role Distancing and Role Conflict.
- The Power of Roles. The Zimbardo and Rosenhan Studies.

Glossary of the module

Human nature ['hju:mən 'neɪfə] – the qualities or ways of behaving that are natural and common to most people.

Inequality n. [ˌɪni'kwɑ:ləti] – an unfair situation, in which some groups in a society have more money, opportunities, power, and etc., than others.

Feral adj. [ˈfɪərəl] – someone who behaves badly in public and commits crimes, because they are not controlled by anyone and have no respect for authority.

Institutionalized adj. [ˌɪnstɪˈtʃʊʃənəlaɪzd] – someone who has lived for a long time in a prison, mental hospital etc and now cannot easily live outside one.

Innate adj. [ɪˈneɪt] – something you are born with, a quality or ability.

Child abuse [tʃaɪld əˈbjuːs] – the crime of harming a child physically, sexually, or emotionally.

Retarded adj. [rɪˈtɑːdɪd] – less mentally developed than other people of the same age. Many people think that this word is offensive.

Macro adj. [ˈmækrəʊ] – large and concerning a whole system rather than particular parts of it.

Micro adj. [ˈmaɪkrəʊ] – extremely small.

Status n. [ˈsteɪtəs] – your social or professional rank or position, considered in relation to other people.

Socialization n. [ˌsəʊʃəlaɪˈzeɪʃən] – the process by which people, especially children, are made to behave in a way that is acceptable in their society.

MODULE 5

Text 9 Social Organization

Pre-reading tasks

1. Work in groups of three or four and discuss the following:

- How do you understand the term “social organization”?
- What characteristics does it have?
- Give examples of different social organizations.

2. Guess the meaning of the following words:

Anarchy [ˈænəki]
bureaucracy [bjʊəˈrɒkrəsi]
democracy [dɪˈmɒkrəsi]
emancipation [ɪˌmænsɪˈpeɪʃən]
fascist states [ˈfæʃɪst steɪts]
prevail [prɪˈveɪl]
utilitarian [ˌjuːtɪlɪˈteəriən]

3. Study the following words and expressions:

coercive adj. [kəʊˈɜːsɪv] – принудительный
coherence n. [kə(ʊ)ˈhiər(ə)ns] – согласованность
commitment n. [kəˈmɪtm(ə)nt] – обязательство
efficiency n. [ɪˈfɪʃ(ə)nsi] – эффективность
facilitate v. [fəˈsɪlɪteɪt] – способствовать
fraternity n. [frəˈtəːnɪti] – братство
impact n. [ˈɪmpækt] – воздействие
implementation n. [ɪmplɪmənˈteɪʃ(ə)n] – осуществление
maintain v. [meɪnˈteɪn] – поддерживать, сохранять
labor n. [ˈleɪbər] – труд
occur v. [əˈkɜː] – иметь место, случиться
overwhelm v. [əʊvəˈwɛlm] – сокрушать
patterns n. [ˈpætənz] – шаблоны, модели
peculiar adj. [prɪˈkjuːliə] – специфичный, своеобразный
prevail v. [prɪˈveɪl] – преобладать
salient adj. [ˈseɪlɪənt] – выдающийся
subsequently adv. [ˈsʌbsɪkwəntli] – впоследствии
wield [wiːld] power – держать в своих руках власть

4. Read and translate the text using a dictionary if necessary:

Social Organization

I. Definition of Social Organization

Charon (1986:110) contends that social organization refers to patterns of social interaction. Within organization, expectations become more fixed. Actors agree on important matters affecting interaction and control themselves so that cooperation can occur. The patterns that characterize social interaction (i.e. organization) have developed over time. Generally speaking, the longer the patterns exist, the more expectations become fixed. At some point certain organizations eventually come to wield great power within society.

This paper explores various levels of organization. It first investigates the smallest level of social organization, the dyads, first. It then proceeds to subsequently larger forms of organization. After dyads are discussed, it explores small groups. Formal organization follows groups, then communities, nation states and finally world-system. Much attention is paid to groups and formal organization. Bureaucracy is an especially salient issue for nearly everyone worldwide.

II. Formal Organizations

Formal organizations include churches, clubs, schools, armies, colleges, the IRS, and hospitals.

A. Characteristics of formal organizations include:

1. Impersonal interaction among group members.
2. As groups grow in size, they make objectives explicit in writing (e.g., they become more formal).
3. Formal organizations are created to work toward specified goals. When they meet goals, the individual moves on.

B. Three Types of Formal Organizations. There are three types of formal organizations according to Amitai Etzioni.

1. Coercive Organizations

Coercive organizations rely on force to achieve order. Force is necessary because people tend to resist being a part of the organization. Examples are prisons and mental hospitals.

2. Utilitarian Organizations

Utilitarian organizations see individuals conforming to organization standards because organizations pay them to be a part of that organization. Of course, most jobs are utilitarian (see Appelbaum and Chambliss, 1997:88).

3. Normative Organizations

Normative organizations are based on a shared moral commitment. People conform to the organizations standards out of a positive sense of obligation. Normative organizations include political parties, religious organizations, and fraternities.

III. Bureaucracy

A. The Development of Formal Social Structure: Division of Labor

The impact of social structure is great indeed! Durkheim, in his epic work, *The Division of Labor in Society* (1983) maintained “as society becomes larger and more complex, there is a vast increase in the interdependence among its members as the labor needed to feed, house, educate, communicate with, transport, care for, and defend them becomes more complex” (in Kornblum, 1988:160). Durkheim argued that the increasing complexity was an advantage for any society because it gave the members of society more choice and, therefore, more freedom.

Much of Durkheim's work centers on social organization. Social organization means, on one hand, that the individual has to give up a certain amount of individual freedom. On the other hand, people are not overly concerned about losing that freedom. By the time they are a part of an organization, organizations have socialized them to accept the rules and goals of the organization as their own. Individuals ultimately offer a great amount of respect to organizations. People define themselves through the organizations to which they belong.

B. Freedom from a Durkheimian Point of View.

Durkheim raised the point that the freedom an individual experiences depends on the level of social organization (order). Imagine a condition where no reliable organization exists. Without organization a state of anar-

chy would prevail. Individuals would lose the safety provided by organization and would thus lose their freedom. On the other hand, too much organization, like that found in fascist states, likewise places extreme limits on the freedom of individuals. With the latter, the individual can experience too much order.

No system of organization is perfect with respect to guaranteeing freedom. Democracy may facilitate human freedom and emancipation, but freedom does not automatically flow from democracy. American style democracy, for example, confronts one with what Tocqueville called the “tyranny of the majority”. In a democracy, once the voting is over, the minority (those who lost the vote) must abide by the decision of the majority. (Example: The debate concerning abortion issues highlights this kind of dilemma). Despite the problematic aspects of democracy, it appears that a moderate amount of organization is most desirable.

Another freedom-limiting problem associated with developing social structure revolves around the possibility that so many choices may overwhelm. Furthermore, as the division of labor becomes complex, certain groups find themselves with greater or lesser access to the higher levels of the system. Inequality becomes institutionalized.

C. General Features Associated with Developing Social Structure.

As society becomes more complex, the social structure becomes increasingly formal. Positions within structure become more clearly defined, often in writing.

1. Categories within the organization become more differentiated. Jobs become specialized and a greater variety of jobs are the result. There is also an increase in “vertical differentiation”. In other words, there are more layers across which an individual can advance.

2. Power within the structure becomes increasingly centralized. Initially organizational business, such as problem control and policy implementation happened informally. As organization becomes more complex, policy becomes explicitly stated that covers all situations that might arise.

D. A Weberian Analysis of Bureaucracy.

Max Weber is renowned for his analysis of bureaucracies. He interprets the features that evolve within social structure as an attempt to make organizations more rational. Weber contends that as social structure becomes more complex, people turn away from policies based on tradition, customs, emotions, and personal values to policies based on efficiency and rationality.

Rationalism

Rationalism refers to the careful calculation of practical results. Calculated rules and procedures characterize bureaucracies. Bureaucracies allow for more efficient decision making. The acceptance of rules, efficiency, and practical results is the right way to approach human affairs.

E. The Informal Structure of Bureaucracy. Bureaucracies do not do a very good job handling unusual situations. A peculiar characteristic of formal organization is the creation of informal patterns of communication within the formal organization. The informal network helps in organizational coherence when the organization encounters unusual situations. In fact, informal interaction within a bureaucracy actually makes the bureaucracy more efficient! Sometimes the informal networks become more important than the formal organization. Often formal rules are “bent” to adjust to “real” situations. Informal interaction may become necessary because the formal organization becomes inefficient and cannot perform its assigned tasks.

(Source: <https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-7-lecture-notes-13-15/1099195/view>)

5. Answer the following questions:

- 1) What does a formal organization follow?
- 2) What do formal organizations include?
- 3) Which characteristics of formal organizations were mentioned in the text?

- 4) How many types of formal organizations exist according to A. Etzioni?
- 5) Why are most jobs utilitarian?
- 6) What is the role of labor in society?
- 7) What does a social organization mean in Durkheim's work?
- 8) How does Durkheim talk about freedom in his work?
- 9) Which freedom-limiting problems were mentioned in the text?
- 10) What is Rationalism according to Weber's theory?

6. Match the English words with their Russian equivalents:

1. to facilitate	a. принудительный
2. impact	b. следовательно
3. coercive	c. способствовать
4. salient	d. надежный
5. subsequently	e. первоначально
6. to interpret	f. воздействие
7. initially	g. выдающийся
8. reliable	h. толковать

7. Give English definitions to the following words and expressions and make up sentences of your own: social organization, formal organization, coercive organizations, utilitarian organizations, normative organizations, bureaucracy, division of labor, rationalism.

8. Complete the table with the forms of the words given. Use a dictionary if necessary:

VERB	NOUN	ADJECTIVE
to create		
	institution	
		initial
to implement		
	experience	
		increasing

to perform		
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9. Work in pairs. Write 3 sentences about Social Organization: they must be true or false. Can your partner decide which ones are false?

10. Match the parts of the text with the corresponding titles:

Dysfunction of Bureaucracy

- A** Self-serving Bureaucrats
- B** The Control of a Few
- C** Loss of Initiative
- D** Goal Displacement
- E** Alienation (bureaucratic)
- F** Bureaucratic Incompetence - the Peter Principle
- G** Red Tape: Bureaucracies May Become Inefficient

1. _____

Once created, society cannot easily undo bureaucracies. Sometimes bureaucracy takes on a life of its own. Once a task is completed, it seeks new goals (See Henslin, 1999:174-177).

Example: March of Dimes shifted its focus from raising funds to combat polio to raising funds for birth defects research.

2. _____

Superiors act to keep their positions. The goals of bureaucrats become self-survival and self-serving.

3. _____

Bureaucrats become secure in their position and lose their initiative.

4. _____

Bureaucrats also lose their initiative because so much of their free-choice is taken away from them. Also at the bottom of organizations, bureaucracies induce a sense of powerlessness and low moral for people who work in the bureaucracy and for those individuals receiving the service.

Example: when one is at a job and they feel they are viewed as an object rather than a person experiencing alienation.

Example: From a Marxian sense, alienation refers to the experience of being cut off from the product of a person's labor resulting in feelings of powerlessness and formlessness.

5. _____

The centralized organizational structure enhances the power of a few individuals. People who are familiar with the rules of how bureaucracies function maintain a sense of "quiet" control over those who have little knowledge of how the system operates.

6. _____

Bureaucracies get choked with rules to the point where they cease to function. Red tape may impede the purpose of an organization.

7. _____

The Peter Principle argues that people rise to the level of their incompetence. It suggests that if an individual does a great job at a low level in the bureaucracy, then the organization will promote that person to the next level. If they continue to perform well, they receive yet another promotion. Organizations will promote the individual to higher and higher rungs in the organization until they reach a point where the worker no longer does a good job. At that point the promotions stop, but seldom are the bureaucrats demoted. They tend to stay at the level where they have ceased to be functional.

11. Read the following text quickly. What does it deal with? Write a short summary.

Macro Levels of Social Organization

A. Communities

1. Communities are large formal organizations that attain a significant degree of self-sufficiency and independence.
2. A community is a place that can be found on a map.

3. The community takes care of most basic human needs. Communities address the social, educational, and cultural needs of its members.
4. A community has an economy and political orientation.
5. People form most of their personal relationships within the community.

Example: Communes

B. Society

1. What is a Society?

Charon (1986:142) indicates that society is a type of social organization. Like dyads and groups, society begins with individuals who interact with one another. Through interaction patterns develop that are much larger than the organizations discussed thus far. Societies are all encompassing. They are simultaneously the longest enduring, the most abstract, and the most all-embracing social organization.

On the other hand, it is difficult to specify exactly what a society is. One might argue that a particular society exists where individuals mutually interact with one another and where common social patterns exist.

Common patterns make us more similar to one another than we are to other societies. Such patterns may include a common set of laws, customs, a heritage, and a class structure. Sometimes a society shares common values and often it shares a common language. A society's patterns of interaction are difficult to change because of their long history and because of their importance to large segments of the population.

2. Problems Associated with the Study of Society

a. You Cannot See Society

Society does not exist in material form. You cannot put your hands on it. Social scientists cannot measure society directly.

b. Society is a Total Experience

Society surrounds us. To study something, a researcher generally wants to be able to isolate the phenomena. When a sociologist attempts to study society, he immediately becomes a part of the environment that he is

attempting to study. His presence alters the phenomena that he is investigating. Example: Alaskan Natives become Anthropologists.

C. Nation-States and Society

A convenient way to visualize a society is to look at nation-states like the USA, Canada, or the UK (See Chirot, 1986:71-3). It is obvious, however, that using the nation-state as society is flawed when one looks at multi-cultural nation-states like Lebanon or stateless societies like Palestine.

D. The World-System

Some people consider the world as society. With the aid of technological advances in communication and transportation, the world has become more integrated. What happens between nation-states is more the business of the world community now than it once was.

Example: The nuclear power plant in the Ukraine, Oil and Kuwait, WTO, GATT, NAFTA.

(Source:<https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-7-lecture-notes-13-15/1099195/view>)

12. Sum up the information of the Unit.

Using the active vocabulary and additional information make up a presentation on Social Organizations, their types and functions.

Text 10 Deviance

Pre-reading tasks

1. Work in groups of three or four and discuss the following:

- How do you understand the term “deviance”?
- Give examples of deviant behavior in our society.
- What do you know about Nelson Mandela? Can he be considered as deviant?

- Have you ever heard of Panache Villa? Can he be considered as deviant?

2. Guess the meaning of the following words:

exorcism [ˈɛksɔːsɪzm]

kleptomaniac ˌkleptəʊˈmeɪniæk]

nymphomaniac [ˌnɪmfəʊˈmeɪniæk]

physical abnormalities [ˈfɪzɪkəl ˌæbnɔːˈmælɪtɪz]

temperament [ˈtempərəmənt]

3. Study the following words and expressions:

abstinence n. [ˈæbstɪnəns] – воздержание

ambiguous adj. [æmˈbɪɡjʊəs] – двусмысленный

annulment n. [əˈnʌlm(ə)nt] – аннулирование

awareness n. [əˈweənəs] – осведомленность

bazaar n. [bəˈzɑː] – восточный базар

condemn v. [kənˈdem] – порицать, признавать виновным

condemnation n. [ˌkɒndəmˈneɪʃn] – осуждение

courage n. [ˈkʌrɪdʒ] – мужество

cunning n. [ˈkʌnɪŋ] – хитрость

engaging adj. [ɪnˈɡeɪdʒɪŋ] – занятый, вовлеченный

hostility n. [hɒˈstɪlɪti] – враждебность

in essence [ɪnˈes(ə)ns] – в сущности

mental disorders [ˈment(ə)l dɪsˈɔːdəz] – психические нарушения

promiscuous adj. [prəˈmɪskjʊəs] – неразборчивый

rebel n. [ˈrebl] – повстанец

rebellion n. [rɪˈbeljən] – восстание

stamina n. [ˈstæmɪnə] – выносливость

undergo v. [ʌndəˈɡəʊ] – подвергаться

vague adj. [veɪɡ] – неясный, расплывчатый

4. Read and translate the text using a dictionary if necessary:

Deviance

I. A General Definition of Deviance. Deviance is behavior that some people in society find offensive and which excites, or would excite, if it were discovered, disapproval, punishment, condemnation, or hostility. Deviance is behavior that is likely to get you into trouble. Deviant behavior is outside the bounds of the group or society (Goode, 1997:37).

Many times during a day we disagree with people, but we don't usually label those we disagree with as deviant. Deviance is not simply behavior. It involves a moral judgment. Deviance involves a judgment made by somebody. Actually, any act can be defined as deviant (See Henslin, 1999:192).

II. Deviance: A Relative Term. It's not possible to isolate certain acts and find them universally condemned by all societies as deviant acts (Not even murder or incest). Even within a given society, behavior defined as deviant continually undergoes redefinition.

Deviance, furthermore, is relative to time and place. It is not possible to find something that is absolutely condemned by all societies. Behavior that is deviant in one society may not be in another. Even within one society, what is deviant today may not be deviant tomorrow. Three examples that highlight the relative nature of deviance are provided below:

A. Is killing wrong? Usually it is. But, is murder wrong when it is done in self-defense or in warfare? Vietnam veterans were taught to be efficient killers for war, but could not control themselves when reintroduced into civilian life.

B. What about the case of Nelson Mandela? For years, the ruling party in South Africa viewed him as a "dangerous political deviant". To most South Africans, those who are Black, Mandela is a revered leader of the freedom movement (see Kornblum, 1988:201).

C. Was Panache Villa a deviant? The social status of a bandit, particularly one whose activities have political overtones, is ambiguous. To those who are being robbed, as the bandit gains status (and wealth and

power), the bandit is seen as even more deviant. To the poor, however, bandits are sometimes seen as rebels who reject the normal roles that poor people are expected to play. Through their bandit activities people like Pancho Villa are able to display courage, cunning, and determination.

III. Examples of Relative Definitions of Deviance:

Using Mental Health Examples

Definitions of mental disorders occur in much the same fashion that other forms of deviance receive their definitions. Many times the definition is quite vague and varies “depending on the culture, audience, and context”. Behavior alone does not add up to mental disorder. Context is important (Eitzen, 1986:456-7).

A. Class Context. If a poor woman shoplifts a roast, people call her a common criminal. On the other hand, if a rich woman steals a roast; her deviant status is kleptomaniac – a form of mental illness.

B. Sexual Context. If a woman is sexually promiscuous, she might find herself labeled as a nymphomaniac, while a man is a stud, macho, swinger, etc.

C. Professional vs. Domestic Context. A man may be punctual and obedient during the week while he is at work, but on Saturday afternoon he raises hell while watching the afternoon football game. Both behaviors, while appearing contradictory, are “normal” in their respective contexts. But, if he took Saturday's behavior to the office he would find himself labeled as strange and he might even get fired. On the other hand, passive behavior at a Saturday afternoon football game would be considered a social drag and his peers would not want to watch football with him anymore.

D. Cultural Context. Abstinence for two years after marriage in the West would be viewed as weird and grounds for annulment. Such behavior is, however, required for newlyweds in the Dani Tribe of New Guinea. Sexual activity for the Dani before two years would be viewed as sexual deviance.

E. Time Context. People used to be burned at the stake for engaging

in behavior that most twentieth-century people see as normal.

IV. **Demonic Possession: Religious Explanations of Deviance.** For a long time the Western view of deviance has been strongly influenced by the church's view which dates back to the 4th century. Religious Explanations are the oldest of all explanations for deviance. Goode (1997:65) notes that from the beginning of time to roughly the 1700s, the most dominant explanations of deviance invoked visions of evil spirits. The deviant is seen as morally deprived and perhaps possessed by the devil. The cause is seen as residing inside the individual.

Evil spirits possess the victim. Alcoholism is seen as a weakness, mental illness is seen as irresponsibility, criminal and deviant acts result from giving in to our evil nature, sexual deviance is seen as moral depravity, and rebellion is seen as immaturity. In each case the cause of deviance lies within the individual.

It is easy to blame individuals. Societal-based problems are difficult to understand and even more difficult to correct. People seem to prefer what is easiest. Even today, people have trouble understanding that the cause of conditions they do not like may, in fact, be social in origin. Solutions used to correct demonic possession seem bizarre. Holes were drilled in the head of hosts to let the evil spirits escape. Exorcisms were also employed. The witches of Salem were brutalized! Demonic possession lost its popularity around the 1700s.

V. **The Positivist School: Biological Theories of Deviance.** The positivist school of the second half of the 19th century argues that deviant behavior was dictated by forces beyond the control, or even the awareness, of individuals. Positivists argued that biological abnormalities provided valid explanations for deviance. In essence, genetic predispositions create inborn tendencies to commit deviant acts. According to the positivist philosophers, only through scientific inquiry could one understand the forces that drive society.

Cesare Lombroso (1836-1909), a well-known positivist, argued that physical abnormalities that afflict people cause them to pursue deviant (or

criminal) activity. Lombroso argued that criminals were throwbacks to some sort of pre-human. Lombroso (in Kendall, 1998:191) called these criminal types Atavists. He claimed that prisoners had “low foreheads and smaller than normal human cranial capacities”. Lombroso thought that he could predict deviant behavior based on skull and body types.

A. Critique

Biological explanations for deviance are almost useless. There is no consistent evidence that supports the belief that social temperament is related to body type. This approach ignores the interactions of the individual with the environment. Research shows that most people, who have suspect genetic traits, are not deviant. Furthermore, the vast majority of criminals do not have irregular genetic patterns.

B. A Variant on Positivism

A new type of sociobiological theory tries to apply positivist philosophy to street crime. The general argument here is that it requires stamina to be a criminal so those people with the most stamina will be more likely to commit crimes. This would include the young and men.

Other biological theories look for links between higher rates of aggression in men to levels of testosterone or chromosomal abnormality. This research, however, produces no consistent findings.

(Source:<https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-8-lecture-notes-10/1099569/view>)

5. Answer the following questions:

- 1) What is the general definition of deviance?
- 2) Which behavior is labeled deviant?
- 3) Is there any act that is condemned by all societies as deviant?
- 4) Why was not Panache Villa’s behavior deviant for someone?
- 5) Are mental disorders deviant or not?
- 6) Which examples of deviance were mentioned in the text according to the cultural context?

- 7) Which explanations of deviance were at the beginning?
- 8) How did Lombroso explain the criminal deviance?
- 9) Why were biological explanations for deviance critiqued?
- 10) How does the sociobiological theory try to explain deviance?

6. Match the words with their definitions:

1. deviance	a. something that is done in order to punish someone
2. deviant behaviour	b. an illegal action, which can be punished by law
3. murder	c. a mental illness in which you have a desire to steal things
4. punishment	d. someone who has been attacked, robbed, or murdered
5. crime	e. behavior that is not usual and is generally considered to be unacceptable
6. victim	f. a process during which someone tries to make an evil spirit leave a place by saying special words, or a ceremony when this is done
7. exorcism	g. when something is different, especially in a bad way, from what is considered normal
8. kleptomania	h. the crime of deliberately killing someone

7. Make up sentences with the words and expressions from exercise

6.

8. Complete the table with the forms of the words given. Use a dictionary if necessary:

VERB	NOUN	ADJECTIVE
to define		
	excitement	
		actual
to punish		

	danger	
		relative
to employ		

9. Work in pairs. Write 3 sentences about Deviance: they must be true or false. Can your partner decide which ones are false?

10. According to the text, the definition of deviance is quite vague and varies “depending on the culture, audience, and context”. Do you agree or disagree? Discuss with your partner.

11. Read the following text and give a short summary:

Anomie or Strain Theory:

Robert Merton's Typology of Deviance

The historic foundations of the Anomie or Strain Theory go back to the work on Emile Durkheim and Robert Merton. For both sociologists, the cause of deviance is found in disturbances in the social structure. People who encounter disturbances in social structure experience stress. Durkheim was the first sociologist to investigate how disturbances in social structure prompt one to commit suicide. Both wanted to know what accounted for the varying rates of deviancies found cross-culturally and between social classes. Durkheim called the sensation associated with stress anomie.

Anomie or Strain Theory contends that social structure puts varying degrees of stress on individuals in society. In order to cope with the stress individuals will begin to pursue unconventional means to relieve that stress. In essence, deviance (unconventional means) arises from purely conventional sources.

Robert Merton's Explanation of Deviance

The following material represents Merton's attempt to explain deviance. According to Merton, deviance is an adaptation by individuals to the

dominant culture. Discrepancies exist between cultural (material) goals and structural opportunities. As the discrepancy grows between the material goals of society and the means to achieve those goals, the individual experiences more and more internal conflict.

Example: Poor people internalize middle-class goals, like wanting a home in a middle-class suburb. They learn to want goals, such as owning a color TV or new home, from sources such as the mass media or school. The means to achieve their goal, however, is difficult to find. Good paying jobs are scarce. Society has not provided the means to achieve those goals. Unable to achieve their goal, they experience stress.

In order to relieve the stress the individuals violate the “goals” defined important by society or they violate the “means” to achieve those goals. Note that individuals approach the means-ends discrepancy in different ways.

Merton argues that poor people, who cannot achieve goals determined worthy by the dominant society, use illegitimate means to achieve legitimate goals. Society defines success through the ownership of material possessions such as cars or color TVs. The individual, however, cannot find legitimate means, like a job, to finance that TV. The next course of action for the individual is to use illegitimate means, like stealing, to get that TV.

People from the middle-class, however, are less inclined to steal. They have more at stake in the system. A person from the middle-class who steals may suffer greater criticism compared with a poor person who steals the same TV. When people from the middle-class experience discrepancies between goals and opportunities, they tend to use illegitimate goals while using conventional means. A response by a middle-class person may be to continue to “work hard”, but deny that they need a new home or color TV. (Source: <https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-8-lecture-notes-10/1099569/view>)

12. Sum up the information of the Unit.

Using the active vocabulary and additional information make up a presentation on one of the following topics:

- Deviance. Different definitions of deviant behaviour.
- The Positivist School: Biological Theories of Deviance.
- Cesare Lombroso's theory.
- Anomie or Strain Theory: Robert Merton's Typology of Deviance.

Glossary of the module

Anarchy, n. ['ænəki] – a situation in which there is no effective government in a country or no order in an organization or situation.

Bureaucracy, n. [bjʊə'rəkrəsi] – a complicated official system that is annoying or confusing because it has a lot of rules, processes etc.

Coercive adj. [kəʊ'ə:sɪv] – using threats or orders to make someone do something they do not want to do.

Coherence n. [kə(ʊ)'hɪərə(ə)ns] – if a group has coherence, its members are connected or united because they share common aims, qualities, or beliefs.

Commitment n. [kə'mɪtm(ə)nt] – a promise to do something or to behave in a particular way.

Democracy n. [dɪ'məkrəsi] – situation or system in which everyone is equal and has the right to vote, make decisions etc.

Emancipation n. [ɪ,mænsɪ'peɪʃən] – giving someone the political or legal rights that they did not have before.

Prevail v. [pri'veɪl] – to exist among a group of people at a certain time.

Utilitarian adj. [ˌju:tɪlɪ'teəriən] – intended to be useful and practical rather than attractive or comfortable.

MODULE 6

Text 11 White-Collar Crime

Pre-reading tasks

1. Work in groups of three or four and discuss the following:

- How do you understand the term “white-collar crime”?
- Give examples of white-collar crime.
- What other types of crime do you know?

2. Guess the meaning of the following words:

asbestos operations [æz'bestəs ,ɒpə'reɪʃənz]

corporate crime ['kɔ:pəɪt kraɪm]

individuals [,ɪndɪ'vɪdʒʊəlz]

tobacco companies [tə'bækəʊ 'kʌmpənɪz]

toxic substances ['tɒksɪk 'sʌbstənsɪz]

3. Study the following words and expressions:

altering adj. ['ɔ:ltərɪŋ] – изменяющий

bribery n. ['braɪbəri] – взяточничество

cast doubt on the notion [kɑ:st daʊt ɒn ðə 'nəʊʃən] – ставить под сомнение понятие

coal mines [kəʊl maɪnz] – угольные шахты

coin v. [kɔɪn] – придумывать, фабриковать, измышлять

collision n. [kə'liʒən] – столкновение

embezzle v. [ɪm'beɪz(ə)l] – присваивать, растрачивать

embezzlement n. [ɪm'beɪzlmənt] – хищение

enhance v. [ɪn'hɑ:ns] – увеличивать, усиливать

evasion n. [ɪ'veɪʒən] – уклонение, увертка, обход

fraud v. [frɔ:d] – мошенничество

incarceration n. [ɪn,kɑ:sə'reɪʃən] – лишение свободы, ущемление

inferior adj. [ɪn'fɪəriər] – низший, худший, плохонький

knowingly adv. ['nəʊɪŋli] – сознательно, понимающе, искусно

left-wing adj. [left 'wiŋ] – левый, относящийся к левому крылу

ounce n. [aʊns] – унция

overcharge v. [ˌəʊvə'tʃɑ:dʒ] – назначать завышенную цену

parole n. [pə'roul] – честное слово, пароль, досрочное освобождение

peculiar adj. [pi'kju:liə] – своеобразный, специфический, странный

perceptions n. [pə'sepʃən] – восприятие

pollution n. [pə'lu:ʃn] – загрязнение, осквернение

rear end collision [riə(r) end kə'liʒən] – заднее торможение

4. Read and translate the text using a dictionary if necessary:

White-Collar Crime

The concept of white-collar crime draws attention to definitions of deviance which are determined by the powerful. Edwin Sutherland initially coined the term “white-collar crime” in order to point out weaknesses in typical crime theory that considered social pathology as the primary explanation behind criminal behavior. White-collar crime refers to crimes that are committed by “respectable people” during the course of their occupation. Crimes which are considered white-collar include embezzling, price fixing, insider buying, fraud, falsification of expense accounts (or other records), and theft of materials. This category of crime casts doubt on the notion that poverty breeds crime.

I. Types of White-Collar Crime. Appelbaum and Chambliss (1997:117) call attention to two types of white-collar crime.

A. Occupational Crime. Occupational crime occurs when crimes are committed to promote personal interests. Crimes that fall into this category include altering books by accountants and overcharging or cheating clients by lawyers.

B. Organizational or Corporate Crime. A much more costly type of white collar crime occurs when corporate executives commit criminal acts

to benefit their company. There are a variety of corporate crimes that include:

- creation of inferior products
- pollution
- price fixing
- tobacco companies that add nicotine to cigarettes
- when companies advertise food as "lite" when it has as many calories as regular food.

II. The Cost of White-Collar Crime

The dollar loss attributed to white-collar crimes, according to Sutherland, is probably greater than the dollar loss from all other types of crimes. For example, the American business community lost \$50 billion in 1980 to white-collar crime. This was nearly 10 times more than the monetary value of all forms of street crimes (from Eitzen, 1986:426).

III. The Goals of White-Collar Crime: Profit and Political Power

Money is not the only motive for engaging in white-collar crime. Often political power is the goal. In the 1950s and 1960s, when the FBI illegally broke into offices of left-wing political organizations, enhancing power was the objective, not money (see Coleman and Cressey, 1984:416). The entire Watergate affair was oriented toward enhancing power.

IV. Murder by Neglect

White-collar crime can describe situations where companies or individuals knowingly use substandard building material, market untested drugs, or knowingly (and illegally) pollute the environment. Neglect of worker safety requirements may also be considered white-collar crime. Every year in the U.S. between 120,000 and 200,000 people die from work related illness and 14,000 die from on-the-job accidents (Charon, 1986:334).

Many occupational deaths are a result of organizational negligence. Chemical companies, coal mines, and asbestos operations represent organ-

izations that experience high rates of death while organizations make profit.

- Remember the Dioxin that was sprayed on streets of Times Beach, Missouri?
- Remember Love Canal?
- How about the Ford Pintos, which exploded upon suffering rear end collisions (see Ralph Nader's *Unsafe at Any Speed*).

In all cases, the companies involved were aware of the consequences of their actions.

In the case of Dioxin, the deadly effects are well documented. Dioxin is one of the most toxic substances known to human beings. Three ounces can kill one million people. At Love Canal, the Hooker Chemical Company dumped 200 tons of chemical waste that contained 130 pounds of Dioxin (Eitzen, 1986:96). In the case of the Pinto, the company failed to recall cars even after the problem relating to the position of the Pinto's gas tank was well-documented. Ford found it more profitable to pay settlements after accidents occurred than to recall the Pinto for repairs. Deaths that result from corporate neglect should be considered “murder by neglect”, but white-collar crime is not seen in the same light as street crime.

V. Penalties for White-Collar Crime

The difference in how we respond to white-collar crime and “regular” crime is dramatic. If an individual shot and killed another individual with a hand gun, the death penalty would be considered. What happens when people are killed because a contractor uses substandard building material?

- Remember the Hyatt House disaster in Kansas City?

As a result of differences in perceptions between white-collar crime and regular crime, the accident in Kansas City was seen as a misfortune while an individual who shoots another individual is seen as a murderer. White-collar criminals almost never go to jail.

- Former Vice President Spiro Agnew was never sentenced for bribery and tax evasion.

- President Nixon received a full pardon for his part in the planning of the Watergate burglary, as well as its cover up.
- Oliver North became a hero while acknowledging that he lied to Congress.
- Reagan vetoed the Ethics in Government Bill in November 1988. His spokesperson said "it was bad politics, but good government."
- Let's also not forget the 25 deaths that resulted at Hamlet, North Carolina's Emmett Roe chicken plant. The owners had locked all the exits. The owner, who ordered the doors locked, was sentenced to 19 years and will be paroled in 2 to 6 years.

Incarceration rates dramatize the differential perceptions of white-collar crime compared to other types of crime. According to the American Bar Association (ABA).

- 91 percent of those convicted of bank robberies go to jail while only 17 percent of those convicted of embezzlement of bank funds go to jail.
- Only five percent of people suspected of committing white-collar crimes were convicted. Only a small percent of those convicted actually went to jail. The fact that Oliver North was seen as a hero despite admitting to Congress that he lied about Iran-Contra.
- When building contractors use substandard material which causes injury and death, fines result rather than jail time. No one went to jail as a result of the Hyatt Disaster in Kansas City.

Such statistics are indeed peculiar given that the average dollar loss that results from street crime is much less than the dollar loss experienced from white-collar crime. In Florida, for example, street crime amounted to \$35 per crime while the average loss to white-collar criminal activities was \$621,000 (data is from Eitzen, 1986:427).

(Source: <https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-9-lecture-notes-9/1099585/view>)

5. Answer the following questions:

- 1) What is the white-collar crime? Give examples.
- 2) Who usually commits white-collar crimes?
- 3) What does this type of crime include?
- 4) How could you characterize the white-collar crime?
- 5) How could you describe the cost of those crimes?
- 6) What is the motive of white-collar crime?
- 7) May neglect be the cause of a crime? If yes, give examples.
- 8) What is the difference between white-collar crime and “regular” crime?
- 9) How many of white-collar criminals go to jail?
- 10) How much, according to the statistics, did street crime and white-collar criminal activity cost?

6. Match the English words with their Russian equivalents:

1) bribery	a. вынести приговор, осудить
2) embezzle	b. досрочное освобождение
3) fraud	c. присваивать, растрачивать
4) neglect	d. взяточничество
5) to sentence	e. причинить повреждения, увечья
6) parole	f. пренебрежение, небрежность
7) cause injury	g. штраф
8) fine	h. мошенничество

7. Give English definitions to the following words and expressions and make up sentences of your own:

white-collar crime, regular crime, bribe, incarceration, embezzling, fraud, parole, murder by neglect, profit, to be sentenced.

8. Complete the table with the forms of the words given. Use a dictionary if necessary:

VERB	NOUN	ADJECTIVE
to commit		

	respect	
		powerful
to neglect		
	profit	
		light
to die		

9. Work in pairs. Write 3 sentences about White-Collar crime: they must be true or false. Can your partner decide which ones are false?

10. Match the parts of the text with the corresponding titles:

A. The Best Lawyers

B. Individual Perception

C. Why Don't White-Collar Criminals Go To Jail?

D. Difficult to Assign Blame

E. Favorable Laws

F. Little Police Effort

1. _____

Clearly a double standard exists between white-collar crimes and street crimes. The following are some reasons that explain why white-collar criminals are not more rigorously pursued.

2. _____

White-collar criminals have money and can therefore afford the best legal advice.

3. _____

Laws are generally written in favor of the white-collar criminal. People who commit white-collar crimes are sometimes the same people who are in a position to see to it that their crimes are not defined too negatively.

4. _____

Whereas the impact of white-collar criminals on the nation is great, the cost to each individual is small. White-collar crimes do not impact in-

dividuals with the same intensity as when one individual is victimized by a petty criminal.

5. _____

Virtually no police effort goes into fighting white-collar crime. Enforcement is many times put in the hands of government agencies (like the Environmental Protection Agency – EPA). Often these agencies can act only as watchdogs and point the finger when an abuse is discovered.

6. _____

Assigning blame in white-collar crime cases can be difficult. For example, pollution may be the result of corporate neglect, but corporation cannot be sent to jail. Corporations could be heavily fined (a viable option), but the social impact of severely punishing an institution that may provide jobs to hundreds of people, as well as supply social necessities, may be more detrimental than the initial violation of the law.

11. Why do you think white-collar criminals are not more rigorously pursued? Prepare your arguments to discuss with a partner.

12. Prepare a report on one of the following topics:

- White-Collar Crime, its types and cost
- The Goals of White-Collar Crime
- Penalties for White-Collar Crime
- Why Don't White-Collar Criminals Go to Jail?

Text 12 Crime and Deterrence

Pre-reading tasks

1. Work in groups of three or four and discuss the following:

- Can you define the term “crime”? Compare your definition with your partner.
- What do you think are the reasons of committing crimes?
- How do you understand a saying “an eye for an eye”?
- How to prevent people from committing crimes?

2. Guess the meaning of the following words:

crime rate [kraɪm reɪt]

jurisdiction [ˌdʒʊərɪsˈdɪkʃən]

recidivism [rɪˈsɪdɪvɪzəm]

rehabilitation [ˌriːəˌbɪlɪˈteɪʃən]

shadow economy [ˈʃædəʊ i(:)ˈkɒnəmi]

3. Study the following words and expressions:

contend v. [kənˈtend] – утверждать

contravene v. [ˌkɒntrəˈviːn] – противоречить, нарушать, возражать, оспаривать, идти вразрез, преступать

death penalty [deθˈpenlti] – смертная казнь

deter v. [dɪˈtɜː] – удерживать, сдерживать, остановить

deterrence n. [dɪˈterəns] – устрашение, удержание, отпугивание

disposal n. [dɪˈspəʊzəl] – распоряжение, удаление, избавление

disruptive adj. [dɪsˈrʌptɪv] – разрушительный, подрывной, пробивной

drop n. [drɒp] – капля, падение, снижение

embezzle v. [ɪmˈbezl̩] – присваивать, растрачивать, разворовать

execute v. [ˈeksɪkjʊ:t] – выполнять, казнить, реализовать

falter v. [ˈfɒltər] – колебаться, запинаться, действовать нерешительно

fluctuate v. ['flʌktʃueɪt] – колебаться, меняться, колыхаться, БЫТЬ НЕУСТОЙЧИВЫМ

homicide n. ['hɒmɪsaɪd] – убийство, человекоубийство

incapacitation n. [ɪn'kæpəsɪ'teɪʃn] – недееспособность

incarcerate v. [ɪn'kɑ:səreɪt] – заключать в тюрьму, лишать свободы

likewise adv. ['laɪkwaɪz] – также, более того, аналогично

retribution n. [,retri'bju:ʃən] – возмездие, наказание

be tempted into [bi: 'temptɪd 'ɪntu:] – БЫТЬ чем-то ИСКУШЕННЫМ

tough adj. [tʌf] – жесткий, трудный, крепкий

transitional neighbourhood [træn'sɪzənəl 'neɪbəhʊd] – промежуточный (переходный) район

violate v. ['vɪəleɪt] – нарушать, попира́ть, насиловать, преступать

4. Read and translate the text using a dictionary if necessary:

Crime and Deterrence

I. What is Crime?

Robertson (1989:123) maintains that a crime is “an act that contravenes a law”. Generally speaking, deviant behavior becomes a crime when it is too disruptive and uncontrollable via informal sanctions. Like all forms of deviance, crime is a relative matter. Most people, however, in any given society tend to view the difference between criminal and noncriminal behavior as being absolute.

A. Who commits the most crimes – the young

The baby boomers have long passed from being young. Baby boomers are now over thirty years old. There are fewer young people today [as a percent of the total population] than there were 15 to 20 years ago. Since young people commit the most crimes, it is logical to expect that crime rates will drop as the population ages. (See William Julius Wilson for a demographic analysis on the African American community.)

B. Rapid Shifts in Population. There are other components that cause variation in crime rates. Rapidly growing cities have trouble keeping their police forces large enough to cope with the expanding population. One should not forget the problems associated with the “transitional neighborhood” as a cause of deviance.

C. The Condition of the Economy. There are also links to economic performance. As the economy fluctuates, so does the crime rate. It makes sense that when the economy falters. Crime rates increase as those removed from the legitimate economy seek less-legitimate avenues in the informal or shadow economy in order to survive.

II. Corrections

Recidivism

How successful are Prisons in rehabilitating criminals? Not very! Three-fourths of the released criminals are re-arrested within four years. Recidivism refers to ex-offenders who are arrested for another criminal offense once they have been released from jail.

Death Penalty and Homicide Rates

Do states that have the death penalty have lowered homicide rates? No! There is no difference between the states that execute and those that do not.

The following material explores four philosophies regarding corrections. Why do we put people in prison? What are our goals of incarcerating people?

A. Retribution

Robertson contends that one reason for putting people in prison is to punish the offender. The state is placed in the position of “applying revenge on behalf of the victim”. This is the “eye for an eye” philosophy.

B. Deterrence

Most of our police forces operate under a philosophy called deterrence theory. Deterrence theory contends that if the public knows the consequences of deviance, many individuals will not commit a crime. “Through punishment, corrections serve to deter the offender from deviat-

ing again and it scares others who might be tempted into crime”. There are three aspects of deterrence theory. In order for deterrence to be successful each aspect should be true.

1. The individual has to know what the law states. Without clear knowledge of the law, the individual cannot know he/she is in the process of violating the law.

2. The potential offender must know what the punishment is. How tough will the punishment be? It makes a difference to a potential bank robber when planning a holdup whether the penalty is 1 year or 20 years in prison. Likewise, if a white-collar criminal is relatively sure that they will get a light punishment, they might be more inclined to embezzle from a bank or to use substandard building material.

3. Will an offender receive punishment? If punishment is certain, then the philosophy of deterrence comes closer to achieving its goals. If, on the other hand, one is relatively sure that they will not be punished, deterrence is not achieved.

4. Critique of Deterrence Theory: The current system of criminal justice demonstrates none of these characteristics. The law is too complex, the severity of punishment depends on the jurisdiction (city, state, federal), and it depends on social class.

C. Incapacitation

This philosophy seeks to prevent the offender from committing further crimes. Some criminals are seen as not being responsible for their actions. Nonetheless, ordinary citizens do not want them on the streets. Mental illness is sometimes seen as an explanation for criminal behavior. Often mentally ill are not sent to prison, but are still “incapacitated” in hospitals or similar institutions.

D. Rehabilitation

Rehabilitation involves teaching inmates skills and trades that will, hopefully, give them a chance to become law-abiding productive citizens once they are released from prison. The correction system might “serve to reform the offender by providing skills and attitudes that make return to a

law-abiding life possible” (Robertson, 1989:129). Reiman (1998) argues that our criminal justice system fails if we release people, who have paid for their crime, with no legitimate skills. The ex-felon is likely to return to crime with no other legitimate options at his or her disposal.

(Source:<https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-10-lecture-notes-11/1099653/view>)

5. Answer the following questions:

- 1) How does Robertson determine a crime?
- 2) Why do baby boomers commit most crimes?
- 3) Why is growing of the cities a cause of committing crimes?
- 4) What is the role of economy in the growth of crimes?
- 5) Is the recidivism a common thing for people, who have been released from a jail?
- 6) Is there any difference between states that have death penalty and those that don't?
- 7) What does the deterrence theory contend?
- 8) What aspects of deterrence theory could you give out?
- 9) What is the role of mental illness in committing crimes?
- 10) What steps should people take after jail to return to a law-abiding life?

6. Match the words with their definitions:

1. Crime	a. when a criminal starts doing illegal things again, even after he or she has been punished
2. Deterrence	b. something that makes someone less likely to do something, by making them realize it will be difficult or have bad results
3. Retribution	c. making someone too ill or weak to live and work normally
4. Recidivism	d. severe punishment for something very serious
5. Law-abiding	e. helping someone to live a healthy, useful, or active life

	again after they have been seriously ill or in prison
6. Incapacitation	f. an illegal action, which can be punished by law
7. Rehabilitation	g. acceptable or allowed by law
8. Legitimate	h. respectful of the law and obeying it

7. Make up sentences with the words and expressions from exercise

6.

8. Complete the table with the forms of the words given. Use a dictionary if necessary:

VERB	NOUN	ADJECTIVE
to achieve		
	offence	
		responsible
to explain		
	deterrence	
		hopeful
to commit		

9. Work in pairs. Make up a dialogue about different ways of deterrence in our country. In your opinion, are they effective?

10. Read the following text and give a short summary:

Types of Crime

Four categories of crime are discussed below. They are violent crime, crimes against property, victimless crimes, and white-collar crime.

A. Crimes of Violence

Americans fear crimes of violence the most. During the 1970s the rate of violent crime rose dramatically. The increase in crime subsided during the early 1980s, but it began to rise again during the later part of the 1980s. The rate of violent crime is, once again, falling in the latter part of the 1990s.

Many people fear murder at the hands of a complete stranger, but the data demonstrate that 57 percent of murder victims knew their killers. Only 20 percent of murders fall under the category of street crime.

The United States is the most violent society of all industrialized nations. The U.S. has the highest murder rate in the world. A single American city like Chicago or Detroit has murder rates higher than the entire country of England.

Hand Guns are the weapons used in 44 percent of the 20,000 murders that occurred in the US. The murder rate for handgun homicide in 1980 in the United States was 77 times greater than it is in England or Japan (Robertson, 1989:124).

The primary cause of deaths by hand guns is the wide spread access to hand guns. Ordinary citizens often claim that they need a gun to protect themselves. Unfortunately, many handgun related murders occur because of the presence of the guns. Only 2 percent of all hand gun slaying occur because one person was trying to protect themselves. The remainder of handgun related deaths was homicides, suicides, or accidental deaths. In most of these cases the victims were family members, friends, or acquaintances.

B. Crimes against Property

Crimes against property include crimes where criminals steal, or vandalize property, that belongs to someone else. These crimes are far more numerous than violent crimes. One occurs about every three seconds. Like violent crimes, property related crimes rose dramatically during the 1970s and leveled off during the 1980s. One possible explanation calls attention to the age structure of the United States. Data show that young people between 16 and 25 years old commit by far the most crimes against property. As the baby boom generation ages, it is logical to expect the crime rate to decline.

C. Crime without Victims

Presumably no one suffers from victimless crimes. Crime without victims, however, is something of a misnomer. The assumption is there are

no injuries caused by these crimes. Robertson (1989:125) points out, however, that the individuals who violate the law may, in fact, suffer. Perhaps the term “victimless crime” refers to the fact that there are no victims to press charges.

Examples of “Victimless Crimes”

Prostitution, Gambling, Illegal Drug Use, Bookies, vagrancy, and prohibited sexual acts among consenting adults.

These crimes are “morality crimes”. They are very difficult to control because there is no victim to press charges. Those who engage in the activity regard the law as inappropriate, not themselves. Another issue regarding victimless crimes is that they consume an enormous amount of police effort. Further, they stimulate activity in organized crime because “victimless crimes” usually involve something desirable where large profits can be made (e.g., drugs or sex).

D. White-Collar Crime

For information on White-Collar Crime see Unit 11 “White-Collar Crime”. (Source:<https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-10-lecture-notes-11/1099653/view>)

11. Sum up the information of the Unit. Using the active vocabulary and additional information make up a presentation on one of the following topics:

- Deviance. Different definitions of deviant behaviour.
- The Positivist School: Biological Theories of Deviance.
- Cesare Lombroso’s theory.
- Anomie or Strain Theory: Robert Merton's Typology of Deviance.

Glossary of the module

Bribery n. [ˈbraɪbəri] – dishonestly giving money to someone to persuade them to do something to help you.

Deterrence n. [dɪ'tɛrəns] – making somebody realize it will be difficult or have bad results.

Embezzle v. [ɪm'beɪz(ə)l] – to steal money from the place where you work.

Fine n. [faɪn] – money that you have to pay as a punishment.

Fraud n. [frɔ:d] – the crime of deceiving people in order to gain something such as money or goods.

Incarceration n. [ɪn,kɑ:sə'reɪʃən] – putting or keeping someone in prison.

Inferior adj. [ɪn'fɪəriər] – someone who has a lower position or rank than you in an organization.

Rehabilitation n. [ˌri:əˌbɪlɪ'teɪʃən] – the process of helping someone to live a healthy, useful, or active life again after they have been seriously ill or in prison.

Sentence n. ['sentəns] – a punishment that a judge gives to someone who is guilty of a crime.

White-collar crime n. [waɪt 'kɒlə kraɪm] – crimes by professional people that involve ways of illegally getting money.

MODULE 7

Text 13 Social Class Stratification

Pre-reading tasks

1. Work in groups of three or four and discuss the following:

- What is the name of a division of people in society?
- Give the definition of stratification.
- What do you know about the stratification in India?
- Name types of stratification you know.
- What do you personally think about stratification, does it have more advantages or disadvantages?

2. Guess the meaning of the following words:

broad spectrum [brɔ:d'spektrəm]

caste system [kɑ:st'sistɪm]

classless society ['klɑ:slɪs sə'saɪəti]

prestige [prɛs'ti:ʒ]

social phenomenon ['səʊʃəl fi'nɒmɪnən]

social strata ['səʊʃəl 'strɑ:tə]

3. Study the following words and expressions:

boundary n. ['baʊnd(ə)rɪ] – граница

claim n. [kleɪm] – претензия, требование, иск

competitive adj. [kəm'petɪtɪv] – конкурентный,

конкурентоспособный

furthermore adv. [fə:'ðə'mɔ:] – более того

inappropriate adj. [ɪnə'prəʊpriət] – неуместный,

несоответствующий

inequality n. [ɪni'kwɒlɪti] – неравенство; разница (в количестве, размере, степени и т. п.); несоответствие

institutional inequalities – институциональные неравенства

lack of conflict – отсутствие конфликта

prosperity n. [prɒ'spɛrɪti] – процветание, преуспевание, успех
rigid adj. ['rɪdʒɪd] – жёсткий, негнущийся; неподатливый
roll of the dice – число, выпадающее при игре в кости
contend v. [kən'tend] – утверждать, бороться
encourage v. [ɪn'kʌrɪdʒ] – поощрять, поддерживать, ободрять
justify v. ['dʒʌstɪfaɪ] – оправдывать, объяснять
maintain v. [meɪn'teɪn] – поддерживать, сохранять
to mention a few – не говоря о многих других
perpetuate v. [pə'petʃueɪt] – увековечивать
refer v. [rɪ'fə:] – обращаться
scare v. [skeɪ:] – пугать, отпугивать
upward adv. ['ʌpwəd] – вверх, выше, кверху

4. Read and translate the text using a dictionary if necessary:

Social Class (Stratification)

I. Basic Definitions

A. Life Chances.

Life chances refer to one's access to resources. Life chances can refer to one's ability to get food and shelter. It also refers to access to social institutions such as health care, education, the government, and the law (to mention a few). Social class affects one's life chances across a broad spectrum of social phenomenon from health care, to educational attainment, to participation in the political process, to contact with the criminal justice system.

B. What is Social Stratification?

Social stratification refers to the division of a society into layers (or strata) whose occupants have unequal access to social opportunities and rewards. People in the top strata enjoy power, prosperity, and prestige that are not available to other members of society; people in the bottom strata endure penalties that other members of society escape. In a stratified socie-

ty, inequality is part of the social structure and passes from one generation to the next.

C. What is a Class?

People who occupy the same layer of the socioeconomic hierarchy are known as a social class (Bassis, 1991). According to Henslin (2004:192), a social class is a large group of people who rank closely to one another in wealth, power, and prestige.

II. Stratification Systems

A. Caste: Ascribed Status

A caste system is a rigid system of inequality. Caste position is strictly defined. There is no social mobility from one caste to another. Caste relationships are relatively conflict free. The lack of conflict can be explained, in part, because of the powerful position on the upper caste and, in part, by an ideology that justifies caste position. There is little deviance on the part of the lower castes because of fear of harsh punishment.

A well-known society with a caste system is India. People are born into a caste. Caste membership determines your occupation, social interaction, power, and education. No amount of achievement will change your caste position.

Some argue that race and gender sometimes functions like a caste system in the United States. People are born with their race and their gender.

1. Endogamy. In a caste society, people have to marry within their own caste.

2. Ritual Pollution. In caste societies, many members guard against ritual pollution. Contact between members of the upper caste and the lower caste is inappropriate. Such contact is seen by the members of the upper caste as unclean. In the Indian caste system upper caste individuals avoid even the shadow of an untouchable. The shadow of an untouchable's house is polluting to members of the upper castes.

B. Class: Achieved Status

The class system is an open form of stratification based primarily on economic criteria. The boundaries between classes are more fluid than with the caste system. Individuals can move around within the class system. Their status can improve or decline. Class membership depends, at least in part, on characteristics which the individual can control. Keep in mind, however, that people tend to be born into class structure. Change is difficult. Historic conditions determine social class structure. The ideology of the dominant culture perpetuates class structure. The type of class structure which allows the greatest mobility is generally a modern industrial society.

C. A Classless Society.

In a classless society there are no economically based strata. Not even the Soviet's claim to be a true Communist society. They only claim to be at the transition phase between capitalism and socialism.

III. Perspectives on Class

A. Stratification: A Functionalist View

Functionalists see the class structure is beneficial to American society. Furthermore, class structure is necessary. Functionalists concern themselves with how a society can encourage the most qualified people to do the most important jobs. Class structure facilitates this end.

1. Class structure provides a competitive arena

A class structure allows the best rise to the top of the social strata.

2. Class structure provides a motivating force

Fluid class structure provides motivation and an arena for individual achievement. It offers prizes that challenge people to work hard.

3. Class structure provides opportunity

Americans believe that through hard work, all people have a crack at getting to the top. The wealth of the few is the goal of every American. Of course, there is poverty. Poverty, however, is simply the result of individuals not trying hard enough.

B. Stratification: A Conflict View

Conflict theory argues that the basis of social stratification is found in conflict over some kind of scarce resources. Conflict theory contends that stratification is not necessary, but is maintained to safeguard the ruling class's privileges. Those who find social class beneficial are those who have “made it” in the system.

Rather than stratification being a fluid system of upward and downward mobility based on ability, the class system is actually characterized by institutional inequalities in income and wealth. Only on rare occasions do Americans break through the class barrier. Usually break through occurs as a result of a lucky “roll of the dice”. Few people actually succeed at social advancement through sheer hard work.

(Source:<https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-11-lecture-notes-19/1099842/view>)

5. Fill in the blanks with the correct words:

According to Henslin, a social class is a large group of people who (a)... to one another in wealth, power, and prestige.

Functionalist concern themselves with how a society can (b)... the most qualified people to do the most important jobs.

In the Indian caste system, upper caste individuals (c) ... even the shadow of an untouchable.

Life chances can (d)... to get food and shelter.

In India, no amount of achievement will change your (e)....

People in the top strata enjoy power, prosperity, and prestige that are not available to other members of society; people in the (f)... endure penalties that other members of society escape.

Rather than stratification being a fluid system of upward and downward mobility (g)... ability, the class system is actually characterized by institutional inequalities in income and wealth.

The lack of conflict can be explained, in part, because of the powerful position on the upper caste and, in part, by an ideology that (h)... caste position.

The type of class structure which allows the greatest mobility is generally a modern (i)....

Usually break through occurs (j)... a lucky “roll of the dice”.

Words: an industrial society, based on, to refer to one's ability, to encourage, to rank closely, to avoid, a caste position, a bottom strata, to justify, as a result of.

6. Translate the following sentences from Russian into English:

1) Социальный класс влияет на жизненные шансы через широкий спектр социальных феноменов: от уровня медицинского обслуживания до уровня образования, участия в политической жизни, до контактов с системой уголовного наказания.

2) Люди, принадлежащие к высшей страте, наслаждаются властью, процветанием и престижем, которые недоступны другим членам общества.

3) Люди, находящиеся на одном уровне в социально-экономической иерархии известны как социальный класс.

4) В Индии кастовые отношения относительно бесконфликтны.

5) Принадлежность к касте определяет твой род занятий, социальные взаимодействия, власть и образование.

6) Некоторые утверждают, что в США раса и пол иногда функционируют как кастовая система.

7) Классовая система – это открытая форма стратификации, основывающаяся, главным образом, на экономическом критерии.

8) Принадлежность к тому или иному классу зависит, по крайней мере, частично, от характеристик, которые индивид не может контролировать.

9) Сторонники функционализма заботятся о том, как общество может побудить самых квалифицированных людей выполнять самые важные задания.

10) Только в редких случаях американцы преодолевают классовый барьер.

7. Complete the chart with the appropriate forms of the words:

VERB	NOUN	ADJECTIVE
	progress	
		forgetful
		hard
develop		
	access	
move		
	politeness	
complete		
		important
occupy		
		educational
		improvable
	discrimination	
		fluid
	belief	
argue		

8. Give synonyms to these words and phrases from the text, use a dictionary if necessary:

According to

Relatively

Keep in mind

Of course

A broad spectrum of smth

Usually

9. Read the text. Six sentences have been removed from it. Choose from the sentences (A-G) the one which fits each gap (1-6). There is one sentence you don't need to use.

a) A social class is a large group of people who rank closely to one another in wealth, power, and prestige.

b) In a stratified society, inequality is part of the social structure and passes from one generation to the next.

c) In the Indian caste system, upper caste individuals avoid even the shadow of an untouchable.

d) It also refers to access to social institutions such as health care, education, the government, and the law (to mention a few).

e) The labor market and society overall would cease to function if women did not leave the labor market to have children.

f) Their status can improve or decline.

g) There is no social mobility from one caste to another.

Life chances refer to one's access to resources. Life chances can refer to one's ability to get food and shelter. Social class affects one's life chances across a broad spectrum of social phenomenon from health care, to educational attainment, to participation in the political process, to contact with the criminal justice system.

1	
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Social stratification refers to the division of a society into layers (or strata) whose occupants have unequal access to social opportunities and rewards. People in the top strata enjoy power, prosperity, and prestige that are not available to other members of society; people in the bottom strata endure penalties that other members of society escape.

2	
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People who occupy the same layer of the socioeconomic hierarchy are known as a social class. A class structure allows the best rise to the top of the social strata.

3	
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A caste system is a rigid system of inequality. Caste position is strictly defined. However, caste relationships are relatively conflict free. The lack of conflict can be explained, in part, because of the powerful position on the upper caste and, in part, by an ideology that justifies caste position. There is little deviance on the part of the lower castes because of fear of harsh punishment.

4	
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A well-known society with a caste system is India. People are born into a caste. Caste membership determines your occupation, social interaction, power, and education. No amount of achievement will change your caste position. In a caste society, people have to marry within their own caste. Contact between members of the upper caste and the lower caste is inappropriate. Such contact is seen by the members of the upper caste as unclean. The shadow of an untouchable's house is polluting to members of the upper castes.

5	
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The class system is an open form of stratification based primarily on economic criteria. The boundaries between classes are more fluid than with the caste system. Individuals can move around within the class system. Class membership depends, at least in part, on characteristics which the individual can control. Keep in mind, however, that people tend to be born into class structure. Change is difficult. Historic conditions determine social class structure. The ideology of the dominant culture perpetuates class structure. The type of class structure which allows the greatest mobility is generally a modern industrial society.

6	
---	--

10. Fill in the blanks with the correct words:

- 1) achievement
- 2) boundaries
- 3) castes
- 4) determine
- 5) inappropriate
- 6) India
- 7) inequality
- 8) relatively
- 9) society
- 10) stratification

A caste system is a rigid system of (a)_____. Caste position is strictly defined. There is no social mobility from one caste to another. Caste relationships are (b)_____ conflict free. The lack of conflict can be explained, in part, because of the powerful position on the upper caste and, in part, by an ideology that justifies caste position. There is little deviance on the part of the lower (c) _____ because of fear of harsh punishment.

A well-known society with a caste system is (d)_____. People are born into a caste. Caste membership determines your occupation, social interaction, power, and education. No amount of (e)_____ will change your caste position.

Some argue that race and gender sometimes functions like a caste system in the United States. People are born with their race and their gender.

In caste societies many members guard against ritual pollution. Contact between members of the upper caste and the lower caste is (f)_____. Such contact is seen by the members of the upper caste as unclean. In the Indian caste system upper caste individuals avoid even the shadow of an untouchable. The shadow of an untouchable's house is polluting to members of the upper castes.

The class system is an open form of (g)_____ based primarily on economic criteria. The (h)_____ between classes are more fluid than with the caste system. Individuals can move around within the class system. Their status can improve or decline. Class membership depends, at least in part, on characteristics which the individual can control. Keep in mind, however, that people tend to be born into class structure. Change is difficult. Historic conditions (i)_____ social class structure. The ideology of the dominant culture perpetuates class structure. The type of class structure which allows the greatest mobility is generally a modern industrial society.

In a classless (j)_____ there are no economically based strata. Not even the Soviet's claim to be a true Communist society. They only claim to be at the transition phase between capitalism and socialism.

11. Choose the correct answer:

1. Social stratification refers to ...:
 - A. one's access to resources;
 - B. prestige that is not available to other members of the society;
 - C. the division of a society into layers (or strata) whose occupants have unequal access to social opportunities and rewards;
 - D. class system.

2. Do you know a country where a well-known caste system exists?
 - A. Bangladesh
 - B. India
 - C. Russia
 - D. UAE

3. In a caste society, must people marry within their own caste?
 - A. No, it is not necessary;
 - B. It is strictly prohibited;
 - C. Yes, they must marry only within their own caste;

D. It is desirable.

4. According to the text, what is Social Stratification?

A. People in poverty;

B. The division of a society into layers (or strata) in accordance with unequal access to social opportunities and rewards;

C. The structuring of the different jobs people hold;

D. The division of the different ethnic groups.

5. What is Social Class?

A. A division of a society into layers;

B. The same as Social Stratification;

C. A large group of people who rank closely to one another by socio-economic level (in wealth, power, and prestige);

D. Classifying oneself as an important person in society.

6. According to the text, name two sociologists who gave a definition of Social Class:

A. Henslin and Bassis;

B. Marx and Spencer;

C. Radaev and Spencer;

D. Henslin and Conte.

7. A _____ is a segment of a population whose members hold similar amounts of scarce resources and prestige, their position is strictly defined and characterized by hereditary transmission of a lifestyle (occupation, status in a hierarchy, and social interaction).

A. Group

B. Social class

C. Caste

D. Primary group

8. Could the higher social class position be achieved by an individual?

- A. Yes, because the class system is an open form of stratification;
- B. No, the class system is strictly defined;
- C. No, there is social mobility from one class to another;
- D. Yes, but you can only decline your class status.

9. According to the text, is it true or false: “In a classless society there are no economically based strata”:

- A. It is true;
- B. It is false, a classless society is a myth;
- C. It is true, a classless society has another stratification system;
- D. It is false.

Text 14

Majority / Minority Relationships

Pre-reading tasks

1. Answer the following questions:

- 1) What do you know about economic difference in your country?
What is economic inequality?
- 2) What is the social inequality?
- 3) What are the reasons of social inequality?
- 4) Do you know the meaning of such terms as “racism”, “minority group”, and “ethnic group”?
- 5) Why are some groups named “majority” and “minority”?
- 6) Which of “minority” of our days is familiar to you?
- 7) Do you know sociologists who have explored or have been exploring the social inequality?

2. Discuss the following questions in pairs:

How can the problem of racism be solved? Who should offer a solution to it – the government or each individual person?

3. Study the following words and expressions:

advantage n. [əd'vɑ:ntɪdʒ] – преимущество

assume v. [ə'sju:m] – предполагать

benefit n. ['benɪfɪt] – польза

civil adj. ['sɪv(ə)l] – гражданский

crucial adj. ['kru:ʃ(ə)l] – решающий

decolonize v. [di:'kɒlənaɪz] – деколонизировать

describe v. [dɪ'skraɪb] – описывать

existence n. [ɪg'zɪst(ə)ns] – существование

identity n. [aɪ'dentɪti] – личность

imaginary adj. [ɪ'mædʒɪn(ə)rɪ] – мнимый

immediately adv. [ɪ'mi:diətli] – немедленно

inequality n. [ɪnɪ'kwɒlɪti] – неравенство

justification n. [dʒʌstɪfɪ'keɪʃ(ə)n] – обоснование

justify v. ['dʒʌstɪfaɪ] – оправдать

major adj. ['meɪdʒə] – основной

minority n. [maɪ'nɔrɪti] – меньшинство

pattern n. ['pætən] – модель

proclaim v. [prə'kleɪm] – провозгласить

rights n. [raɪts] – права

scapegoat ['skeɪpgəʊt] – козёл отпущения

slave n. [sleɪv] – раб

suffer v. ['sʌfə] – страдать

surplus n. ['sə:pləs] – избыток

unemployment n [ʌnɪm'plɔɪm(ə)nt] – безработица

unequal adv. [ʌn'i:kw(ə)l] – неравный

4. Read the following text about the majority and minority relationships

Majority / Minority Relationships

I. Introduction: Economic Inequality is the Essence

This section explores issues that involve minorities in general. It is not intended to address specific minorities. Any presentation like this, one should provide material that applies to all minority/majority relationships. This presentation assumes that all minorities share certain characteristics. It does not matter whether we are talking about the relationship between the Protestants and the Catholics in Northern Ireland or the relationship between the Chinese and the Moslems in Malaysia. Economic inequality is the major common characteristic of all minority groups. Many civil rights leaders have ultimately come to embrace economic injustice as the crucial issue.

Example: Jesse Jackson

Jesse Jackson asked at the Democratic National Convention in August 1988 “What is the fundamental challenge of our day?” He answered his own question by saying “To end economic violence”.

Example: Malcolm X

Malcolm X, a spokesman for Afro-American causes during the early 1960s, began his political career with absolute hatred for white people. He had good grounds to do so, based on the discrimination he experienced during his early life. Ultimately, however, Malcolm X came to embrace economic issues as more significant than race issues. After a trip to Mecca, where he discovered whites praying to his God, he came back to the United States proclaiming a new philosophy.

Example: Martin Luther King

Many have forgotten the issues important to King's movement after “I Have a Dream”. That Speech was given in 1963. King died in 1968 and much occurred between those two dates. General economic inequality of the oppressed was recognized. Focus also shifted to the war in Vietnam.

II. Definitions

A. What is a Race?

Robertson (1989:193) describes a race as a group of people who share similar physical (genetic) characteristics.

Racial Categories – Racial categories are human creations. As a biological concept, the term race is almost meaningless. The intense sociological interest in race is due to the fact that people attach meaning and values, either real or imaginary, to physical differences between groups of people.

B. What is an Ethnic Group?

An ethnic group shares similar cultural characteristics and culture is learned. Characteristics that might define an ethnic group would include a common language, religion, national origin, dietary practices, etc. An ethnic group may be distinguished from another group by a high level of social interaction. Ethnic groups perceive themselves as a cultural unit.

C. What is a Minority Group?

A minority is a category of people who lack power, privilege, and prestige in social, political or economic spheres.

- Minorities must always be understood in relation to others in the social structure. A minority group lacks power, prestige, and privilege in relation to others. They are unable to achieve their will. They lack resources to support their own interests effectively.

- Minority groups are people who are singled out for unequal treatment.

- Minorities have a shared sense of identity.

- Minorities may actually be a numerical majority (e.g., women in American society).

D. Racism

Racism refers to attitudes, beliefs, or behaviors that favor one group over another. Racism involves an ideology (a belief structure) that explains racist beliefs. The minority group might be seen as biologically inferior and, therefore, practices involving their domination and exploitation are reasonable. Others may justify racist beliefs by citing scientific evidence.

Regardless, a pervasive ideology (belief structure) exists to validate the unequal expectations held by the majority.

(Source: <https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-12-lecture-notes-12/1099848/view>)

5. Discuss the question in pairs: Do you agree that in industrial society economic inequality is the major common characteristic of all minority groups? Give characteristics of different minority groups.

6. Match the two parts of these extracts:

1) Many civil rights leaders have ultimately come to embrace economic injustice	a) share similar physical (genetic) characteristics.
2) Robertson describes a race as a group of people who	b) almost meaningless.
3) As a biological concept, the term race is	c) as the crucial issue.
4) A minority is	d) groups of people.
5) The intense sociological interest in race is because people attract meaning and values, either real or imaginary, to physical differences between	e) a category of people who lack power, privilege, and prestige in social, political or economic spheres.
6) Characteristics that might define an ethnic group would include	f) attitudes, beliefs, or behaviors that favor one group over another.
7) Racism refers to	g) a common language, religion, national origin, dietary practices, and etc.

7. Which sentence best paraphrases paragraph D. Racism?

A) A minority is a category of people who lack power, privilege, and prestige in social, political or economic spheres.

B) Racism refers to attitudes, beliefs, or behaviors that favor one group over another.

C) In the past, most of humans' societies were based on a belief in the sanctity, age-old traditions and the right of rulers to exercise authority in accordance with these traditions.

D) Racism is an unusual phenomenon in industrial society.

8. Arrange the words in A and B in pairs of synonyms:

1)

A)	B)
to concern	to make a research
to explore	to mark as different
to embrace	to be relevant to ...
to attempt	to grant independence to ...
to decolonize	to try
to distinguish	to provide adequate ground for
to justify	to adopt

2)

A)	B)
pervasive	precisely like ...
similar	race and cultural
meaningless	spreading
ethnic	pointless
unequal	sensible
reasonable	not enjoying equal rights

9. Combine the words in column A with those in B to make up word combinations. Make up your own sentences using them.

A

1. social
2. interested
3. come
4. crucial
5. economic

B

- a) in
- b) back
- c) issue
- d) ideology
- e) structure

- | | |
|--------------|--------------------|
| 6. based | f) on |
| 7. concerned | g) with |
| 8. certain | h) inequality |
| 9. pervasive | i) characteristics |
| 10. due | j) to |

10. Read the following text and write its summary:

Origins of Racial and Ethnic Minorities

Typical explanations for the existence of minority groups would be like that presented in Charon (1985:379). They would include the following:

A. Voluntary Migration. Voluntary migration is not really a good explanation by itself. Swedes and Germans do not experience minority status when they migrate to the US.

B. Slave Transfer. Slave transfer can surely account for minority status, but this is merely a specific form of the more general category called colonialism.

C. Colonization. Colonialism (or conquest) is the primary cause of racism. A conquest occurs when one group conquers another culture. The conquered are immediately placed at the lower end of society. To justify the degraded position of the conquered, the conquerors learn to despise the conquered.

If you want to end racism, you have to decolonize. For example, give minorities a share of the surplus taken from them during slavery. Programs such as busing, having pretty minority girls win beauty contests, etc. will not end racism. Such programs benefit those individuals, but will not address the ultimate problem of racism.

IV. Why do Minorities Continue in Society?

A. Minorities Lack Power Resources. Resources could take the form of property, money, position, or organization.

B. People in Society Benefit. Members of the elite as well as members of the general population benefit from the existence of minorities.

From the stand point of the general public minorities provide scapegoats. Deviantizing minorities takes the minority out of competition for jobs, housing, and education.

From the point of view of the elite, minorities represent groups where more profit can be extracted.

C. Culture and Structure are Generally Accepted

Most people accept the structural and cultural patterns in society and see little reason to change them. It takes a long time for social patterns to develop. Those patterns seem functional, especially to those who benefit from their existence. Therefore, those who benefit are more resistant to change.

Remember the idea of “Tyranny of the majority”? Most of the population is willing to let a minority of people suffer high rates of unemployment and poverty.

D. Changing the Status Quo is Costly

Change means that those with resources will have to pay higher taxes as well as give up existing advantages. In the 1990s Americans are not very interested in paying taxes either.

E. Ideology Perpetuates Minority Position

The dominant group always develops a set of values and beliefs which justify existing inequality. The justification is an attempt to rationalize the inequality. Once established, ideology becomes an integral part of social structure and is, therefore, difficult to change. Racist beliefs are examples of ideology.

(Source:<https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-12-lecture-notes-12/1099848/view>)

Glossary of the module

According (to) adj. [ə'kɔ:rdɪŋ] – corresponding, matching, meeting, fitting, conforming, satisfying.

Achievement n. [ə'tʃi:vmənt] – successful accomplishment; something successfully accomplished or performed.

Define v. [dɪ'faɪn] – to set forth the meaning of; to explain or identify the nature of; describe; to determine or fix the boundaries of; specify clearly; to make clear the outline or form of; delineate.

Deviantizing adj. ['deviantɪzɪŋ] – abnormal in behavior; evasion; retreat.

Distinguished adj. [dɪ'stɪŋgwɪʃt] – made well-known by excellence or success; having an air of distinction, nobility, or dignity.

Explanation n. [ˌɛksplə'neɪʃən] – the act or process of explaining; something that explains.

Furthermore adv. [ˌfɜ:rðər'mɔ:r] – moreover; besides; in addition.

Inequality n. [ˌɪnɪ'kwɔ:ləti] – the condition of being unequal; an instance of being unequal.

Justification n. [ˌdʒʌstɪfɪ'keɪʃn] – a reason, fact, circumstance, or explanation that justifies.

Meaningless adj. ['mi:nɪŋləs] – without meaning, significance, purpose, or value; purposeless; insignificant.

Minority/majority n./n. [maɪ'nɔ:rəti/ mə'dʒɔ:rəti] – a number, part, or amount forming less than half of the whole; the greater part or number.

Occupy v. ['ɑ:kjupaɪ] – to have, hold, or take as a separate space; to be a resident or tenant of; to fill up with some activity; spend.

Occur v. [ə'kɜ:] – to present itself; turn up; appear; exist.

Penalty n. ['penəlti] – a punishment for breaking a law or violating a rule; a loss because of failing to fulfill some obligation, as a sum of money.

Pollution n. [pə'lu:ʃn] – the act of polluting or the state of being polluted; ecology introduction of harmful substances or products into the environment.

Poverty n. ['pɑ:vərti] – the state or condition of having little or no money, goods, or means of support; condition of being poor; indigence; deficiency of necessary or desirable ingredients, qualities.

Proclaim v. [pro'kleim] – to publicly state; to announce or declare in an official or formal manner.

Similar adj. ['sɪmələɹ] – having a likeness or resemblance; like or alike.

MODULE 8

Text 15 Institutional Discrimination: Gender Stratification

Pre-reading tasks

1. Work in groups of three or four:

- Give definition of discrimination.
- Name types of discrimination you know.
- Will discrimination be legal or will it always be illegal?
- What do you know about the situation with discrimination in your country?

2. Guess the meaning of the following words:

adequate compensation ['ædɪkwət ,kɒm.pen'seɪ.ʃən]

gender n. ['dʒɛndə]

institutional discrimination [,ɪn.stɪ'tju:ʃən.əl dɪ ,skɪm.ɪ'nei.ʃən]

prevailing adj. [prɪ'veɪ.lɪŋ]

recessionary period [rɪ'seʃənəri 'piəriəd]

social strata ['səʊʃəl 'strɑ:tə]

3. Study the following words and expressions:

approximately adv. [ə'prɒksɪmətli] – приблизительно, приближенно, ориентировочно

counterpart n. ['kaʊn.tə.pɑ:t] – аналог, двойник, копия

disadvantage n. [dɪsəd'vɑ:ntɪdʒ] – недостаток, неудобство, невыгодное положение, ущерб

disparity n. [dɪ'spær.ə.ti] – несоответствие, различие, неравенство, несоразмерность

earn v. [ɜ:n] – зарабатывать

misery n. ['mɪz.ər.i] – страдание, нищета

prefer v. [prɪ'fɜ:(r)] – предпочитать, нравиться

4. Read and translate the text using a dictionary if necessary:

Institutional Discrimination: Gender Stratification

Economic independence is a primary goal for many of the oppressed in the United States. In American society work is the preferred avenue people follow in pursuit of economic independence. Often, however, those most in need in society have the greatest difficulty finding work (or at least work that offers adequate compensation). The material presented in this article specifically targets women. Much of it, however, applies to economically disadvantaged minorities overall.

An *overarching* theme in this article calls attention to a concept of institutional discrimination. Legal discrimination is, after all, illegal. *Presumably*, if one can document legal discrimination, one can remove such discrimination through the courts or legislatures. Institutional discrimination, on the other hand, is much more insidious and, therefore, more difficult to rectify. Institutional discrimination resides within the fabric of society. Harrington (1984) poetically called institutional discrimination “structures of misery”. Eitzen and Baca-Zinn (1994:174) describe institutional discrimination as “the customary ways of doing things, *prevailing* attitudes and expectations, and accepted structural arrangements [that] works to the disadvantage [of the poor]”. Institutional discrimination explains much inequality in gender (and race and ethnicity) found in the workplace.

The specifics of this article explore earnings discrimination, occupational distribution, the organization of work, and the character of relationships within the family where, according to many, the essence of gender inequality resides.

II. Earning Discrimination

A. Equal Pay for Equal Work?

In 1980 women earned approximately 59 percent of every dollar earned by men (Eitzen and Baca-Zinn, 1994:253). This ratio improves slightly during economic growth periods in the national economy. In 1990 the figure was 71 percent of every dollar earned by men (Eitzen and Baca-Zinn, 1994:253). Recessionary periods, on the other hand, are characterized by growing disparity in wages earned by men and women.

Many, like Esping-Andersen (1990), argue that as the economy becomes more internationalized, the gender bias in earnings begins to disappear. The logic here is that advanced capitalism requires the best person for the job despite gender (or race and ethnicity). There is some evidence to support Esping-Andersen's claim. Women who work in internationally competitive industrial sectors do appear to earn salaries that are closer to those earned by men (see Long, 1993).

Long (1995), however, disputes the claim that all women are experiencing greater parity with their male counterparts. Huge salaries earned by women who have skills demanded by corporations that produce in the international arena mask continued (and perhaps growing) inequality experienced between men and women in the United States in the lower social strata.

B. Differential Access

Differential access means that men have greater access to the labor market than do women. Differential access does not explain the entire problem, however. Women earn less than men even on jobs where all other qualifications are held constant.

1. Women Enter the Labor Market with Lower Paying Jobs

Three issues are dealt *with regarding* institutional discrimination. The first item notes that women enter the labor market at different and lower paying levels than do men. Historically, men were doctors while women were nurses; men taught in college while women taught in primary schools; men worked construction while women were secretaries; men worked in the automobile and steel industries while women worked in apparels and textiles.

In each of the above comparisons men are employed in labor sectors that pay higher wages than jobs that employ women.

2. Women Enter the Labor Market Later than Men and Periodically Have to Leave.

A second observation notes that women enter the *labor market* later than men and periodically have to leave. The explanation is obvious. Women enter the labor market later than men and periodically leave to have children. *Childbearing* is obviously a necessary social endeavor. The labor market and society overall would cease to function if women did not leave the labor market to have children. *Unfortunately* society does not compensate women for this activity (and other domestic concerns) and it penalizes them in the labor market.

One has difficulty arguing that an *employee* who has longevity on a job deserves raises while one who has a “spotty” work record does not. On the other hand, it is not especially difficult to see the inherent inequity in a system that penalizes women for essentially doing a good job (*domestically*) in an activity that is absolutely indispensable socially.

3. Women Earn Less Overtime than Men

A final observation revolves around the fact that women earn less overtime than do men. Overtime pay represents the difference between having a good life and a marginal life for skilled and *semiskilled* workers. Industry and manufacturing provide overtime pay. These sectors hire primarily males. Service sector work, such as clerical work, does not pay overtime nearly as much as manufacturing. These sectors rely heavily on a female workforce.

Differential access *highlights* the institution character of gender inequality. One can easily see the dynamics that generate inequality. Solutions are difficult to pinpoint within the institution of work. One might argue that Americans place too much emphasis on WORK as an avenue to prosperity. An analysis of Scandinavian social arrangements might be in order.

(Source:<https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-13-lecture-notes-12-17/1103815/view>)

5. Fill in the blanks with the correct words:

Economic (a)_____ is a primary goal for many of the oppressed in the United States.

The material presented in this (b)_____ specifically targets women.

Harrington (1984) poetically called institutional (c) _____ “structures of misery”.

The specifics of this article explore earnings discrimination, occupational distribution, the organization of work, and the character of (d)_____ within the family where, according to many, the essence of gender inequality resides.

Recessionary periods, on the other hand, are characterized by growing disparity in (e)_____ earned by men and women.

Huge (f)_____ earned by women who have skills demanded by corporations that produce in the international arena mask continued (and perhaps growing) inequality experienced between men and women in the United States in the lower social strata.

Differential (g)_____ does not explain the entire problem, however.

Historically, men were doctors while women were nurses; men taught in college while women taught in primary (h)_____); men worked construction while women were secretaries; men worked in the automobile and steel industries while women worked in apparels and textiles.

The labor market and society overall would cease to function if women did not leave the labor market to have (i)_____).

Differential access highlights the institution character of gender (j)_____).

Words: inequality, salaries, article, children, wages, access, schools, discrimination, relationships, independence.

6. Translate the following sentences from Russian into English:

1) Последнее наблюдение связано с тем фактом, что женщины зарабатывают меньше, чем мужчины.

2) Институциональная дискриминация находится в структуре общества.

3) Оплата за сверхурочную работу отражает разницу между хорошей и маргинальной жизнью для профессиональных и полупрофессиональных рабочих.

4) Дифференциальный доступ означает, что мужчины имеют больший доступ к рынку труда, нежели женщины.

5) Женщины входят в рынок труда позже мужчин и периодически покидают его с целью обзавестись ребёнком.

6) В 1980 году женщины зарабатывали примерно 59 процентов от каждого доллара, заработанного мужчинами.

7) Исторически, мужчины были врачами, в то время как женщины были медсестрами.

8) Работа в сфере услуг, такая как офисная, даже приблизительно не оплачивается также как работа на производстве.

7. Choose the correct answer:

1. What is the percentage of every dollar earned by men compared to that earned by women?

- A) 45 B) 50 C) 59 D) 62

2. Why do women periodically have to leave?

- A) Retirement
- B) Childbearing
- C) Injury
- D) Tiredness

3. Differential access means:

- A) Men have greater access to the labor market than do women
- B) Women earn less overtime than men
- C) Women work at lower paying jobs
- D) Women can't get a job

4. Who argues that economy becomes more internationalized and the gender bias in earnings begins to disappear?

- A) Appelbaum
- B) Chamblis
- C) Esping-Andersen
- D) Long

5. How many issues are dealt with regarding institutional discrimination?

- A) 2 B) 1 C) 4 D) 3

6. Who poetically called institutional discrimination “structures of misery”?

- A) Harrington
- B) Long
- C) Esping-Andersen
- D) Appelbaum

7. Who disputes the claim that all women are experiencing greater parity with their male counterparts?

- A) Harrington
- B) Long
- C) Baca-Zinn
- D) Eitzen

8. What do women get for childbearing?

- A) penalty at the labor market
- B) compensation from society
- C) bigger salary
- D) place at work

8. Complete the chart with the appropriate forms of the words:

VERB	NOUN	ADJECTIVE
economize		economic
	development	
		employee
	comparison	
		labor
	discrimination	
pinpoint		
	construction	
disappear		

9. Give synonyms to these words and phrases from the text, use a dictionary if necessary:

- An overarching theme
- Presumably
- Prevailing attitudes
- An observation
- To highlight

An entire problem

10. Read the text. Five sentences have been removed from it. Choose from the sentences the one which fits each gap (1-5). There is one sentence you don't need to use.

- a. A final observation revolves around the fact that women earn less overtime than do men.
- b. Differential access does not explain the entire problem, however.
- c. One might argue that Americans place too much emphasis on WORK as an avenue to prosperity.
- d. The “second-shift” is the unpaid housework that women typically do after they come home from their paid employment.
- e. The first item notes that women enter the labor market at different and lower paying levels than do men.
- f. The labor market and society overall would cease to function if women did not leave the labor market to have children.

Differential access means that men have greater access to the labor market than do women. Women earn less than men even on jobs where all other qualifications are held constant.

1	
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Three issues are dealt with regarding institutional discrimination. Historically, men were doctors while women were nurses; men taught in college while women taught in primary schools; men worked construction while women were secretaries; men worked in the automobile and steel industries while women worked in apparels and textiles. In each of the above comparisons men are employed in labor sectors that pay higher wages than jobs that employ women.

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A second observation notes that women enter the labor market later than men and periodically have to leave. The explanation is obvious. Women enter the labor market later than men and periodically leave to have children. Childbearing is obviously a necessary social endeavor. Un-

fortunately society does not compensate women for this activity (and other domestic concerns) and it penalizes them in the labor market.

One has difficulty arguing that an employee who has longevity on a job deserves raises while one who has a “spotty” work record does not. On the other hand, it is not especially difficult to see the inherent inequity in a system that penalizes women for essentially doing a good job (domestically) in an activity that is absolutely indispensable socially.

3	
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Overtime pay represents the difference between having a good life and a marginal life for skilled and semiskilled workers. Industry and manufacturing provide overtime pay. These sectors hire primarily males. Service sector work, such as clerical work, does not pay overtime nearly as much as manufacturing. These sectors rely heavily on a female workforce.

4	
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Differential access highlights the institution character of gender inequality. One can easily see the dynamics that generate inequality. Solutions are difficult to pinpoint within the institution of work. An analysis of Scandinavian social arrangements might be in order.

5	
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Text 16 Political Sociology: The State

Pre-reading tasks

1. Answer the following questions:

- What is political sociology mainly about?
- What is the subject of political sociology as a science?
- Do you know the main types of state power? How many types can you specify?
- What sociological or philosophical theories of state do you know?
- Do you know sociologists who have explored or have been exploring political sociology?

Study the following words and expressions:

authority n. [ɔ:'θɔr.ə.ti] – власть

compatible adj. [kəm'pætəbl] – совместимый

concern v. [kən'sɜ:rn] – затрагивать, беспокоиться

consider v. [kən'sid.ər] – рассматривать

contender n. [kən'tendə] – претендент

despite adv [di'spaɪt] – несмотря

devotion n. [di'vəʊ.ʃən] – преданность

divine adj. [di'vaɪn] – божественный

emphasis n. ['emfəsis] – акцент

impeding v-ing [ɪm'pi:diŋ] – задерживающий

increasingly adv. [ɪn'kri:siŋli] – всё больше

initially adv. [ɪ'nɪʃəli] – изначально

maintenance n. ['meɪnt(ə)nəns] – поддержание

preservation n. [ˌprezə'veɪʃn] – сохранение

presume v. [pri'zʊ:m] – допускать, предполагать

require v. [rɪ'kwaɪə] – требовать

sanctity n. ['sæŋk.tə.ti] – святость

scope n. [skəʊp] – сфера

successor n. [sək'ses.ər] преемник, наследник

to attempt to routinize [ə'tempt tu ru:'ti:naɪz] пытаться ввести в обиход

3. Read the following text about political sociology:

Political Sociology: the State

Appelbaum and Chambliss (248:1997) begin their discussion of political sociology with some material drawn from Max Weber on the relationship between power and authority. Remember, power is the ability to achieve one's will despite resistance from others. Weber was initially concerned with legitimate authority. This is a type of power that is exercised over people who see that exercise of power as legitimate.

There are three types of state power and authority.

A. Traditional Authority

For much of human history, the state relied on traditional authority. Traditional authority is power based on a belief in the sanctity of long-standing traditions and the legitimate right of rulers to exercise authority in accordance with these traditions. Rulers rule because of “age-old” norms and values. The followers agree that these norms and values are important. Often the tradition is based on religious doctrine. Traditional authority is conservative and tends to be stable. Monarchies are good examples (Appelbaum and Chambliss, 248:1997).

Example: Henslin (2004:295) notes that gender relationships in most societies are examples of traditional authority. Parenting is also based on tradition. Parents usually discipline their kids based on guidelines they learned from their own parents.

B. Charismatic Authority

Charismatic authority is power based on devotion inspired in followers by the presumed extraordinary personal qualities of the leader. The leader is seen as having a gift of super human or divine powers.

This type of authority can threaten the other two types of power and authority or it can serve as an alternative to the other two when the other two types have broken down.

When the charismatic leader dies, his or her power usually dies with them. Their successors will generally attempt to routinize their leader’s charm, which generally doesn't work. The charismatic authority will slowly transform itself into one of the other two types of authority (Appelbaum and Chambliss, 249:1997).

C. Legal-Rational Authority

Weber considered traditional authority as impeding capitalist economic growth. Capitalism is based on forms of organization that require careful calculation rather than habit. As capitalism developed, traditional authority gave way to legal-rational authority. Legal rational authority or power is based on a belief in the lawfulness of enacted rules (laws) and the

legitimate right of leaders to exercise authority under such rules. People believe in laws rather than in tradition. Leaders are legitimate as long as they obey the law. Laws are enacted through formal bureaucratic procedure. The authority of the President of the United States rests in legal-rational authority. Weber argues that this type of authority is most compatible with modern capitalism and socialism (Appelbaum and Chambliss, 248:1997).

Example: The authority of the President of the United States is based on legal-rational authority.

(Source: <https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-14-lecture-notes-16-19/1103826/view>)

4. Discuss the question in pairs:

Which type of state power and authority is the most effective in the modern society?

5. Match the two parts of these extracts:

1) Traditional authority is power based on	a) conservative and tends to be stable.
2) Power is the ability to achieve one's will	b) despite resistance from others.
3) Often a tradition is based on religious doctrine. Traditional authority is	c) to routinize their leaders charm, which generally doesn't work.
4) Charismatic authority is a power based on	d) traditional authority gave way to legal-rational authority.
5) When charismatic leaders die, his or her power usually dies with them. Their successors will generally attempt	e) a belief in the lawfulness of enacted rules (laws) and the legitimate right of leaders to exercise authority under such rules.
6) Legal rational authority or power is based on	f) devotion inspired in followers by the presumed extraordinary personal quali-

	ties of the leader.
7) Capitalism is based on forms of organization that require careful calculation rather than habit. As capitalism developed,	g) a belief in the sanctity of long-standing traditions and the legitimate right of rulers to exercise authority in accordance with these traditions.

6. Which sentence best paraphrases paragraph A:

- A) For much of human history, the state relies on traditional authority.
- B) Traditional authority is conservative and tends to be stable.
- C) In the past, most of humans' societies were based on a belief in the sanctity, age-old traditions and the right of rulers to exercise authority in accordance with these traditions.
- D) Traditional authority is mostly based on religious doctrine.

7. Arrange the words in A and B in pairs of synonyms:

1)

A)	B)
to concern	to view a problem
to inspire	to make a stereotype
to presume	to infuse into the mind
to attempt	to widen
to routinize	to be relevant to ...
to consider	to suppose
to broaden	to try

2)

A)	B)
initially	mainly
despite	frequently
often	lazily
generally	accurate
slowly	regardless
careful	at first

8. Combine the words in column A with those in B to make up word combinations. Make up your own sentences using them.

A	B
1) learn	a) right
2) as long	b) from
3) legitimate	c) as
4) give	d) with
5) in accordance	e) way
6) based	f) on
7) concerned	g) with
8) draw	h) from
9) legal-rational	i) doctrine
10) religious	j) authority

Part 2

9. Read and translate the following text and answer the questions:

- 1) What is the difference between the state and the government?
- 2) According to the functionalist theory, what is the main reason why the state exists?
- 3) Who says that people shouldn't have social stratification based upon property?
- 4) What is the difference between Conflict and Neo-Conflict theories?
- 5) What are the four states' functions in the preservation of social order?

State and Government

Our focus to date has been on issues concerning social class. Social classes, however, are not the only power contenders have in society. The state plays an increasingly important role in the political arena. Despite the

fact that the state is a rather recent historical development, it has emerged to become “the main source of social authority, successfully claiming a monopoly on the legitimate use of force in a given territory” (Robertson, 1989:331). The state is not the same as government. The state is an impersonal authority. Government, on the other hand, refers to the people who happen to be charged with directing the power of the state at any given time.

In modern societies (1989:331) the power of the state expands not only in size, but it broadens its scope as it comes to regulate more aspects of social life, such as welfare, education, transportation, scientific research, economic planning.

A. Functionalist Theories of the State

Robertson (1989:332) points out that the overarching concept which underlies all functionalist explanations of the state pertains the state's role in the preservation of social order.

1. Enforcement of Norms. Small communities are able to enforce local norms by spontaneous action, but this kind of rule becomes impossible in large complex societies. The state, therefore, acts to codify norms into explicit written laws.

2. Arbitration of Conflict. Conflict may arise over scarce resources, national goals, conflicting interests. The state is the ultimate authority for “deciding who gets what, when, and how” (Robertson, 1989:331).

3. Planning and Direction. Complex societies require centralized, coordinated, and systematic planning and direction.

4. International Relations. This included political, economic, and military international relations such as alliances and trade agreements.

B. Conflict Theories of the State. Conflict theory argues that the state exists simply for the protection of the interests of the wealthy and powerful in society.

1. Rousseau. Robertson (1989:333) maintains that Rousseau criticized the state when he said “Man is born Free, yet everywhere he is in

chains”. Rousseau contended that the state exists merely to protect the interests of the wealthy.

2. Marx. Marx's Communist Manifesto (1848 in Tucker, 1978) clarifies this point quite nicely. Marx calls the state “the executive committee of the ruling class”. It not only protects the interests of the ruling class, but also ensures that the ruling class will be able to enjoy the surplus wealth extracted from the backs of the people. For Marx, once a society is created (a communist one) where there was no stratification based upon property, the state would lose its reason for existing and wither away. (Actually, Engels said this and rather than the entire state apparatus disappearing, only those aspects that control economic affairs for the rich will disappear.)

C. Neo-Conflict Theories of the State

Marx and Engels placed heavy emphasis on the character of class relations in describing how and why states exist. The primary difference between traditional conflict theories, like those of Marx, and neo-conflict theories is that neo-conflict theories regard the state as an autonomous and independent actor (See Block, 1977; Skocpol, 1985). The state is an organization with its own needs such as maintenance of its complex bureaucracies and protection of its special privilege. Social conflict in general, and not class conflict, is explored.

(Source:<https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-14-lecture-notes-16-19/1103826/view>)

Glossary of the module

Childbearing n. [ˈtʃaɪldˌbɛərɪŋ] – the process of giving birth to children.

Broaden v. [ˈbrɔːd(ə)n] – become larger in distance from side to side; widen; expand to encompass more people or things.

Domestically adv. [dəʊˈmestɪkəli] – devoted to home life or household affairs. tame; domesticated, pertaining to one's own or a particular country as apart from other countries.

Emerge v. [ɪ'mə:dʒ] – move out of or away from something and become visible; become apparent or prominent.

Employee n. [em'plɔɪ:] – a person who has been hired to work, a worker.

Employment n. [em'plɔɪmənt] – an act or instance of employing a person or thing, work or business; occupation.

Enforcement n. [ɪn'fɔ:sm(ə)nt] – the act of compelling observance of or compliance with a law, rule, or obligation.

Explicit adj. [ɪk'splɪsɪt] – stated clearly and in detail, leaving no room for confusion or doubt.

Highlight n. ['haɪ,lait] – feature, peculiarity, singularity, characteristic, particularity.

Labor market n. ['leɪbər 'mɑ:kɪt] – the supply of available workers in relation to available work.

Overarching adj. [ˌəʊvər'ɑ:tʃɪŋ] – encompassing or overshadowing everything; forming an arch above.

Presumably adv. [prɪ'zju:məblɪ] – by assuming reasonably; probably:

Prevailing adj. [prɪ'veɪlɪŋ] – most frequent or powerful; generally current.

Regarding adv. [rɪ'gɑ:dɪŋ] – about, on, concerning, with respect, in relation to.

Semiskilled adj. [ˌsemɪ'skɪld] – (of work or a worker) having or needing some, but not extensive, training.

Surplus n. ['sə:pləs] – an amount of something left over when requirements have been met; an excess of production or supply.

Unfortunately adj. [ʌn'fɔ:tʃənɪtlɪ] – suffering from bad luck; unlucky; hapless; regrettable; unsuitable; not appropriate.

MODULE 9

Text 17 Social Change

Pre-reading tasks

1. Work in groups of three or four and discuss the following:

- Give the definition of social changes.
- What is the correlation between a social change and social progress?
- Name different social theories you know which explain social changes. What are the main ideas that these theories are based upon?
- Do you remember Marx's theory of Class Conflict? Explain its key points.

2. Guess the meaning of the following words:

dialectics [daɪ:əl'ektiks]

feudalism [fj'u:dlɪzəm]

homogeneity [həʊ:mədʒɪn'iə:ti]

marketplace ['mɑ:kət,pleɪs]

paradigm [p'ærədəɪ:m]

profit ['prɒfɪt]

range [reɪndʒ]

scenario [si'nɛəriəʊ]

3. Study the following words and expressions:

backward adv. [b'ækwəd] – обратно

commodities n. [kə'mɒdətɪz] – товары

complexity n. [kəm'pleksəti] – сложность

consequences n. ['kɒnsə,kwɛnsəz] – последствия

creation n. [kri'eɪʃən] – создание

desirable style [dɪ'zaɪəbəl staɪl] – желательный стиль

ethnocentrism n. [ɛθəʊ:s'entrɪsm] – этноцентризм

experiences n. [ɪk'spɪriənsɪz] – опыт

impediments n. [ɪmp'edɪmənts] – препятствия

incoherent homogeneity [ɪŋkəʊ:h'ɪə:rənt həʊ:mədʒɪn'ɪə:ti] – некогерентная однородность
 integrity n. [ɪn'teɪgrəti] – честность
 interdependent adj. [ɪntədɪp'endənt] – взаимозависимый
 intervention n. [ɪntər'ventʃən] – вмешательство
 involvement n. [ɪn'vɒlvmənt] – вовлеченность
 possession n. [pəz'ɪ:zən] – владение, собственность
 premodern adj. [prɪm'ɒdn̩] – досовременная (применительно к эпохам)
 relatively adv. ['rɛlətɪvli] – относительно
 scholars n. ['skɒlərz] – специалисты
 single direction [s'ɪŋgl daɪ:r'ekʃən] – одно направление
 sweeping change [sw'i:pɪŋ tʃ'eɪndʒ] – радикальное изменение
 tend adv. [tɛnd] – иметь склонность, тенденцию
 ultimately adv. ['ʌltəmətli] – в конечном счете

4. Read and translate the text using a dictionary if necessary:

Social Change

I. Functionalist Theories of Societal Change

Functionalist theories tend to assume that as societies develop, they become ever more complex and interdependent (Appelbaum and Chambliss, 1997:420). Herbert Spencer referred to it as a change from “incoherent homogeneity to coherent heterogeneity”.

A. Differentiation

What distinguished premodern from modern societies is differentiation (Appelbaum and Chambliss, 1997:420). Differentiation is the development of increasing societal complexity through the creation of specialized roles and institutions. Premodern society was characterized by people acquiring a broad range of skills that enable them to act relatively independently of one another. Modern society, on the other hand, requires people to master a narrow range of skills and act interdependently.

B. Evolutionary Theories

Early functionalist theories argued that all societies are gradually moving in a single direction. They are becoming more complex and, according to the early functionalists, are becoming more adaptable to their external environments (Appelbaum and Chambliss, 1997:421).

There is a bit of ethnocentrism here. It is assumed that all change is “progress”. The Europeans, for example, saw their societies as more evolved than those they conquered. The Europeans’ concept of self – allowed them to see their involvement in the new world as necessary to help the “primitive and backward” societies move toward a more desirable (European) style of life.

II. Conflict Theories of Societal Change

A. The Trigger

Conflict theory tends to argue that a precipitating event is needed before change occurs. The “trigger”, as Appelbaum and Chambliss (1997:421-22) call it, is something like population growth, contact with other cultures, technological advances, or changing environmental conditions.

B. Contradiction and Change “All social systems have within them the seeds of their own destruction,” – paraphrase of K. Marx.

1. Marx and Class Conflict

All societies are seen as having built-in sources of conflict that eventually lead to a sharp break with the past. According to Marx, the trigger, inevitably involved the relationships between social classes. Under capitalism, Marx contended that conflict was inevitable in a class-relationship that pitted the interest of the working class against the owning class. Eventually, any type of society reaches a point when its social organization becomes a barrier to further economic growth. Reaching this limit precipitates a revolutionary transformation of society into a new type (e.g., from feudalism to capitalism) or from capitalism to socialism (Appelbaum and Chambliss, 1997:422).

2. Dialectical Change

Marx's concept of change is a specific example of a more general theory called dialectics. For Marx, change occurred because contradictions developed within the relationships between the two primary classes in capitalist society.

More generally, contradictions can be seen as developing within any type of social relationship. The contradictions appear as minor irritants at first, but as the relationship progresses the irritants become profound impediments to the relationship. Ultimately, the relationship experiences sweeping change.

III. Theories of Global Social Change: Market-Oriented Theories and Modernization Theory

A. What is Modernization?

A host of scholars, from the left to the right, connects the incredible change experienced in the modern era with modernization. Smelser (1988:387) defines modernization as a complex set of changes that take place in almost every part of society as a society attempts to industrialize.

B. What is Capitalism?

Capitalism is one of two methods that industrial societies use to organize their economic activities. (Socialism is the other.) It is an economic system in which the means of production and distribution are privately owned. Personal profits are derived through market competition and without government intervention. Capitalism is based on the following assumptions.

1. Private Ownership of Property. Individuals are encouraged to own not only private possessions, but the capital to buy more possessions (see Eitzen and Baca-Zinn, 1998:356-57).

2. Pursuit of Maximum Profit. Individuals are encouraged to maximize their personal gains. Seeking personal gain is morally and socially appropriate. It's the position of Adam Smith that this has many beneficial consequences for Americans.

3. Free Competition. This is the element that keeps out profit seeking in check. In a competitive society, if one agent raises prices too high, then

others will step in to sell goods more cheaply. Fraud is thus weeded out and the market is stabilized.

4. Laissez-faire Government. Laissez-faire government is a government that does not intervene in the economy.

How does a society hang together in a scenario where everyone is pursuing their own interest? Adam Smith argues the capitalist economy maintains integrity because someone will provide whatever is needed. As demand increases for a product, the potential to make profit will increase. The potential of earning profit will encourage someone to produce those commodities that are in demand.

Competition acts as an economic regulator. Competition not only regulates the supply of desirable commodities, it also ensures that prices remain fair and product quality remains high. Capitalism regulates wage levels in much the same way as it regulates production and prices. If wages are too high, someone else will rush in to work for a lower wage. If wages, on the other hand, are too low, employees will seek better jobs. The law of the marketplace ensures a self-regulating economy. This is the philosophy behind free enterprise. The economic system of Adam Smith is not egalitarian, because through competition someone wins and someone loses. Grass roots capitalism is, however, fair when all competitors have essentially the same economic base. The capitalist economy, however, is not a static phenomenon. It undergoes continual transformation and has done so since the end of the 15th century (see Wallerstein, 1974).

C. Positions of Market-Oriented Theory

The developmental or modernizationist view of social change was the dominant paradigm during the 1950s and 1960s. It lays out the conditions under which traditional societies can become fully modern (Appelbaum and Chambliss, 1997:171).

Market-Oriented theory argues that unrestricted capitalism, allowed to develop fully, is the best route to economic growth. Further, they argue that the best economic outcomes result when individuals are free to make their own economic decision, uninhibited by any form of government con-

straint. Constraints might include efforts by Third World governments to set prices and wages (Appelbaum and Chambliss, 1997:171).

(Source:<https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-15-lecture-notes-19-20/1103864/view>)

5. Complete the chart with the appropriate forms of the words if possible:

VERB	NOUN	ADJECTIVE
	transformation	
		developmental
argue		
	creation	
	differentiation	
regulate		
		progressive
move		
	condition	

6. Arrange the words below into three categories:

- Differentiation
- Modernization capitalism
- Adaptable to external environments
- Complex society
- Trigger
- Technological advances
- Dialectical change
- Private ownership of property maximum profit
- Interdependent societies
- Laissez-faire government
- Competition
- Market-oriented theory

Functionalist	Conflict Theories	Theories of Glob-
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Theories of Societal Change	of Societal Change	al Social Change
Differentiation	Trigger	Modernization Capitalism

7. Give synonyms to these words and phrases from the text, use a dictionary if necessary:

- Cause and effect –
- Crucial point –
- Encourage –
- Maximize –
- Profit –
- To anticipate –
- To elaborate –
- Trigger –

8. Which sentence best paraphrases paragraph A:

- A) Modern society requires people to master a narrow range of skills.
- B) Differentiation is the main characteristic of modern society.
- C) Differentiation is the development of increasing societal complexity through the creation of specialized roles and institutions.
- D) Conflict theory tends to argue that a precipitating event is needed before change occurs.

9. Match the two parts to make up sentences:

1. Modernization is a complex set of changes that take place	a) in almost every part of society as a society attempts to industrialize.
--------------------------------------------------------------	----------------------------------------------------------------------------

2. All societies are seen as having built-in sources of conflict that eventually lead to	b) help the "primitive and backward" societies move toward a more desirable (European) style of life.
3. The trigger is something like population growth, contact with	c) that all societies are gradually moving in a single direction.
4. The Europeans' concept of self – allowed them to see their involvement in the new world as necessary to	d) other cultures, technological advances, or changing environmental conditions.
5. Early functionalist theories argued	e) a sharp break with the past.
6. Differentiation is	f) the development of increasing societal complexity through the creation of specialized roles and institutions.
7. Competition not only regulates the supply of desirable commodities,	g) it also ensures that prices remain fair and product quality remains high.

10. Fill in the blanks to make up correct sentences:

*Coherent efforts potential law regulator production
direction industrial capitalism economy*

- 1) Herbert Spencer referred to it as a change from “_____ homogeneity to heterogeneity”.
- 2) Early functionalist theories argued that all societies are gradually moving in a single _____.
- 3) Reaching this limit precipitates a revolutionary transformation of society into a new type or from _____ to socialism.
- 4) Capitalism is one of two methods that _____ societies use to organize their economic activities.
- 5) Laissez-faire government is a government that does not intervene in the _____.
- 6) The _____ of earning profit will encourage someone to produce those commodities that are in demand.

- 7) Competition acts as an economic _____.
- 8) Capitalism regulates wage levels in much the same way as it regulates _____ and prices.
- 9) The _____ of the marketplace ensures a self-regulating economy.
- 10) Constraints might include _____ by Third World governments to set prices and wages.

11. Translate the sentences from Russian into English:

- 1) Европейцы рассматривают свои общества как более развитые, в отличие от тех, которые они завоевали.
- 2) В каждой системе заложено зерно ее собственного разрушения.
- 3) Концепция Маркса об изменениях – это конкретный пример того, что более общая теория называет диалектикой.
- 4) Личные выгоды достигаются через рыночную конкуренцию и без вмешательства государства.
- 5) Адам Смит утверждает, что капиталистическая экономика сохраняет целостность, потому что кто-то предоставит все необходимое.
- 6) Капитализм регулирует уровень заработной платы почти так же, как регулирует производство и цены.
- 7) В 1950-е и 1960-е годы доминирующим направлением было изменение взглядов на развитие или модернизацию социальных изменений.
- 8) Если заработная плата слишком высока, кто-то другой будет работать за более низкую заработную плату.

12. Answer the quiz:

1. What do functionalist theories say about societies' development?
 - A) They are becoming easier
 - B) They are becoming more dependent on government

- C) They stay as they were
- D) They become ever more complex and interdependent

2. Which society was characterized by people acquiring a broad range of skills that enable them to act relatively independent of one another?

- A) Modern
- B) Premodern
- C) Primitive
- D) Post-industrial

3. According to Marx, the trigger, inevitably involved ...

- A) the relationships between social classes
- B) the contact with other cultures
- C) the political management
- D) the people's communication

4. Who has defined modernization as a complex set of changes that take place in almost every part of society as a society attempts to industrialize?

- A) Tomas
- B) Marx
- C) Smelser
- D) Midd

5. An explanation of what assumption is below:

"This is the element that keeps out profit seeking in check"

- A) Private Ownership of Property
- B) Free Competition
- C) Pursuit of Maximum Profit
- D) Laissez-faire Government

6. What does competition do besides regulating the supply of desirable commodities:

- A) Ensures that prices remain fair and product quality remains high
- B) This is the one function of competition
- C) Seeks personal gain as morally and socially appropriate
- D) Makes profit

7. Which of the reasons can make someone rush into work for a lower wage?

- A) Wages are too high
- B) Unemployment
- C) Poverty
- D) Personal interest

8. The best economic outcomes result when individuals are free to...

- A) shop online
- B) not to pay duties
- C) make their own economic decision
- D) buy two cars per one person

Text 18 Demography

Pre-reading tasks

1. Before reading the text, answer the questions:

- Give your own definition of the term “demography”.
- What is the demographic situation in your country?
- Does the demographic situation need any change?
- What measures does the government take to improve the demographic situation?
- Do these measures differ from country to country?
- What measures can you suggest?

2. Work in groups of three or four and discuss the following:

Does the economic situation in the country affect demographic situations? Argue in favor of your point, give some examples.

3. Study the following words and expressions:

capacity n. [kə'pæsəti] – вместимость

decline v. [di'klaɪn] – отклонять

density n. ['densəti] – плотность

efforts n. ['efɜ:ts] – усилия

expansion n. [ɪk'spænjən] – расширение

fortuitous cycle [fə:tj'u:itəs 'saɪkl] – случайный цикл

frontiers n. [fr'ʌntiə:z] – рубежи, границы

ignorance n. ['ɪgn(ə)r(ə)ns] – незнание, невежество

maintain v. [meɪn'teɪn] – сохранять, поддерживать

mortality n. [mɔ:rtæləti] – смертность

poverty n. ['pɔ:vərti] – бедность

prevention n. [pri'venjən] – предотвращение

security n. [si'kjʊərəti] – безопасность

tremendous adj. [trə'mendəs] – громадный

4. Read the following text about demographical processes in society:

Introduction to Demography

Cultural Factors Affecting Population Policy

Despite tremendous population pressures in the world, a variety of culture factors act to keep birth rates high. Cultural factors that might act to mitigate population control efforts include:

A. Distrust of Doctors

Family planning efforts inevitably involve visits to clinics and doctors. In many developing countries, doctors are rare. Many doctors that are present are from first-world countries.

B. Ignorance of Biological Facts

In order to prevent births (assuming one wants to), potential parents have to be aware of the biological process that creates babies in the first place.

C. A Desire for Sons

The desire for sons is a major impediment to birth control programs.

In many countries, inheritance is left for male children only. Male children carry on the family name. Male children are a ready-made work force (girls may work, but once they marry, they go with their husband's family). Male children are the social security for the elderly.

D. The Emotional Conditioning of the Male

In many cases large families equal status for the males. A large family is living proof of the virility of the male.

E. A General Problem

People act, not for the good of society, but for their own immediate needs. In order for a population policy to be effective, individuals have to be convinced that they (and their family) will benefit.

Population and Poverty. Population growth in the Third World threatens to exceed the carrying capacity and overwhelm gains achieved through economic growth. The United Nation predicts that the population in areas like Central America will increase 120 percent over the next thirty years. The population density of El Salvador is nearly as great as that of India. According to the Population Reference Bureau (1998), the density is per square mile in El Salvador, while it stands at 861 in India. Rapid population growth inhibits economic development. As population increases, income must grow just to maintain current standards of living. If population growth exceeds economic development, standards of living fall. In this respect population growth causes poverty.

Nancy Birdsall (1980) of the World Bank acknowledges that high population growth increases the incidence of poverty, but she argues that, in more dramatic fashion, poverty encourages population growth.

Large families are necessary for the poor because the poor cannot count on support from the economy.

Poverty tends to increase infant mortality, which in turn increases the desire to have large families.

Large families also occur because of individual ignorance, another human attribute that is attributable to poverty.

(Source: <https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-16-lecture-notes-20/1103905/view>)

5. Choose the correct answer:

1. May some cultural factors affect the birth rate?

- A) All cultural factors affect the birth rate.
- B) Yes, some of them may affect.
- C) Definitely no.
- D) Only demographic factors may affect the birth rate.

2. Are male children more desirable than female children for many families in different countries?

- A) No
- B) Yes
- C) It depends on families' traditions
- D) It depends on the country

3. In order for a population policy to be effective, individuals have to be convinced...

- A) that they (and their family) will benefit
- B) that it is only the governmental problem
- C) that women should give birth to more children
- D) that women should get a job

4. Who argues that the high population growth increases the incidence of poverty, but also argues that, in a more dramatic fashion, poverty encourages population growth?

- A) Appelbaum
- B) Chamblis
- C) Birdsall
- D) Long

5. According to the text, is it true or false: “Poverty tends to increase infant mortality, which in turn increases the desire to have large families”.

- A) False
- B) It depends on families’ traditions
- C) True
- D) It depends on a country

6. Match the two parts to make up sentences:

1) Large families also occur because of	a) the desire to have large families.
2) Poverty tends to increase infant mortality, which in turn increases	b) individual ignorance, another human attribute that is attributable to poverty.
3) As population increases, income must	c) grow just to maintain current standards of living.
4) The population density of El Salvador is nearly as great	d) the carrying capacity and overwhelm gains achieved through economic growth.
5) Population growth in the Third World threatens to exceed	e) once they marry, they go with their husband's family).
6) Male children are a ready-made work force (girls may work, but	f) as that of India.
7) In order to prevent births (assuming one wants to), potential parents have to	g) be aware of the biological process that creates babies in the first place.

7. Which sentence best paraphrases the paragraph “Population and Poverty”:

A) A minority is a category of people who lack power, privilege, and prestige in social, political or economic spheres.

B) Population growth in the Third World exceeds economic development and standards of living fall.

C) The population density of El Salvador is nearly as great as that of India.

D) Rapid population growth inhibits economic development.

8. Combine the words in column A with those in B to make up word combinations. Make up your own sentences using them:

A

B

1) immediate

a) parents

2) potential

b) as

3) as great

c) work force

4) ready-made

d) to

5) in order

e) need

6) based

f) on

7) in many

g) cases

8) carry

h) for

9) have

i) on

10) due

j) to

9. Which sentence best describes the main outcome of the text:

A) Main cultural factors affecting the population policy are the following: distrust of doctors, ignorance of biological facts, a desire for sons, the emotional conditioning of the male, and some general problems.

B) Population growth in the Third World exceeds economic development and the standards of living fall.

C) The main idea is to prove that poverty encourages population growth.

D) The main outcome is to provide some information on how different aspects (cultural, economic) affect demographic situation.

10. Read the following text and write a summary:

Some Demographic Facts

Economic Growth Causes Birth Rates to Decline

Economic growth may be a key to reducing both poverty and population growth. Economic growth encourages what Birdsall (1980) calls a “fortuitous cycle” in that living standards improve and population growth rates decline.

The Malthusian Trap

Unfortunately, if income growth does not keep up with population growth, the fortuitous cycle may turn vicious. World Watch (1987) doubts the ability of the world to continue rapid economic expansion. Kingsly Davis (in PTPP, 1983) argues that given the present state of Third World population growth, it is already too late to address population growth through economic development. Merrick (1986) warns of a “Malthusian trap”. Malthus warned a couple of hundred years ago that if people did not control population through preventative check, the population problem would be dealt with through positive checks. Positive checks are called positive, not because they are desirable, but because they work. War, famine, pestilence, and disease will reduce population size. Humanity encounters the Malthusian trap when the population becomes so large that "prevention" is no longer possible in bringing population growth under control. The only solution then is the positive check on population.

The population growth rate, according to Merrick, is already too great. There are no more frontiers that can absorb excess population. If this scenario is correct, death rates should begin to rise in countries where population growth outpaces the economy (See Africa).

Example: Where Do We Control Population?

Third World countries have many more people than do First World Countries. However, First World Countries often consume more resources than do Third World Countries. India has over a billion people while the U.S. has only 300 million people. Indians per capita, however, consume 1/16 the resources that Americans consume. Each American added to the world population has a greater impact on the ecology of the planet than each Asian that is added. The reason is that Americans consume many times more resources than Asians. In terms of conserving resources perhaps population growth is more detrimental to the environment in First World countries.

(Source: <https://www.studocu.com/en-ie/document/fordham-university/intro-to-sociology/lecture-notes/intro-to-sociology-16-lecture-notes-20/1103905/view>)

Glossary of the module

Argue v. ['ɑ:gju:] – give reasons or cite evidence in support of an idea, action, or theory, typically with the aim of persuading others to share one's view.

Coherent adj. [kə(ʊ)'hɪər(ə)nt] – logical and consistent.

Contradictions (n., pl) [kɒntrə'dɪkʃ(ə)nz] – a combination of statements, ideas, or features which are opposed to one another.

Desirable adj. [dɪ'zʌɪərəb(ə)l] – wished for as being an attractive, useful, or necessary course of action.

Distinguished adj. [dɪ'stɪŋgwɪʃt] – very successful, authoritative, and commanding great respect.

Egalitarian adj. [ɪ,ɡalɪ'te:riən] – believing in or based on the principle that all people are equal and deserve equal rights and opportunities.

Eventually adv. [ɪ'ventʃʊ(ə)li] – in the end, especially after a long delay, dispute, or series of problems.

Famine n. ['faemɪn] – extreme scarcity of food.

Inevitable adj. [ɪn'evɪtəb(ə)l] – certain to happen; unavoidable.

Infant n. ['ɪnf(ə)nt] – a very young child or baby.

Involvement n. [ɪn'vɒlvmə(ə)nt] – the fact or condition of being involved with or participating in something.

Laissez-faire n. [ˌlɛsɛɪ'fɛː] – the policy of leaving things to take their own course, without interfering.

Mitigate v. ['mɪtɪgeɪt] – make (something bad) less severe, serious, or painful.

Pestilence n. ['pestɪl(ə)ns] – a fatal epidemic disease, especially bubonic plague.

Precipitate v., adj. [prɪ'sɪpɪteɪt] – cause (an event or situation, typically one that is undesirable) to happen suddenly, unexpectedly, or prematurely. Done, made, or acting suddenly or without careful consideration.

Wage n. [weɪdʒ] – a fixed regular payment earned for work or services, typically paid on a daily or weekly basis.

FINAL TEST

Choose the correct answer to the following questions:

1. What is sociology?
 - A) Sociology is the science, which studies the processes and patterns of mental activity.
 - B) Sociology is the scientific study of society and human behavior.
 - C) Sociology is the science of education and training.

2. What does critical thinking mean?
 - A) Critical thinking is a willingness to answer any questions, no matter how difficult it is.
 - B) Critical thinking is a willingness to ask any questions, no matter how difficult; to be open to any answer that is not supported by reason and evidence.
 - C) Critical thinking is a willingness to ask any questions, no matter how difficult; to be open to any answer that is supported by reason and evidence; and to confront one's own biases and prejudices openly when they get in the way.

3. What does sociology study?
 - A) Sociology is the study of social life, social change, and the social causes and consequences of human behavior.
 - B) Sociologists investigate the structure of groups, organizations, and societies, and how people interact within these contexts.
 - C) Sociology studies the relationship between people and the animal world.

4. Which authors are important for sociology?
 - A) Emile Durkheim
 - B) Vilfredo Pareto
 - C) Robert Merton

5. What is a functionalist perspective?

A) The functionalist perspective is a useful tool for describing animals, identifying their structural parts and the functions of these parts.

B) Understanding society from a functionalist perspective is to visualize society as a system of interrelated parts. All the parts act together even though each part may be doing different things.

C) The origins of the functionalist perspective can be traced to the work of Robert Merton and Vilfredo Pareto

6. What is a social system?

A) The social system is a system of the child's relations with the world around him that is specific for every age.

B) A social system is an opportunity to change the social stratum. The concept of social mobility is close in meaning to the notion of a social elevator or career.

C) In order to understand the idea of "social system" it may be helpful to visualize a different kind of system.

7. What is the essence of conflict theory?

A) Basic inequalities between various groups are a constant theme of conflict theory.

B) The theory of conflict is the referring by the surrounding society to someone of certain characteristics, most often of a negative orientation, according to external formal factors due to cultural customs, politics or personal psychological complexes.

C) The theory of conflicts is a stable behavior of the individual, deviating from the generally accepted, the most widespread and established social norms.

8. What social sciences do you know?

A) History, Pedagogy, Culturology, Anthropology

- B) Astronomy, Biology, Geography, Chemistry
- C) Cosmology, Astronomy, Astrophysics

9. Is Sociology a science or pseudo-science?

A) Sociology is a pseudo-science, because it often cannot make precise predictions.

B) One might argue that just because the subject matter of Sociology is more difficult to study than the subjects pursued in other sciences, it does not mean that the scientific method is inappropriate for the social sciences.

C) Sociology is a science every bit as much as Biology or Chemistry. Social sciences, like natural and biological sciences, use a vigorous methodology. This means that a social scientist clearly states the problems he or she is interested in and clearly spells out how he or she arrives at their conclusions.

10. Name the components of the scientific method?

A) Rely on common sense. It is necessary to describe how evidence is collected. Use the theory.

B) Don't take assumptions for granted. Don't rely on common sense. Don't rely on traditional authority figures.

C) Evidence should not be observable because other sociologists might want to perform the same study in order to verify or refute findings.

11. Who is Dr. Charles Clements?

A) Dr. Charles Clements is an alien time traveler. Together with his companions, he travels in time and space to save the planet.

B) Dr. Charles Clements and a team of first-class doctors, whose duties include the correct and timely diagnosis and saving lives of patients.

C) Dr. Charles Clements is a former Air Force Pilot and Vietnam veteran who, as a medical doctor, spent a year treating peasants in El Salvador.

12. What is Culture?

A) Something that prevents or saves someone or something from danger, loss, or failure.

B) Something that makes a place or substance dirty or harmful by putting something such as chemicals or poison in it.

C) It is all the values, norms, and customs that people share with one another.

13. How many types of ideological sets does Keiser define?

A) Four ideological sets which he calls heart ideology, soul ideology, brotherhood ideology, and game ideology.

B) Two ideological sets, which he calls heart ideology and game ideology.

C) Three ideological sets, which he calls heart ideology, soul ideology, brotherhood ideology, and game ideology.

14. What is the resocialization?

A) Resocialization is the process of learning new norms, values, attitudes, and behaviors. It refers to the process of discarding former behavior patterns and accepting new ones as part of a transition in one's life. Resocialization occurs throughout the human life cycle.

B) Resocialization is the process of learning new norms, values, attitudes, and behaviors. It refers to the process of discarding former behavior patterns and accepting new ones as part of a transition in one's life. Resocialization occurs during childhood.

C) This term was coined in 1961 by Erving Goffman and was designed to describe a society which is generally cut off from the rest of society but yet still provides for all the needs of its members.

15. What is the basic definition of "human nature"?

A) Human nature refers to nearly permanent qualities, which humans possess.

B) This term does not have an acceptable definition.

C) Human nature is used to justify inequality.

16. What does social isolation contribute to?

- A) Severe social isolation contributes to poor social development.
- B) Social isolation helps to find oneself.
- C) This problem has not been studied by sociologists.

17. Who among the sociologists developed this problem?

- A) Appelbaum and Chambliss
- B) Marx
- C) Durkheim

18. What is the value of socialization?

- A) Socialization is needed only in adulthood.
- B) Socialization is the process where people acquire personality and learn the way of life of their society.
- C) Socialization helps to know the world.

19. Explain the difference in macro and micro approaches of Sociology.

A) The micro-level refers to social relations that involve families, friends, and coworkers.

The macro-level refers to the larger, more invisible, and often more remote social processes that help to shape the micro world.

B) The micro-level refers to the larger, more invisible, and often more remote social processes that help to shape the micro world.

C) The macro-level refers to social relations that involve families, friends, and coworkers.

D) There are no differences.

20. What is the study of Zimbardo?

A) This is an experiment based on a study by students of Stanford school.

B) A psychological experiment that was conducted in 1970 at Stanford University by an American psychologist Alexander Zimbardo.

C) In the Zimbardo study, 24 students took part. Some of them were prison guards, the other part were prisoners. This brutal experiment ended sooner than expected. Some boys (guards) treat others as if they were despicable animals. Those playing prison guards took pleasure with inflicting cruelty.

21. What is the concept of social organization?

A) Social organization refers to patterns of social interaction. Within organization, expectations become more fixed. Actors agree on important matters affecting interaction and control themselves so that cooperation can occur.

B) Public association or public institution.

C) The social organization is a group of people whose activities are consciously coordinated to achieve a common goal or goals.

22. How many types of formal organizations exist according to A. Etzioni?

A) Coercive organizations, utilitarian organizations, normative organizations.

B) Formal organizations, informal organizations.

C) Antiform organizations, formal organizations.

23. What does social organization mean in Durkheim's work?

A) An ideal social organization can ensure uninterrupted, perfectly coordinated labor activity and the same ideal management.

B) A social organization should place people at workplaces in such a way as to ensure its continuity.

C) Social organization means, on the one hand, that the individual has to give up a certain amount of individual freedom. On the other hand, people are not overly concerned about losing that freedom.

24. What is the concept of deviance?

A) Deviance is intentional actions aimed at liberation from the established order.

B) Deviance is behavior that some people in society find offensive and which excites, or would excite, if it were discovered, disapproval, punishment, condemnation, or hostility.

C) Deviance is reasoning, the premises of which contain information sufficient to derive a description of the phenomenon explained from it.

25. What is special about the case of Nelson Mandela?

A) For years, the ruling party in South Africa viewed him as a “dangerous political deviant”. To most South Africans, those who are Black, Mandela is a revered leader of the freedom movement.

B) For years, the ruling party in South Africa viewed him as a “dangerous political deviant”. To most South Africans, those who are Black, Mandela is still a deviant.

C) For many years, the ruling party in America viewed him as a “dangerous political deviant”. For most North Africans, those who are Black, Mandela is still a deviant.

26. How did Lombroso explain the criminal deviance?

A) Research shows that most people, who have suspect genetic traits, are not deviant.

B) Cesare Lombroso argued that physical abnormalities that afflict people cause them to pursue deviant (or criminal) activity.

C) The general argument here is that it requires stamina to be a criminal so those people with the most stamina will be more likely to commit crimes.

27. What is Anomie or Strain Theory?

A) Anomie or Strain Theory argues that the social structure has no effect on people in society.

B) Anomie or Strain Theory contends that social structure puts varying degrees of stress on individuals in society.

C) Durkheim was the second sociologist to investigate how disturbances in social structure prompt one to commit suicide.

28. Indicate the types of white-collar crime.

A) Occupational crime, organizational or corporate crime.

B) Professional crime, non-professional crime

29. What is the motive of white-collar crime?

A) Money

B) Political power

C) Enhancing power

30. What is the definition of the concept “deterrence”?

A) The state is placed in the position of “applying revenge on behalf of the victim”. This is the “eye for an eye” philosophy.

B) Deterrence theory contends that if the public knows the consequences of deviance, many individuals will not commit a crime.

C) This philosophy seeks to prevent the offender from committing further crimes.

31. What is the definition of “stratification”?

A) A system in accordance with which specialization occurs in the production process.

B) Division of the object into its component parts, sides, properties.

C) Social stratification refers to the division of a society into layers (or strata) whose occupants have unequal access to social opportunities and rewards.

32. Do you know a country where a well-known caste system exists?

- A) India
- B) Germany
- C) Africa

33. Why are some groups named “minority”?

- A) A minority is a category of people who lack power, privilege, and prestige in social, political or economic spheres.
- B) Under minority in rare cases, they mean an absolute minority, that is, more than half of the total number of any group.

34. What is the definition of “discrimination”?

- A) Discrimination explains much inequality in gender (and race and ethnicity) found in the workplace.
- B) Discrimination means that men have greater access to the labor market than do women.
- C) Discrimination is administrative-territorial unit in different countries in different epochs.

35. Which authors talked about gender stratification?

- A) Esping-Andersen
- B) Long
- C) Eitzen and Baca-Zinn

36. There are three types of state power and authority. Name each one.

- A) The main power, the ruling power, the rational power.
- B) Traditional power, ruling power, right-rational power.
- C) Traditional authority, charismatic authority, legal-rational authority.

37. What are the key points of Marx's theory of Class Conflict?

A) All societies are seen as having built-in sources of conflict that eventually lead to a sharp break with the past. Eventually, any type of society reaches a point when its social organization becomes a barrier to further economic growth. Reaching this limit precipitates a revolutionary transformation of society into a new type.

B) All societies are seen as having built-in sources of conflict that eventually lead to a sharp break with the past. Eventually, any type of society reaches a point when its social organization becomes an offer to further economic growth. Reaching precipitates a revolutionary transformation of society into a new type.

38. Who has defined modernization as a complex set of changes that take place in almost every part of society as a society attempts to industrialize?

A) Smelser

B) Smith

C) Eitzen and Baca-Zinn

39. May some cultural factors affect the birth rate?

A) Yes, some of them may affect.

B) Definitely no.

C) Only demographical factors may affect the birth rate

40. Who argues that the high population growth increases the incidence of poverty, but also argues that, in a more dramatic fashion, poverty encourages population growth?

A) Appelbaum

B) Chamblis

C) Birdsall

GLOSSARY

According (to) adj. [ə'kɔ:rdɪŋ] – correspond, match, meet, fit, conform, satisfy.

Achievement n. [ə'tʃi:vmənt] – successful accomplishment; something successfully accomplished or performed.

Anarchy n. ['ænəki] – a situation in which there is no effective government in a country or no order in an organization or situation.

Argue v. ['ɑ:gju:] – give reasons or cite evidence in support of an idea, action, or theory, typically with the aim of persuading others to share one's view.

Bribery n. ['braɪbəri] – dishonestly giving money to someone to persuade them to do something to help you.

Bureaucracy n. [bjʊə'rɒkrəsi] – a complicated official system that is annoying or confusing because it has a lot of rules, processes etc.

Child abuse n. [tʃaɪld ə'bjʊ:s] – the crime of harming a child physically, sexually, or emotionally.

Coercive adj. [kəʊ'ə:sɪv] – using threats or orders to make someone do something they do not want to do.

Coherence n. [kə(ʊ)'hɪər(ə)ns] – if a group has coherence, its members are connected or united because they share common aims, qualities, or beliefs.

Coherent adj. [kə(ʊ)'hɪər(ə)nt] – logical and consistent.

Commitment n. [kə'mɪtm(ə)nt] – a promise to do something or to behave in a particular way.

Common sense – the knowledge people gain about the world through their everyday experience.

Contradictions n., pl [kɒntrə'dɪkʃ(ə)nz] – a combination of statements, ideas, or features which are opposed to one another.

Culture n. ['kʌltʃə] – the beliefs, way of life, art, and customs that are shared and accepted by people in a particular society.

Define v. [dɪ'faɪn] – to set forth the meaning of; to explain or identify the nature of; describe; to determine or fix the boundaries of; specify clearly; to make clear the outline or form of; delineate.

Democracy n. [dɪ'mɒkrəsi] – situation or system in which everyone is equal and has the right to vote, make decisions etc.

Desirable adj. [dɪ'zʌɪərəb(ə)l] – wished for as being an attractive, useful, or necessary course of action.

Deterrence n. [dɪ'tɛrəns] – making somebody realize it will be difficult or have bad results.

Deviantizing adj. ['deviantɪzɪŋ] – abnormal in behavior; evasion; retreat.

Distinguished adj. [dɪ'stɪŋgwɪft] – very successful, authoritative, and commanding great respect.

Distinguished adj. [dɪ'stɪŋgwɪft] – made well-known by excellence or success; having an air of distinction, nobility, or dignity.

Egalitarian adj. [ɪˌgali'tɛ:riən] – believing in or based on the principle that all people are equal and deserve equal rights and opportunities.

Emancipation n. [ɪˌmænsɪ'peɪʃən] – giving someone the political or legal rights that they did not have before.

Embezzle v. [ɪm'beɪz(ə)l] – to steal money from the place where you work.

Ethnocentrism n. [ˌeθno'senˌtrɪzəm] – refers to the tendency to view one's own culture as the norm.

Eventually adv. [ɪ'ventʃʊ(ə)li] – in the end, especially after a long delay, dispute, or series of problems.

Explanation n. [ˌeksplə'neɪʃən] – the act or process of explaining; something that explains.

Famine n. ['fæmɪn] – extreme scarcity of food.

Feral ['fɪərəl] – someone who behave badly in public and commit crimes, because they are not controlled by anyone and have no respect for authority.

Fine n. [faɪn] – money that you have to pay as a punishment.

Fraud n. [frɔ:d] – the crime of deceiving people in order to gain something such as money or goods.

Furthermore adv. [ˌfɜ:rðər'mɔ:r] – moreover; besides; in addition.

Human nature ['hju:mən 'neɪfə] – the qualities or ways of behaving that are natural and common to most people.

Incarceration n. [ɪnˌkɑ:sə'reɪʃən] – putting or keeping someone in prison.

Inequality n. [ˌɪnɪ'kwɑ:ləti] – the condition of being unequal; an instance of being unequal.

Inequality n. [ˌɪnɪ'kwɑ:ləti] – an unfair situation, in which some groups in society have more money, opportunities, power etc. than others.

Inevitable adj. [ɪn'evɪtəb(ə)l] – certain to happen; unavoidable.

Infant n. ['ɪnf(ə)nt] – a very young child or baby.

Inferior adj. [ɪn'fɪəriər] – someone who has a lower position or rank than you in an organization.

Innate adj. [ɪ'neɪt] – something you are born with, a quality or ability.

Institutionalized [ˌɪnstɪ'tuʃənəlaɪzd] – someone who has lived for a long time in a prison, mental hospital etc and now cannot easily live outside one.

Involvement n. [ɪn'vɒlvmənt] – the fact or condition of being involved with or participating in something.

Justification n. [ˌdʒʌstɪfɪ'keɪʃn] – a reason, fact, circumstance, or explanation that justifies.

Laissez-faire n. [ˌlɛsɛɪ'fɛ:] – the policy of leaving things to take their own course, without interfering.

Language n. ['læŋgwɪdʒ] – a system of communication by written or spoken words, which is used by the people of a particular country or area.

Macro ['mækrəʊ] – large and concerning a whole system rather than particular parts of it.

Meaningless adj. ['mi:nɪŋləs] – without meaning, significance, purpose, or value; purposeless; insignificant.

Micro ['maɪkrəʊ] – extremely small.

Minority/majority n./n. [maɪ'nɔːrəti/ mə'dʒɔːrəti] – a number, part, or amount forming less than half of the whole; the greater part or number.

Mitigate v. ['mɪtɪgeɪt] – make (something bad) less severe, serious, or painful.

Occupy v. ['ɑːkjupaɪ] – to have, hold, or take as a separate space; to be a resident or tenant of; to fill up with some activity; spend.

Occur v. [ə'kɜː] – to present itself; turn up; appear; exist.

Penalty n. ['penəlti] – a punishment for breaking a law or violating a rule; a loss because of failing to fulfill some obligation, as a sum of money.

Perspective n. [pə'spektɪv] – a variety of points of view on any given subject

Pestilence n. ['pestɪl(ə)ns] – a fatal epidemic disease, especially bubonic plague.

Pollution n. [pə'luːʃn] – the act of polluting or the state of being polluted; ecology introduction of harmful substances or products into the environment.

Poverty n. ['pɔːvərti] – the state or condition of having little or no money, goods, or means of support; condition of being poor; indigence; deficiency of necessary or desirable ingredients, qualities.

Precipitate v., adj. [prɪ'sɪpɪteɪt] – cause (an event or situation, typically one that is undesirable) to happen suddenly, unexpectedly, or prematurely. Done, made, or acting suddenly or without careful consideration.

Prevail v. [prɪ'veɪl] – to exist among a group of people at a certain time

Proclaim v. [pro'kleɪm] – to publicly state; to announce or declare in an official or formal manner.

Rehabilitation n. [ˌriːəˌbɪlɪ'teɪʃən] – the process of helping someone to live a healthy, useful, or active life again after they have been seriously ill or in prison.

Retarded adj. [rɪ'tɑːdɪd] – less mentally developed than other people of the same age. Many people think that this word is offensive.

Science n. ['saɪəns] – knowledge about the world, especially based on examining, testing, and proving facts.

Scientific method [ˌsaɪən'tɪfɪk 'mɛθəd] – a systematic, organized series of steps that ensures maximum objectivity and consistency in researching a problem.

Sentence n. ['sentəns] – a punishment that a judge gives to someone who is guilty of a crime.

Similar adj. ['sɪmələər] – having a likeness or resemblance; like or alike.

Socialization n. [ˌsəʊʃəlaɪ'zeɪʃən] – the process by which people, especially children, are made to behave in a way that is acceptable in their society.

Society n. [sə'saɪəti] – a particular large group of people who share laws, organizations, customs etc

Sociology n. [ˌsəʊsɪ'ɒlədʒi] – the scientific study of societies and the behaviour of people in groups.

Status n. ['steɪtəs] – your social or professional rank or position, considered in relation to other people.

Subculture n. ['sʌbˌkʌltʃə] – a particular group of people within a society and their behaviour, beliefs, and activities – often used to show disapproval.

Theory n. ['θiəri] – a set of ideas supported by facts.

Utilitarian adj. [ˌjuːtɪlɪ'teəriən] – intended to be useful and practical rather than attractive or comfortable.

Wage n. [weɪdʒ] – a fixed regular payment earned for work or services, typically paid on a daily or weekly basis.

White-collar crime n. [waɪt 'kɒlə kraɪm] – crimes by professional people that involve ways of illegally getting money.

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