

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ, МОЛОДІ ТА СПОРТУ УКРАЇНИ
ОДЕСЬКА НАЦІОНАЛЬНА АКАДЕМІЯ ЗВ'ЯЗКУ ім. О.С. ПОПОВА

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SOCIOLOGY

**A COURSE
IN REFERENCE AND LANGUAGE
COMMUNICATION SKILLS**

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Мета навчального посібника – удосконалення навичок читання і перекладу спеціальної літератури, а також розвиток навичок усного і письмового мовлення. Навчальний посібник має систему вправ, список слів та виразів, які характерні для наукового стилю.

Для студентів, які вивчають соціологію, а також для викладачів і дослідників, які прагнуть удосконалити навички використання англійської мови професійного спрямування.

Кузнцова Г.П., 2012.

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ПЕРЕДМОВА

Навчальний посібник “Sociology” створений для студентів-соціологів вищих навчальних закладів. Ми живемо в третьому тисячолітті, коли відбуваються важливі зміни в усіх сферах суспільного життя. Вони стосуються змін у сфері праці, отримання та перероблення інформації, влади, соціальних відносин між людьми. В наш час отримання освіти є дуже важливим фактором для майбутнього нашої країни, тому що майбутні фахівці, високоосвічені люди, стануть найкращими представниками нашої національної культури.

Завдяки своїм професійним знанням, наполегливій праці сучасні студенти зможуть успішно конкурувати у майбутньому українському та світовому суспільстві. У цьому контексті знання іноземних мов набуває особливої важливості. Наші студенти мають бути не тільки добре професійно підготовленими в обраній спеціальності, але, володіючи іноземними мовами, зможуть грамотно спілкуватися з представниками інших країн, бути конкурентно-спроможними.

У цьому їм допоможе цей навчальний посібник.

Посібник має за мету розвиток навичок усного мовлення, читання та розуміння текстів за спеціальністю, оволодіння лексикою за фаховим спрямуванням. Він містить багато текстів для читання і дискусій за спеціальністю зі створеними авторами вправами для підвищення навичок розуміння, обміну інформацією, мовлення та удосконалення використання мовних структур і професійної лексики. Автори пропонують багато можливостей для обговорення цікавих питань і проблем, щоб зробити комунікацію більш ефективною. Студенти матимуть можливість використовувати свої професійні знання.

Оволодіння іноземними мовами відповідає духу реформування нашого суспільства та національного відродження. Автори сподіваються, що цей навчальний посібник допоможе оволодіти мовою за професійним спрямуванням усім тим, хто цікавиться соціологією.

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Unit I. METHODOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS of SOCIOLOGY

Text 1 THE SCIENCE OF SOCIOLOGY

Sociology is the study of the social lives of humans, groups and societies. It concerns itself with the social rules and processes that bind and separate people not only as individuals, but as members of associations, groups, and institutions.

Sociology is interested in our behavior as social beings; thus the sociological field of interest ranges from the analysis of short contacts between anonymous individuals on the street to the study of global social processes.

Although the discipline emerged in large part from Comte's conviction that sociology eventually would subsume all other areas of scientific inquiry, in the end, sociology did not replace the other social sciences. Instead, it came to be another of them, with its own particular emphases, subject matter, and methods. Today, sociology studies humankind's organizations and social institutions, largely by a comparative method. It has concentrated particularly on the organization of complex industrial societies. Many sociology departments around the world are encouraging multi-cultural and multi-national study.

Today sociologists research macro-structures that organize society, such as race or ethnicity, social class and gender role, and institutions such as the family; social processes that represent deviation from, or the breakdown of, these structures, including crime and divorce; and micro-processes such as interpersonal interactions and the socialization of individuals.

Sociologists often rely on quantitative methods of social research to describe large patterns in social relationships, and in order to develop models that can help predict social change and how people will respond to it. Other branches of sociology believe that qualitative methods – such as focused interviews, group discussions and ethnographic methods – allow for a better understanding of social processes. An appropriate middle ground is that both approaches are complementary, that results from each approach can fill in results from the other approaches. For example, the quantitative methods can describe the large or general patterns, while the qualitative approaches can help to understand how individuals understand or respond to those changes.

Vocabulary list

approach – підхід

to bind (bound) – зобов'язувати, зв'язувати, пов'язувати

a comparative method – порівняльний метод

complementary – додатковий

to concern with – мати відношення до, ставитися з

deviation [ˌdiːvi'eɪʃ(ə)n] – відхилення, відступ

to emerge from – з'ясовуватися, виникати з

to encourage [ɪ'kʌrɪdʒ] – заохочувати, підтримувати

eventually [ɪ'ventʃʊ(ə)li] – в кінцевому рахунку, в результаті

a gender role – гендерна роль
inquiry – дослідження (наукове), пошук
instead – навпаки; замість когось, чогось
to predict – передбачати
to rely on – спиратися на
to respond to – відповідати, реагувати на що-небудь

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What kind of study is sociology? 2. What does it concern with? 3. What is sociology interested in? 4. What does the sociological field of interest range from? 5. Why didn't sociology replace the other social sciences? 6. Which method does sociology study humankind's organizations and social institutions by? 7. Are many sociology departments around the world encouraging multi-cultural and multi-national study? Why do you think so? 8. What macro-structures do sociologists research? 9. Which methods do sociologists often rely on to describe large patterns in social relationships? 10. What can you say about qualitative methods? 11. What is the difference between these both approaches?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

The study of the social life of humans, to concern oneself with, to bind and separate people, to be interested in, the sociological field of interest, to range from, anonymous individuals, the study of global social processes, to emerge in, conviction, eventually, to subsume, areas of scientific inquiry, instead, to come to be, particular emphases, subject matter, to study humankind's organizations, social institutions, largely, a comparative method, to concentrate on, particularly, complex industrial societies, to encourage multi-cultural and multi-national study, to research macro-structures, a race or ethnicity, social class, gender role, to represent, deviation, breakdown, interpersonal interactions, the socialization of individuals, to rely on quantitative methods, to describe large patterns, social relationships, to predict social change, to respond to, qualitative methods, focused interviews, group discussions, ethnographic methods, to allow a better understanding of social processes, an appropriate middle ground, complementary, to fill in results, to describe large or general patterns.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Вивчати глобальні та соціальні процеси, об'єднувати та роз'єднувати людей, з'явитися, натомість, порівняльний метод, описувати загальні моделі, вивчати соціальні інститути, захочувати вивчення національних культур, досліджувати макроструктури, відхилення, етнографічні методи, вважати, підхід.

Exercise 4. Define the following key terms and memorize the definitions:

Sociology, a comparative method, macro structures, quantitative methods, qualitative methods.

Exercise 5. Make up your own sentences with the following.

Sociology, discipline, individuals, approach, in order to.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Discuss the message of the text.

Exercise 2. What is your opinion on the following topic?

Sociology is a science which attempts the interpretive understanding of social action in order thereby to arrive at a causal explanation of its course and effects.

Text 2

Computational Sociology

Computational Sociology is a recently developed branch of sociology that uses computation to analyze social phenomena. The basic premise of computational sociology is to take advantage of computer simulation in the construction of social theories. It involves the understanding of social agents, the interaction among these agents, and the effect of these interactions on the social aggregate. Although the subject matter and methodologies in social science differ from those in natural science or computer science, several of the approaches used in contemporary social simulation originated from fields such as physics and artificial intelligence. In relevant literature, computational sociology is often related to the study of social complexity. Social complexity concepts such as complex systems, non-linear interconnection among macro and micro process, and emergence, have entered the vocabulary of computational sociology. A practical and well-known example is the construction of a computational model in the form of an "artificial society," by which researchers can analyze the structure of a social system.

(From www.sociologyguide.com)

Vocabulary list

aggregate [ˈægrɪɡeɪt] – сукупність

artificial intelligence – штучний (вдаваний) інтелект

computational sociology – кількісні методи в соціології

contemporary social simulation – сучасне соціальне моделювання

to differ from – відрізнятися від

premise – передумова

to be related to – пов'язувати з

to take advantage of – використовувати що-небудь у своїх інтересах

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. In pairs ask and answer questions with the following words. You are talking to a prominent sociologist:

- a) a recently developed branch of sociology
- b) the basic premise
- c) contemporary social simulation
- d) computational sociology
- e) the structure of a social system

Exercise 2. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Галузь соціології, яка нещодавно виникла; використовувати обчислювальні методи, сукупність, штучний (вдаваний) інтелект, взаємодія, предмет дослідження, дослідники, конструювання соціальних теорій, проаналізувати структуру соціальної системи, сучасні соціальні концепції, кількісні методи у соціології.

Exercise 3. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

Computational Sociology, a recently developed branch of sociology, to use computation, to analyze social phenomena, the basic premise, to take advantage of computer simulation, the construction of social theories, to involve, social agents, the interaction, social aggregate, the subject matter, methodology, to differ from, natural science, computer science, contemporary social simulation, to originate from, physics, artificial intelligence, relevant literature, to be related to, social complexity concepts, non-linear, interconnection, macro and micro process, emergence, a practical example, the form of an "artificial society," researchers, to analyze the structure of a social system.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Reproduce the text in your own words.

Exercise 2. Think of a corresponding ending for the following sentences.

1. Computational Sociology is ...
2. Although the subject matter ...
3. In relevant literature...
4. A practical and well-known example ...
5. Researchers can analyze the structure of a social system...

Text 3

Areas of Sociological Research

Sociology is a branch of the social sciences that uses systematic methods of empirical investigation and critical analysis to develop and refine a body of knowledge about human social structure and activity, sometimes with the goal of

applying such knowledge to the pursuit of government policies designed to benefit the general social welfare. Its subject matter ranges from the micro level to the macro level. Microsociology involves the study of people in face-to-face interactions. Macrosociology involves the study of widespread social processes.

Sociology is a broad discipline in terms of both methodology and subject matter. Its traditional focuses have included social relations, social stratification, social interaction, culture and deviance, and its approaches have included both qualitative and quantitative research techniques. As much of what humans do fits under the category of social structure or social activity, sociology has gradually expanded its focus to such far-flung subjects as the study of economic activity, health disparities, and even the role of social activity in the creation of scientific knowledge. The range of social scientific methods has also been broadly expanded.

The social world is changing. Some argue it is growing; others say it is shrinking. The important point to grasp is: society does not remain unchanged over time. Sociology has its roots in significant societal changes (e.g., the industrial revolution, the creation of empires, and the age of enlightenment of scientific reasoning). Early practitioners developed the discipline as an attempt to understand societal changes.

Some early sociological theorists (e.g., Marx, Weber, and Durkheim) were disturbed by the social processes they believed to be driving the change, such as the quest for solidarity, the attainment of social goals, and the rise and fall of classes.

The sociological imagination goes beyond armchair sociology or common sense. Many people believe they understand the world and the events taking place within it, even though they have not actually engaged in a systematic attempt to understanding the social world, as sociologists do. Humans like to attribute causes to events and attempt to understand what is taking place around them. This is why individuals have been using religious ceremonies for centuries to invoke the will of the gods – because they believed the gods controlled certain elements of the natural world (e.g., the weather). Just as sacrificing two goats to ensure the safe operation of a Boeing 757 is an attempt to influence the natural world without first trying to understand how it works, armchair sociology is an attempt to understand how the social world works without employing scientific methods.

Sociologists, like all humans, have values, beliefs, and even pre-conceived notions of what they might find in doing their research. Sociology, then, is an attempt to understand the social world by situating social events in their corresponding environment (i.e., social structure, culture, history) and trying to understand social phenomena by collecting and analyzing empirical data.

(From www.sociologyguide.com)

Vocabulary list

- attainment [ə'teɪnmənt] – досягнення
- to benefit – сприяти
- corresponding – відповідний
- deviance [ˈdi:vɪəns] – відхилення від норми
- to be disturbed by – бути занепокоєним

far-flung – обширний
to go beyond – перевищувати
to grasp – зрозуміти, досягнути
health disparity – невідповідність добробуту
to invoke the will of the gods – посилатися на волю богів
practitioner [ˈpræktɪtʃ(ə)nə] – той, хто робить щось постійно
pre-conceived notions – упереджена думка
pursuit [pəˈsju:t] – виконання, ведення
quest for solidarity – пошуки солідарності
to refine – удосконалювати, поліпшувати
sacrificing goats – приносячи кіз у жертву
social welfare – соціальне забезпечення
societal [səˈsaɪəl] – соціальний, суспільний
stratification – стратифікація, розшарування
widespread – (широко) розповсюджений

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What is Sociology? 2. Why does it use systematic methods of empirical investigation and critical analysis? 3. Does its subject matter range from the micro level to the macro level? 4. What involves the study of people in face – to – face interactions? 5. What does macrosociology involve? 6. Why is sociology a broad discipline in terms of both methodology and subject matter? 7. Does society remain unchanged over time? 8. Where does sociology have its roots? 9. What were early sociological theorists disturbed by? 10. Why does the sociological imagination go beyond armchair sociology or common sense? 11. Why have individuals been using religious ceremonies for centuries? 12. Is sociology an attempt to understand the social world? Give your reasoning.

Exercise 2. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Соціальна структура людства, соціальна стратифікація, вивчення широко розповсюджених соціальних процесів, створення наукового знання, сперечатися, бути провідною силою, потрапляти в категорію, бути стурбованим соціальними процесами, бути залученим в, розуміти соціальні явища, збирати та аналізувати емпіричну інформацію.

Exercise 3. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

A branch of the social sciences, to use systematic methods, empirical investigation, to develop and refine a body of knowledge, human social structure, a goal, to apply, the pursuit of government policies, benefit the general social welfare, to range from, microsociology, face-to-face interactions, macrosociology, the study of widespread social processes, a broad discipline, in terms of, to include social relations, social

stratification, social interaction, culture and deviance, approaches, qualitative and quantitative research techniques, to fit under the category, social activity, gradually to expand, far-flung subjects, the study of economic activity, health disparities, the creation of scientific knowledge, to argue, to shrink, to grasp the important point, to remain unchanged over time, to have roots in significant societal changes, the industrial revolution, the creation of empires, the age of enlightenment, early practitioners to develop the discipline, an attempt, to understand societal changes, to be disturbed by the social processes, to be the driving change, the quest for solidarity, the attainment of social goals, the rise and fall of classes, common sense, to be engaged in, to invoke, pre-conceived notions, corresponding environment, to understand social phenomena, to collect and analyze empirical data.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Prove the fact that the social world is changing.

Exercise 2. Do you agree with the following statement?

In employing the sociological imagination, people are able to see the events and social structures that influence behavior, attitudes, and culture.

Text 4 Origin of Sociology

Sociology is a relatively new academic discipline. It emerged in the early 19th century in response to the challenges of modernity. Increasing mobility and technological advances resulted in the increasing exposure of people to cultures and societies different from their own. The impact of this exposure was varied, but for some people included the breakdown of traditional norms and customs and warranted a revised understanding of how the world works. Sociologists responded to these changes by trying to understand what holds social groups together and also exploring possible solutions to the breakdown of social solidarity.

The term *sociology* was coined by Auguste Comte (1798-1857) in 1838 from the Latin term *socius* (companion, associate) and the Greek term *logia* (study of, speech). Comte hoped to unify all the sciences under sociology; he believed sociology held the potential to improve society and direct human activity, including the other sciences.

While it is no longer a theory employed in Sociology, Comte argued for an understanding of society he labeled *The Law of Three Stages*. Comte, not unlike other enlightenment thinkers, believed society developed in stages. The first was the **theological stage** where people took a religious view of society. The second was the **metaphysical stage** where people understood society as natural (not supernatural). Comte's final stage was the scientific or **positivist stage**, which he believed to be the pinnacle of social development. In the scientific stage, society would be governed by reliable knowledge and would be understood in light of the knowledge produced by science, primarily sociology. While vague connections between Comte's *Law* and human history can be seen, it is generally understood in Sociology today that

Comte's approach is a highly simplified and ill-founded approach to understand the social development.

Other *classical* theorists of sociology from the late 19th and early 20th centuries include Karl Marx, Ferdinand Toennies, Emile Durkheim, Vilfredo Pareto, and Max Weber. As pioneers in Sociology, most of the early sociological thinkers were trained in other academic disciplines, including history, philosophy, and economics. The diversity of their trainings is reflected in the topics they researched, including religion, education, economics, psychology, ethics, philosophy, and theology. Perhaps with the exception of Marx, their most enduring influence has been on sociology, and it is in this field that their theories are still considered most applicable.

(From www.sociologyguide.com)

Vocabulary list

breakdown – розпад

diversity – різноманітність

enduring influence – стійкий вплив

enlightenment thinkers – мислителі епохи просвітництва

exposure [ɪk'spəʊʒə] – зіштовхування з

pinnacle ['pɪnəkl(ə)] – вершина, кульмінаційний пункт

to result in – закінчуватися (*чим-н*), мати в результаті (*що-н*)

to unify – об'єднувати, уніфікувати

vague [veɪg] – невизначений

to warrant ['wɒrənt] – гарантувати, підтверджувати

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. Why is sociology a relatively new academic discipline? 2. What did increasing mobility and technological advances result in? 3. How did sociologists respond to the changes? 4. Who was the term sociology coined by? 5. What is its origin? 6. Why did Comte hope to unify all the sciences under sociology? 7. Who introduced *The Law of Three Stages*? 8. How did Comte label the first stage? 9. What can you say about it? 10. What can you say about the second stage? 11. How did Comte believe the final stage to be? 12. Why is Comte's approach a highly simplified and ill-founded approach to understand the social development? 13. What academic disciplines were other classical theorists of sociology trained in?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

A relatively new academic discipline, to emerge in the early 19th century, in response to, the challenges of modernity, increasing mobility and technological advances, to result in, the exposure of people to cultures and societies, to be different from, the impact, the breakdown of traditional norms and customs, a warranted revised understanding, to hold social groups together, to explore possible solutions, to be

coined by, to unify, to improve society and direct human activity, to argue for, enlightenment thinkers, theological stage, metaphysical stage, to be the pinnacle of social development, vague connections, ill-founded approach, to consider, applicable.

Exercise 3. Multiple choice:

Sociology is emerged in...

- a) in the late 19th century;
- b) in the early 20th century;
- c) in the early 19th century.

The term was coined by Auguste Comte in 1838.

- a) social stratification;
- b) sociology;
- c) critical analysis;
- d) social welfare.

Comte believed society developed...

- a) in stages;
- b) in understanding the social world;
- c) in employing the sociological imagination.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Discuss the question, share your points with your classmates.

What is the place of Auguste Comte in the development of sociology?

Text 5

The Development of the Discipline

The first book with the term *sociology* in its title was written in the mid-19th century by the English philosopher Herbert Spencer. In the United States, the first *Sociology* course was taught at the University of Kansas, Lawrence in 1890 under the title *Elements of Sociology* (the oldest continuing sociology course in America). The first full-fledged university department of sociology in the United States was established in 1892 at the University of Chicago by Albion W. Small, who in 1895 founded the *American Journal of Sociology*. The first European department of sociology was founded in 1895 at the University of Bordeaux by Emile Durkheim, founder of *L'Année Sociologique* (1896). In 1919 a sociology department was established in Germany at the Ludwig Maximilians University of Munich by Max Weber and in 1920 in Poland by Florian Znaniecki. The first sociology departments in the United Kingdom were founded after the Second World War.

International cooperation in sociology began in 1893 when Rene Worms founded the small Institut International de Sociologie that was eclipsed by the much larger international Sociologist Association starting in 1949. In 1905 the American Sociological Association, the world's largest association of professional sociologists, was founded.

Early sociological studies considered the field to be similar to the natural sciences, like physics or biology. As a result, many researchers argued that the methodology used in the natural sciences was perfectly suited for use in the social sciences. The effect of employing the scientific method and stressing empiricism was the distinction of sociology from theology, philosophy, and metaphysics. This also resulted in sociology being recognized as an empirical science. This early sociological approach, supported by August Comte, led to positivism, a methodological approach based on sociological naturalism. The goal of positivism, like the natural sciences, is prediction. But in the case of sociology, it is prediction of human behavior, which is a complicated proposition.

The goal of predicting human behavior was quickly realized to be a bit lofty. Scientists like Wilhelm Dilthey and Heinrich Rickert argued that the natural world differs from the social world, as human society has culture, unlike the societies of most other animals (e.g., the behavior of ants, wolves, etc. is primarily based on genetic instructions and is not passed from generation to generation through socialization). As a result, an additional goal was proposed for sociology. Max Weber and Wilhelm Dilthey introduced the concept of ‘*verstehen*’. The goal of

verstehen is less to predict behavior than it is to understand behavior. Outside observers of a culture relate to an indigenous people on both the observer's and the observed's own terms in order to comprehend the cultural conditions. While arriving at a *verstehen*-like understanding of a culture employs systematic methodologies like the positivistic approach of predicting human behavior, it is often a more subjective process.

The ability of sociology and other social sciences to perfectly predict the behavior of humans or to fully comprehend a different culture has led to the social sciences being labeled “soft sciences”. While some might consider this label derogatory, in a sense it can be seen as an admission of the remarkable complexity of humans is bound to be difficult to fully comprehend. What’s more, human society, and human culture are all constantly changing, which means the social sciences will constantly be progressing.

(From www.sociologyguide.com)

NOTES

Herbert Spencer (1820-1903) [ˈhɜːbət ˈspensə] Герберт Спенсер, британський філософ.

Albion W. Small (1854-1926) [ˈælbjən ˈdʌblju ˈsmɔːl] Альбїон Смолл, американський соціолог.

Emile Durkheim (1858-1916) [ˈeɪmɪl ˈdɜːkheɪm] Еміль Дюркгейм, французький соціолог.

Max Weber (1864-1920) [ˈmæks ˈwiːbə] Макс Вебер, німецький соціолог та політичний економіст.

Florian Znaniecki (1882-1958) [ˈflɔːriən znəˈnetski] Флоріан Знанецький, польський соціолог.

Rene Worms (1869-1926) [rəˈne ˈwɔːmz] Рене Вормс, французький соціолог.

August Comte (1798-1857) [ɔ : 'gʌst 'kɔ :nt] Огюст Конт, французький математик й філософ, засновник позитивізму.

Wilhelm Dilthey (1833-1911) ['wɪlhɛlm 'dɪltəɪ] Вільгельм Дильтей, німецький історик, психолог, соціолог й філософ.

Heinrich Rickert (1863-1936) ['hainrɪk 'rɪkət] Генрих Ріккерт, німецький філософ.

Vocabulary list

to argue ['ɑ:gju:] – сперечатися

to comprehend [ˌkɒmpri'hend] – розуміти, осягнути

derogatory [dɪ'rɒgət(ə)rɪ] – зневажливий

distinction – відмінність, різниця

that was eclipsed by – якого затьмарив

full-fledged – остаточно готовий

indigenous [ɪn'dɪdʒ(ə)nəs] – місцевий

lofty – зарозумілий, гордовитий

observeds – спостережувані

to be perfectly suited for – цілком підходити (годитися) для

prediction – прогноз, передбачення

to progress – розвиватися

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercises 1. Write some problem questions to text 5 for class discussion.

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

A philosopher, under the title, a full-fledged university department, to be established, international cooperation in, to be eclipsed by, early sociological studies, to consider, to be similar to, the natural sciences, as a result, to argue, to be perfectly suited for, to employ the scientific method, distinction, to result in, to be recognized as, to be supported by, to lead to positivism, a methodological approach, to be based on sociological naturalism, prediction, human behavior, to be a bit lofty, natural world, to be based on genetic instructions, to pass from generation to generation through socialization, an additional goal, to introduce the concept, outside observers, to relate to, indigenous people, in order to, to comprehend the cultural conditions, a subjective process, to lead to social sciences, derogatory, an admission, to progress.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercises 1. Comment on the following statements.

- Sociology is the study of society.
- August Comte was the French scientist who gave sociology its name and promoted the scientific study of society.
- Induction is the first step in understanding the social world.

Exercises 2. Is it right or not? Share opinions.

Sociology is both topically and methodologically a very broad discipline.

Text 6

STEPS IN THE SCIENTIFIC METHOD

The scientific method is a way of finding out about the world that relies on the rigorous and disciplined collection of facts and a logical explanation of them. It finds expression in a systematic series of steps that seek to ensure maximum objectivity in investigating a problem. Ideally sociological research follows this step-by-step procedure, although in practice it is not always possible. Even so, the following steps provide useful guidelines for conducting research (see Figure 1).

1. *Selecting a researchable problem.* The range of topics available for social research is as broad as the range of human behavior. Thus we need to find a problem that merits study and that can be investigated by the methods of science.

2. *Reviewing the literature.* Rather than plunging hastily into a research venture, researchers refine the problem under study. They survey the literature dealing with necessary data.

3. *Formulating a hypothesis.* After reviewing the literature, researchers commonly arrive at a tentative guess regarding the relationship they believe exists between two variables.

4. *Choosing a research design.* Once researchers have formulated and operationalized their hypothesis, they have to determine how they will collect the data that will provide a test of it. Depending on the nature of their hypothesis, they might design an experiment, conduct interviews, observe the way people behave in particular situations, examine existing records and historical evidence, or combine these procedures.

5. *Collecting the data.* The actual collection of the data plays a critical part in the research enterprise.

6. *Analyzing the results.* Once researchers have their data, they must analyze them to find answers to the questions posed by their research project. Analysis involves a search for meaningful links between the facts that have emerged in the course of the research.

7. *Stating conclusions.* After completing their analysis of the data, researchers are ready to state their conclusions. They typically accept, reject, or modify their hypothesis. Additionally, researchers usually seek to extract broader meaning from their work by linking it to other knowledge and theory.

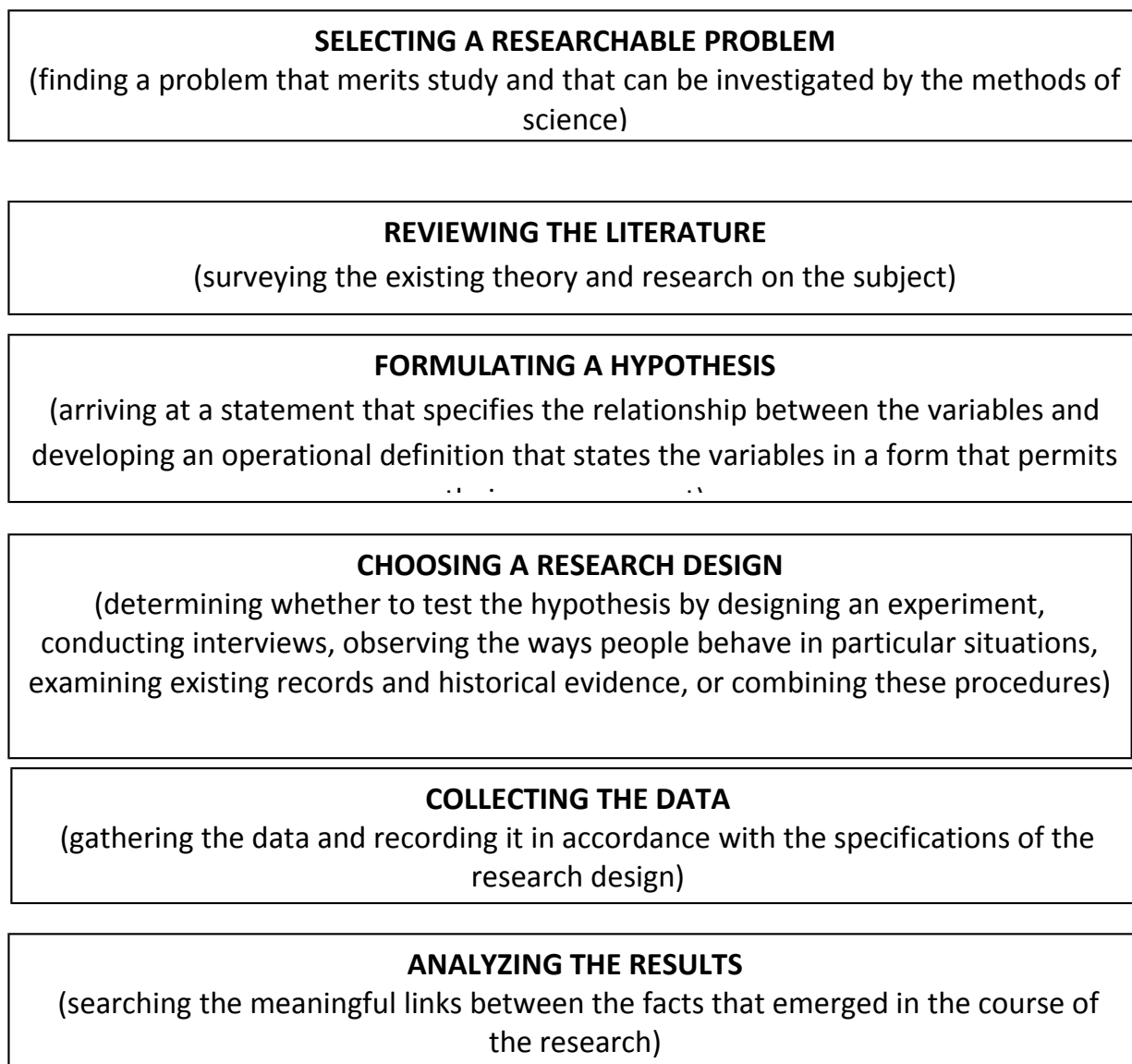


Figure 1. THE STEPS IN THE SCIENTIFIC METHOD

The chart shows the steps researchers commonly follow in investigating a problem.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

- to emerge – з’являтися
- evidence – дані, факт(и); свідоцтва
- to merit – заслуговувати; бути гідним
- rigorous [ˈrɪɡərəs] – строгий; суворий; точний
- plunging – занурення
- to seek (sought; sought) – шукати; прагнути до чого-небудь
- step-by-step procedure [ˈsteɪpbaɪsteɪpˌprədʒə] – поступова процедура
- tentative [ˈtɛntətɪv] – експериментальний; передбачуваний; попередній
- venture [ˈventʃə] – небезпечна витівка

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Read the text and answer the following questions:

1. What is a scientific method? 2. What does it find expression in? 3. What does the sociological research follow? 4. What do the following steps in the research provide? 5. Why do we need to select a researchable problem? 6. How do researchers refine the problem under study? 7. What happens after reviewing the literature? 8. What might researchers do depending on the nature of their hypothesis? 9. What plays a critical part in the research enterprise? 10. What does the analysis of the research design involve? 11. What do researchers do after completing their analysis of the data?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

Rigorous, to ensure maximum objectivity, to provide guidelines, to formulate a hypothesis, to review the literature, to arrive at a tentative guess, to choose a research design, to operationalize the hypothesis, to determine, to collect the data, to depend on, to design an experiment, to conduct interviews, to observe, to examine the records, historical evidence, to combine, to play a critical part, a search of meaningful links, to emerge, in the course of the research, to state conclusions, to accept, to reject, to modify, to extract, the methods of science, to survey, to develop an operational definition.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Працювати з гіпотезою, відігравати важливу роль, проводити інтерв'ю, вибрати план дослідження, оглядати, визначити, забезпечувати максимальну об'єктивність, суворий, зробити припущення, з'єднувати, залежати від, спостерігати, проаналізувати записи, спланувати експеримент, надавати рекомендації, пошук значущих зв'язків, виникати, приймати, в процесі дослідження, відкидати, змінювати, вилучати, наукові методи, робити огляд літератури, сформулювати гіпотезу, збирати інформацію, виробити робоче визначення, історичне свідчення.

Exercise 4. Reread the text. Fill in the gaps in the sentences with the following words:

a way of, relies, logical, step-by-step, commonly, between, nature, design, interviews, particular, situations, combine, plays, enterprise, typically, modify.

1. The scientific method is..... finding out about the world that on the rigorous and disciplined collection of facts and a..... explanation of them.
2. Ideally sociological research follows this.... procedure.
3. After reviewing the literature, researchers arrive at a tentative guess regarding the relationship they believe exists two variables.

4. Depending on the of their hypothesis, they might an experiment, conduct....., observe the way people behave in, examine existing records and historical evidence, or these procedures.
5. The actual collection of the data a critical part in the research
6. Researchers.... accept, reject, ortheir hypothesis.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Discuss the message of the text

Text 7

Quantitative vs. Qualitative Sociology

The contrast between positivist sociology and the verstehen approach has been reformulated in modern sociology as a distinction between **quantitative** and **qualitative** methodological approaches, respectively. Quantitative sociology is generally a numerical approach to understanding human behavior. Surveys with large numbers of participants are aggregated into data sets and analyzed using statistics, allowing researchers to discern patterns in human behavior. Qualitative sociology generally opts for depth over breadth. The qualitative approach uses in-depth interviews, focus groups, or analysis of content sources (books, magazines, journals, TV shows, etc.) as the data source. These sources are then analyzed systematically to discern patterns to arrive at better understanding of human behavior.

Drawing a hard and fast distinction between quantitative and qualitative sociology is a bit misleading. The first step in all sciences is the development of a theory and the generation of testable hypotheses. While these are some individuals who begin analyzing data without a theoretical orientation to guide their analysis, most begin with a theoretical idea or question and gather data to test that theory. The second step is the collection of data. This is really where the two approaches differ. Quantitative sociology focuses on numerical representations of the research subjects. Qualitative sociology focuses on the ideas found within the discourse and rhetoric of the research subjects. The goal of both approaches is to answer a question and/or test a theory.

(From www.sociologyguide.com)

Vocabulary list

to aggregate [ˈæɡrɪgeɪt] – збирати в одне ціле
 breadth – широта (інтересів, поглядів тощо)
 depth – глибина; зміст поняття
 to discern [dɪˈsɜːn] – розрізняти
 to guide the analysis – управляти аналізом (дослідженням)
 to be misleading – бути оманливим (вводити в оману)
 to opt – вибирати, робити вибір
 verstehen (Germ.) = understand

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the questions about the text.

1. What has been formulated in modern sociology as a distinction between **quantitative** and **qualitative** methodological approaches? 2. What is quantitative sociology? 3. What is aggregated into data sets? 4. What can you say about quantitative sociology? 5. What data does the quantitative approach use? 6. What helps to arrive at a better understanding of a human behavior? 7. Is drawing a hard and fast distinction between quantitative and qualitative sociology a bit misleading? 8. The first step in all sciences is the development of a theory and the generation of testable hypotheses, isn't it? 9. Is collection of data the second or the first step? 10. What does the quantitative sociology focus on? 11. Does the qualitative sociology focus on the ideas found within the discourse and rhetoric of the research subjects? 12. What is the goal of both approaches?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

Positivist sociology, respectively, focus groups, a distinction between quantitative and qualitative methodological approaches, a numerical approach, to be aggregated into data sets, to be analyzed using statistics, to discern patterns in human behaviour, analysis of content sources, to opt for depth over breadth, to use in-depth interviews, the data source, to analyze systematically, misleading, the generation of testable hypothesis, to begin with a theoretical idea, to gather data to test that theory, the research subjects, the collection of data, to focus on numerical representations, qualitative sociology, the discourse and rhetoric of the research subjects, to test a theory.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Say what you have learned from the text about:

1. The contrast between positivist sociology and the *verstehen* approach; 2. quantitative sociology; 3. qualitative sociology; 4. the first step in all sciences; 5. the second step.

Exercise 2. Comment upon the following statements: share opinions.

It is a capital mistake to theorize before one has data.

Social researchers draw upon a variety of qualitative and quantitative techniques.

Text 8

Academic Study of Sociology

The scientific method can be applied to the study of sociology. It involves eight basic steps:

- a) Observation of an event that stimulates thinking.
- b) Defining or classifying the terms of events being considered.

- c) Formulating the research issue or hypothesis.
- d) Generating a theory or proposition – a general statement that serves as a potential answer to the research question.
- e) Creating a research design in order to test whether the theory or proposition is valid.
- f) Collecting data – working through the research design to make observations.
- g) Analyzing the data.
- h) Making conclusions and evaluating the theory.

What are the advantages and disadvantages of the survey method, analysis of existing sources, observational study and experimental research in the study of sociology?

A survey is a research method in which a representative sample of a population is asked to respond to questions. In principle every member of the population has an equal chance of being selected so the survey should give an accurate representation of the views of a population. However people may try to answer questions as they think the survey interviewer wants them to bias the results of the research.

Analysis of existing sources is a research technique in which the researcher uses existing documents that were created for some other purpose. This research generally costs much less than the survey, allows access to otherwise unavailable subjects and to data over long periods of time and involves data that is not influenced by the interviewer. Documents used however may be biased toward their original purpose and thus distort the true picture the researcher is trying to find.

In an observational study the researcher actually witnesses social behavior in its natural setting either as a participant or an unobtrusive observer. The advantage of this study is that the research is accomplished by directly observing subjects' behavior thus permitting access to nonverbal as well as verbal behavior.

An experiment is a research design in which the researcher exposes a group of subjects to a treatment and observes its effect usually in comparison to a similar control group that did not receive the treatment. Experiments can demonstrate clearly that a variable has a particular effect on the subject group because the researcher retains maximum control over the circumstances of the research. However experiments are very expensive. Sometimes an aspect of the experiment other than the treatment is the real cause of the experiment's outcome but this goes unnoticed and the artificiality of many experimental settings makes generalizing to natural settings risky.

What are some of the challenges and ethical issues in the study of sociology? Sociology faces the challenge of working with human beings and their social groupings because people have rights that limit what we can do with them while we are studying them. Sociological subjects can give us important information but their information can be distorted. Sociologists must decide whether their own views will influence their research and theory development.

(From www.sociologyguide.com)

Vocabulary list

advantage – перевага
to bias [ˈbaɪəs] the results – впливати на результати
circumstances – обставини
disadvantage – збиток, не вигідне становище
to distort – спотворювати
to evaluate – оцінювати, давати оцінку
event – подія, випадок
in order to – для того, щоб
outcome – результат
to expose to – піддавати чому-небудь
survey [ˈsɜːveɪ] – огляд
treatment – трактування, обробка
unobtrusive [ˌʌnəbˈtruːsɪv] – ненав'язливий
to be valid – бути обґрунтованим
to witness – бути свідком, очевидцем

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the questions about the text.

1. What can the scientific method be applied to? 2. How many basic steps does it involve? 3. What is a survey? 4. Why can the survey give an accurate representation of the views of a population? 5. What is the analysis of existing sources? 6. Is the analysis of existing sources as expensive as the survey? 7. Is data involved for the analysis influenced by an interviewer? 8. Can the true picture the researcher is trying to find in documents be distorted? Why? 9. When can the researcher actually witness social behavior in its natural setting either as a participant or an obtrusive observer? 10. What is the advantage of this study? 11. What is an experiment? 12. Why can experiments demonstrate clearly that a variable has a particular effect on the subject group? 13. Are experiments expensive? 14. What challenge does sociology face?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

To be applied to, to involve, to stimulate thinking, observation of an event, to define, to classify, to consider, the terms of events, to formulate the issue, to generate a theory, a valid proposition, to collect data, to test the theory, to make conclusions, to evaluate, the survey method, a representative sample, accurate, the views of the population, to bias the results of the research, to allow access to, unavailable, toward, thus, to distort, an observational study, nonverbal and verbal behavior, to expose, in comparison to, to retain maximum control over the circumstances, generalizing, challenges, ethical issues, to be distorted.

DEVELOPING LANGUAGE SKILLS

Exercise 1. Translate the following sentences. Use the new terms and expressions.

1. Науковий метод – це отримання нових знань і методів.
2. Науковий метод досліджує феномени, систематизує і коригує нові, а також раніше отримані знання.
3. Експерименти спостереження є базою для отримання нових знань.
4. Вчені висувають гіпотези і будують теорії для пояснення отриманих фактів.
5. Отримані прогнози перевіряються експериментом або збором нових фактів.
6. Вимога об'єктивності є важливою стороною наукового методу.
7. Теорії формуються, розробляються і проявляються у відповідності з науковим методом.

Exercise 2. Ask questions to the highlighted parts of the sentences.

1. **Complex experiments**, however, are possible **in some circumstances**, and the design of complex formal experiments is becoming **a developed art in a variety of fields**, including sociology.
2. **The sociological field of interest ranges** from the analysis of short contacts between anonymous individuals on the street to the study of global social processes.
3. **Most sociologists** work in **one or more specialities or subfields**.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Look through text 8 again, give the main points of each paragraph of the text. Use “ deals with ” + word combinations given below. E. g The first (second, third...) paragraph of the text deals with...

The scientific method; eight basic steps; a survey; a chance of being selected; analysis of existing sources; access to otherwise unavailable subjects; to witness social behavior; the advantage of this study; a research design; a particular effect on; the real cause of the experiment's outcome; working with human beings; sociological subjects.

Exercise 2. Arrange short debates on the following question.

How do people present themselves in everyday life in order to manage the impression they give to others?

Text 9

THE LOGIC OF SCIENCE

As we go about our daily lives, we typically assume that when one event occurs, another event, one that ordinarily follows the first, will do so again. Science makes a

similar assumption—namely, that every event or action results from an antecedent cause. Indeed, a primary objective of science is to decide what causes what. Sociologists assume that crime, racism, social inequality, and marriages do not simply "happen," but that they have causes. Moreover, they assume that under identical conditions, the same cause will always produce the same effect. So sociologists, like other scientists, proceed on the assumption that cause-and-effect relationships prevail in the universe. Otherwise social life would be unintelligible because events would occur in a random or haphazard manner and be utterly unpredictable.

Viewed in a scientific context, truth is not a matter of belief, but of objective reality that can be *empirically* tested – that is, data can be gathered and analyzed by means of careful observation and meticulous measurement. Thus the reality established by science is assumed to be the same for all people regardless of their value judgments regarding it. This scientific reality derives from the way scientists go about testing for linkages among variables. A variable is the term scientists apply to something that they think influences (or is influenced) by something else. It usually occurs in different amounts, degrees, or forms. For example, heat is one variable that causes water to boil; atmospheric pressure is another. The variables sociologists typically study have to do with social conditions, attitudes, and behaviors. In studying political behavior, for example, sociologists commonly examine such variables as differences in race, sex, age, religion, and socioeconomic standing. They also frequently appraise the social climate of the times as it finds expression in such variables as the state of international tensions and the rates of unemployment, interest, and inflation.

In investigating cause-and-effect relationships, scientists distinguish between the independent and the dependent variable. The independent variable is the variable that causes an effect. The dependent variable is the variable that is affected. The causal variable (the independent variable) precedes in time the phenomenon it causes (the dependent variable). For example, as the temperature gets warmer, air can hold more water. The temperature – a measure of heat – is the independent variable and the amount of water suspended in the air is the dependent variable. Similarly, as the socioeconomic level of women (independent variable) increases, the mortality rate of their infants decreases (the dependent variable). In their research, scientists typically attempt to hypothesize the relationship they expect to find between the independent and dependent variables. Such a statement – or hypothesis – is a proposition that can then be tested to determine its validity.

Scientists spend a good deal of their time attempting to figure out how one thing relates to another. They seek to determine the degree of association that exists between an independent and a dependent variable. If the variables are causally related, then they must be correlated with one another. A correlation exists if a change in one variable is associated with a change in the other variable. Since the mortality rate of infants decreases as the socioeconomic level of women increases, the two variables are said to be correlated.

Correlation, however, does not establish causation.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

antecedent [ˌæntɪˈsiːd(ə)nt] – попередній
to appraise [əˈpraɪz] – оцінювати
cause-and-effect relationships – причинно-наслідкові відносини (зв'язки)
to derive from – походити з
haphazard [ˌhæpˈhæzəd] – випадково
inequality [ˌɪnɪˈkwɒləti] – невідповідність; нерівність
infant – немовля, дитя; дитина (до 7 років)
meticulous [mɪˈtɪkjʊləs] – ретельний
moreover – крім того
to precede [ˌpriːsiːd] – передувати
to proceed [ˌpriːsiːd] – продовжувати; відновлювати
the socioeconomic standing – соціоекономічні положення
utterly [ˈʌtəli] – цілком; абсолютно

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Read the text and answer the following questions:

1. What do we typically assume? 2. Science makes a similar assumption, doesn't it?
3. What do sociologists assume? 4. When would social life be utterly unpredictable?
5. Is truth a matter of belief? 6. How can data be gathered and analyzed? 7. Where
does scientific reality derive from? 8. Give a definition of a variable. 9. When do
scientists distinguish between the independent and the dependent variable? 10. What
is an independent variable? 11. What is dependent variable? 12. Why do scientists
typically attempt to hypothesize in their research? 13. What is a hypothesis?
14. When does a correlation exist? 15. Does the correlation establish causation?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

To go about, daily life, to assume, typically, to occur, to make a similar assumption,
to result from an antecedent cause, a primary objective of science, social inequality,
to have causes, under identical conditions, to produce the same effect, to proceed on
the assumption, cause-and effect relationship, to prevail in the Universe, otherwise,
unintelligible, in a random or haphazard manner, to be utterly unpredictable, to view
in a scientific context, a matter of belief, objective reality, careful observation,
meticulous measurement, to establish, regardless of, value judgments, regarding
smth., to derive from, to go about testing for linkages among variables, a variable, to
apply to, to be influenced by, a different amount, to cause smth. to do smth., to do
with, social attitudes, to examine commonly, socioeconomic standing, frequently, to
appraise, the state of international tensions, the rates of unemployment, to distinguish
between the independent and the dependent variable, to be affected, causal variable,
to precede the phenomenon, similarly, the mortality rate, to attempt to hypothesize,
a statement, to test the proposition, to determine the validity, a good deal of, to attempt

to, to figure out, to relate to, to seek to, the degree of association, to establish causation.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Хвалити, визначити дійсність гіпотези, за схожих умов, ступінь зв'язку, асоціації; твердження, перевіряти припущення, підпадати під вплив, подібним чином, застосовувати до, різна кількість, розглядати в науковому контексті, фактор, стан міжнародної напруженості, рівень безробіття, соціальна нерівність, соціальні відносини, вважати, відбуватися, основна мета науки, ретельне спостереження, впливати з попередньої причини, обчислювати, причинно-наслідкові зв'язки, переважати у світі, інакше, у випадковій або довільній манері, питання віри, об'єктивна реальність, встановлювати, незалежно від, щодо чого-небудь, виникати з, шукати, мати справу з, піддавати звичайній перевірці, часто, значна кількість, намагатися, робити подібний висновок, ставитися до, встановити причину.

Exercise 4. Find the corresponding ending of each sentence:

1. Science makes a similar assumption **A.** that can be *empirically* tested.
2. A variable is the term scientists apply to something **B.** that every event or action results from an antecedent cause.
3. A primary objective of science **C.** a change in one variable is associated with a change in the other variable.
4. The same cause will always produce the same effect **D.** under identical conditions.
5. Sociologists proceed on the assumption **E.** between the independent and the dependent variable.
6. Truth is not a matter of belief, but of objective reality **F.** to figure out how one thing relates to another.
7. Scientists typically attempt to hypothesize the relationship **G.** that cause-and-effect relationships prevail in the universe.
8. In investigating cause-and-effect relationships, scientists distinguish **H.** they expect to find between the independent and dependent variables.
9. A correlation exists if **I.** that they think influences (or is influenced) by something else.
10. Scientists spend a good deal of their time attempting **J.** is to decide what causes what.

Exercise 5. Write out and learn the definitions of the following notions from the text:

A variable, a dependent variable, an independent variable, objective reality, correlation.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Points for discussion.

- 1) What is your idea of the logic of science?
- 2) You are a well-known sociologist. What would you tell your audience at the scientific conference?
- 3) Scientists seek to determine the degree of association that exists between an independent and a dependent variable. Do you agree?

Exercise 2. Reproduce the text in your own words.

Revision Exercises on Unit I

Exercise 1. Translate the following sentences into English.

1. Соціологи часто покладаються на кількісні методи соціальних досліджень для характеристики суспільних відносин.
2. Методологія соціальної науки відрізняється від методології природничої науки.
3. Соціологія є галуззю соціальних наук, які використовують методи емпіричного дослідження та критичного аналізу.
4. Суспільство ніколи не залишається незмінним.
5. Соціологія – це прагнення зрозуміти соціальний світ, розташовуючи соціальні явища у відповідному середовищі.
6. Англійський філософ Герберт Спенсер вперше використав термін *соціологія* в середині 19-го століття.
7. Кількісна соціологія використовує, головним чином, цифровий підхід у розумінні поведінки людей.
8. Науковий метод можна використовувати у вивченні соціології.
9. Соціологи припускають, що в ідентичних умовах одна і та ж сама причина завжди має такий самий вплив.
10. Змінна величина – це термін, який вчені застосовують для всіх явищ, на які впливають інші явища.

Exercise 2. Prepare a report on one of the issues of Unit I.

UNIT II. SOCIOLOGICAL ASPECTS AND ISSUES

Text 1

THE SOCIOLOGICAL IMAGINATION

A basic premise underlying sociology is the notion that only by understanding the society in which we live can we gain a fuller insight into ourselves. C. Wright Mills (1959) termed this quality of the discipline the sociological imagination – the ability to see our private experiences and personal difficulties as entwined with the structural arrangements of our society and the historical times in which we live. We usually go about our daily activities bounded by our own narrow orbit. Our viewpoint is limited to our school, job, family, and neighborhood.

The sociological imagination allows us to break out of this contracted vision and discern the relationship between our personal experiences and broader social and historical events.

Mills, an influential but controversial sociologist, pointed out that our personal troubles and public issues "overlap and interpenetrate to form the larger structure of social and historical life." Take, for instance, the job difficulties experienced by the streetcorner men. In 1987, a "relatively good economic year," the civilian unemployment rate was 6 percent (5 percent among whites, 12 percent among blacks, and 8 percent among Hispanics). Of the nation's jobless workers, some three-quarters received no unemployment benefits (5.1 million unemployed workers were without benefits while 1.7 million received benefits). Another 2 to 3 percent of the labor force wanted full-time work but were stuck in part-time jobs. Mills (1959) contended that we cannot look to the "personal character" of individuals to explain their employment problems under these sorts of circumstances:

The very structure of opportunities has collapsed. Both the correct statement of the problem and the range of possible solutions require us to consider the economic and political institutions of the society, and not merely the personal situation and character of a scatter of individuals.

Social and historical forces will also provide the external constraints governing the career opportunities of many students currently enrolled in the nation's colleges and universities. Shifts in the age structure of the population are reshaping the social, economic, and political landscape. The graying of American society is posing particularly thorny problems in the workplace as younger and middle-aged workers jockey for advancement.

A good many people will be lining up for promotions, but there will be fewer slots open than there will be people hoping to fill them.

In sum, the sociological imagination allows us to penetrate our social world and identify the links between our personal biographies and the larger social forces of life – to see that what is happening to us immediately is a minute point at which our personal lives and society intersect.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

advancement [əd'vɑ:nsmənt] – просування вперед (успіх, прогрес)
a basic premise underlying sociology – головна передумова, що лежить в основі соціології
to be stuck in part-time jobs – "застрягти" на неповний робочий день
career opportunity – хороша (сприятлива) нагода для кар'єри
constraint – примус; обмеження; скованість
controversial [ˌkɒntɹə'veɜ:(ə)] – дискусійний; суперечливий
to discern [dɪ'sɜ:n] – розгледіти; розуміти; розрізнити
to enroll [ɪn'raʊl] – реєструвати, вносити до списку
entwined with [ɪn'twaɪnd] – переплетений з
to gain an insight – набувати здатності проникнення в суть
to go about – займатися
imagination – уява
to intersect – перетинати (ся)
to jockey for something – домагатися чого-н. шляхом махінацій
labor force – робоча сила
to pose – викладати, формулювати
streetcorner men – роззяви; гультяї
to reshape – надавати іншу форму
thorny (перен.) ['θɔ:ni] – небезпечний, делікатний
unemployment benefit – допомога у зв'язку з безробіттям
unemployment rate – рівень безробіття

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What is a basic premise underlying sociology? 2. How did C. Wright Mills term the sociological imagination? 3. What is our viewpoint limited to? 4. What does the sociological imagination allow us to do? 5. Why is the year 1987 called "a relatively good economic year"? 6. What will social and historical forces also provide? 7. What is reshaping the social, economic and political landscape? 8. What is posing particularly thorny problems in the workplace? 9. What will a good many people be doing?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

A basic premise underlying sociology, the notion, to understand the society, to gain a fuller insight into ourselves, to term, the quality of the discipline, the ability to see, private experiences, personal difficulties, to entwine with, arrangements, to go about daily activities, to be bounded by, viewpoint, to be limited to, neighborhood, to break out of, contracted vision, to discern the relationship, historical events, influential, controversial, to point out, public issues, to overlap, to interpenetrate, to form, for instance, streetcorner men, relatively, the civilian unemployment rate, jobless

workers, to receive unemployment benefits, labor force, full-time work, to contend, under the circumstances, to collapse, the correct statement of the problem, the range of solutions, to consider, merely, a scatter of individuals, to provide the external constraints, to govern the career opportunities, shifts, to reshape, the graying of a society, to pose thorny problems, particularly, to jockey for advancement, a good many people, to line up for, fewer slots open, in sum, to penetrate social world, to identify the links, immediately, to intersect.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Поняття, більш глибоко розбиратися в собі, особистий досвід, домовленості, займатися повсякденною діяльністю, точка зору, вирватися з, обмежене бачення, суперечливий, вказувати на, громадські питання, взаємопроникати, рівень безробіття серед цивільних осіб, наприклад, робоча сила, за таких обставин, руйнуватися, служити зовнішнім стримуючим фактором, зміни, старіння суспільства, особливо, значна кількість людей, менше відкритих вакансій, підсумовуючи, визначати зв'язки, перетинатися.

Exercise 4. Define the following key terms and memorize the definitions:

Sociological imagination, external constraints, identify the links between our personal biographies and the larger social forces.

Exercise 5. Make up a situation round the following words and word combinations.

To go about daily activities, to break out of, to form, to contend, to consider, to line up for, to penetrate, to intersect.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Look through text 1 again. Give the main points of each paragraph of the text. Use “deals with” + word-combinations given below.

e. g. The first (second, third ...) paragraph of the text deals with...

a basic premise underlying sociology; our personal troubles; the external constraints governing the career opportunities; the sociological imagination.

Text 2

PERSPECTIVES IN SOCIOLOGY

Thus far we have considered culture and social structure. We have looked at a number of the crucial building blocks – norms, values, symbols, and language – that provide the foundations of culture. In a similar manner, we have examined the components of social structure—statuses, roles, groups, institutions, and society. The discussion has been largely descriptive. But how are we to bind together such a great

mass of material—facts and concepts—so that we can grasp and comprehend them all at once? How are we to see relationships among the concepts and uncover implications that are not evident in isolated pieces of data? How are we to organize our search for knowledge regarding the many different, and often puzzling, aspects of human behavior? Clearly we need some sort of tool. A theoretical perspective provides such a tool. A **theoretical perspective** is a general approach to phenomena that affords a set of assumptions and interrelated concepts for depicting the world.

Through the years, sociology has come to be characterized by a number of theoretical perspectives. The adherents of each perspective ask somewhat different questions about society and provide different views of social life. We do not need to accept only one model and reject all the others; rather, theoretical perspectives are tools—mental constructs — that allow us to visualize something. Any model necessarily limits our experience and presents a tunnel image. But a good model also increases the horizon of what we can see, serving like a pair of binoculars. It provides rules of inference through which new relationships can be discovered and suggestions about how the scope of a theory can be expanded. Within contemporary sociology there are three major perspectives: the functionalist, the conflict, and the symbolic interactionist.

For now, let us briefly examine each in turn.

The Functionalist perspective. The structural-functional—or, more simply, functionalist—perspective draws substantially upon the ideas of Auguste Comte, Herbert Spencer, and Emile Durkheim. Its theorists take a broad view of society and focus on the macro aspects of social life. In the 1950s and early 1960s, the functionalist theories of Talcott Parsons and his students occupied center stage in American sociology. Indeed, some proponents such as Kingsley Davis argued that the approach was, for all intents and purposes, synonymous with sociology.

The Social System. Functionalists take as their starting point the notion that society is a system. A system is a set of elements or components that are related to each other in a more or less stable fashion through a period of time. Hence functionalists focus on the parts of society, particularly its major institutions, such as the family, religion, the economy, the state, and education. They identify the structural characteristics of the institutions much as biologists describe the principal features of the body's organs. They then appraise the functions of the institutions. For instance, as we noted earlier the family is said to have as its chief focus the reproduction, socialization, and maintenance of children.

One of the features of a system stressed by functionalists is its tendency toward *equilibrium*, or balance, among its parts and among the forces operating on it. Hence change in one institution has implications for other institutions and for the community or society as a whole. For instance, as women have been drawn into the wage economy, they have tended to postpone marriage and have fewer children. In turn, the schools have seen enrollments fall and authorities have often had to close school buildings. Some institutions may also change more rapidly than others, contributing to social dislocations. As increasing numbers of mothers with preschool children enter the paid labor force, new arrangements are required to take care of the children during the day. Yet licensed day-care facilities are currently available for

fewer than one out of six of the children with working mothers. So many children, especially those from low-income homes, are currently receiving inadequate care.

Functions and Disfunctions. Within system analysis, functionalists pay particular attention to the functions performed by system's parts, especially its institutions, roles, cultural patterns, social norms, and groups. Functions are the observed consequences that permit the adaptation or adjustment of a system. Functionalists say that if a system is to survive, certain essential tasks must be performed; should these tasks go unperformed, the system fails to maintain itself—it perishes. If society is to exist, let alone flourish, its members must make provision for certain functional requirements. Institutions are the principal structures whereby these critical tasks for social living are organized, directed, and executed. Each institution is built around a standardized solution to a set of problems. Robert K. Merton (1968) points out that just as institutions and the other parts of society can contribute to the maintenance of the social system, they can also have negative consequences. Those observed consequences that lessen the adaptation or adjustment of a system he terms disfunctions. Take poverty. As shown by sociologist Herbert J. Gans, poverty has both functional and dysfunctional properties. In conducting his analysis, Gans was serving neither as an apologist nor as a critic of poverty. Rather, he sought to identify the part poverty plays within American life. In terms of its functions, the existence of poverty ensures that the nation's "dirty work" is done – those jobs that are physically dirty, dangerous, temporary, dead-end, poorly paid, and menial. Poverty also creates jobs for those who serve the poor or who "shield" the rest of the population from them – police, social workers, numbers runners, Pentecostal ministers, loan sharks, and drug pushers. Of course, large numbers of poor people may be simultaneously dysfunctional for society. Poverty intensifies a variety of social problems, including those associated with health, education, crime, and drug addiction. And the victims of poverty often experience a sense of alienation from society and as a consequence withhold their loyalty from the system.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

adherent [əd'hi(ə)rənt] – послідовник, прихильник
alienation [ˌeɪlɪə'neɪʃ(ə)n] – відчуження
binocular [bɪ'nɒkjʊlə] – бінокулярний
to comprehend [ˌkɒmpri'hend] – розуміти, осягнути
crucial ['kru:ʃ(ə)l] – вирішальний
descriptive – наочний, описовий
drug addiction – схильність до наркотиків
enrolment – внесення до списку
to flourish [ˈflʌrɪʃ] – процвітати
to grasp – зрозуміти, охопити розумом
inference [ˈɪnf(ə)rəns] – висновок, припущення
intent – зосереджений
lessen – зменшувати; недооцінювати

menial [ˈmiːniəl] – низький, улесливий
 pentecostal – п'ятидесятницький
 to perish – зникнути
 to postpone – відкласти
 proponent [prəˈpɒnənt] – людина, що вносить пропозицію або висуває теорію; прихильник, захисник, поборник
 poverty [ˈpɒvəti] – бідність, злидні
 to seek (sought) – розшукувати; домагатися
 to uncover – виявляти, розкривати
 to withhold [wiðˈhəʊld] – відмовляти (у чому-небудь); утримуватися (від чого-небудь)

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Ask questions to the text. Let your classmates answer them.

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

To consider the culture and social structure, crucial building blocks, in a similar manner, largely descriptive, a theoretical perspective, a general approach, a set of assumptions, interrelated concepts, mental constructs, a tunnel image, the scope of a theory, to take a broad view of society, proponents, major institutions, to have as its chief focus the reproduction, socialization, and maintenance of children; to contribute to social dislocations, to be currently available, to receive inadequate care, the adaptation or adjustment of a system, to perish, to flourish, to point out, to have negative consequences, dysfunctional properties, to intensify a variety of social problems, a sense of alienation, to withhold loyalty from the system.

Exercise 3. Refresh your knowledge and do the Weber quiz.

1. What, according to Weber, is the likely basis for a 'community' in modern societies?
 - Class
 - Idol
 - Status
2. What, for Weber, is the form of social action which is dominant in modern societies?
 - Emotional
 - Instrumental-rational
 - Value-rational
 - Traditional
3. What, for Weber, is the relationship between the sociologist and 'social actors'?
 - Emotional

- Empathy
 - Power
2. Which of the following terms best describes Weber approach to social analysis?
 - Methodological Scientism
 - Methodological Individualism
 - Holism
 3. Who, for Weber, is the prophet of capitalism?
 - Karl Marx
 - John Calvin
 - Benjamin Franklin
 4. Which of the following terms does Weber use to describe the structure of modern societies?
 - Tough Grid
 - Iron Cage
 - Thick Veil
 5. What, for Weber, is the basis of obedience to the state in modern societies?
 - Charisma
 - Traditional
 - Rational-legal
 6. What, for Weber, is the type of social action responsible for World Religions?
 - Emotional
 - Traditional
 - Value-rational
 - Instrumental-rational
 7. What is the name of the German philosopher, who influenced Weber's approach to sociological analysis?
 - Dilthey
 - Hegel
 - Marx

(From www.glenco.com/qe)

DEVELOPING LANGUAGE SKILLS

Exercise 1. Translate the following sentences.

1. Соціологічна перспектива пропонує знайти новий підхід до вивчення аспектів соціального середовища.
2. Осягаючи приховану структуру зовнішнього світу, ми зустрічаємося з новими рівнями реальності.
3. Соціологічна перспектива дозволяє усвідомити суспільству приховані від нього аспекти людського життя, вчить бачити і правильно інтерпретувати соціальний "пейзаж".

4. Соціологічна уява – здатність розглядати власний життєвий досвід та особисті труднощі в контексті структурної організації свого суспільства і тієї історичної епохи, в якій ми живемо.
5. Кожна людина може правильно оцінити себе тільки порівнянно з іншими.
6. Зрозуміти це і пов'язати свою біографію з історією – ознака класичного соціологічного аналізу, який ми зустрічаємо у О. Конта, Г. Спенсера, Е. Дюркгейма, К. Маннгейма, Ш. Шумпетера, М. Вебера та ін.
7. У цілому можна сказати, що соціологічна уява дозволяє проникнути в наш соціальний світ та ідентифікувати зв'язки між нашими приватними біографіями і більш потужними соціальними силами життя.

Exercise 2. Join the two jumbled parts of the sentences.

1. A theoretical perspective is a general approach	a. to phenomena that affords a set of assumptions and interrelated concepts for depicting the world.
2. The scientific method	b. is the original and still dominant discipline of thought in the social sciences.
3. Scientific and quantitative approaches	c. considers society as an objectively observable and "real" entity that is suitable for methods and philosophies that guide examination and study of the physical world.
4. The analogical approach	d. attempt to identify the conditions which cause disequilibrium, and the mechanisms by which equilibrium is restored.
5. Religion	e. is an individual entity that contributes to the existence of society, but which is also affected by the society.
6. Functionalism	f. use "systems theory", as developed by Talcott Parsons during the 1950s and 1960s, at the time when systems theory was becoming popular in the biological and computer sciences.
7. Sociologists	g. were furthered by Emile Durkheim.
8. Some functionalists	h. involves viewing society as a real entity.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Speak on the following topics.

- 1) Do you agree that theoretical perspective is a general approach to phenomena that afford a set of assumptions and interrelated concepts for depicting the world?
- 2) A system is a set of elements or components. What do you think about it?

- 3) Poverty intensifies a variety of social problems, including those associated with health, education, crime and drug addiction.

Text 3 KARL MARX

Although Karl Marx (1818-1883) considered himself a political activist and not a sociologist, in truth he was both—and a philosopher, historian, economist, and political scientist as well. He viewed science not only as a vehicle for understanding society but also as a tool for transforming it. Marx was especially anxious to change the structure of capitalist institutions and to establish new institutions in the service of humanity.

Born in Germany, Marx was compelled to spend much of his adult life as a political exile in London. Through the years his theories have come to be accepted by millions of people. Today governments claiming to be run on Marxist principles rule more than a third of the world's population. It should be stressed, however, that Marxism is not synonymous with modern-day communist movements or states. Marx anticipated a more humane society and saw his task as fostering an objective understanding of institutional life that could be used to bring about social change.

Marx has influenced sociological thinking both by his penetrating insights and by the fact that some sociologists have constructed their work specifically *against* his theory. Prior to the 1960s, most American theorists dismissed Marx as an ideologue whose partisan sympathies barred him from producing serious scientific work. But as young American sociologists were drawn into the civil rights and antiwar movements of the 1960s and early 1970s, they began to give serious attention to Marx's ideas. In the intervening two decades, American sociologists have come to accord Marx his rightful place among the giants of sociological thought.

Marx tried to discover the basic principles of history. He focused his search on the economic environments in which societies develop, particularly the current state of their technology and their method of organizing production (such as hunting and gathering, agriculture, or industry). At each stage of history, these factors dictate the group that will dominate society and the groups that will be subjugated. He believed that society is divided into those who own the means of producing wealth and those who do not, which gives rise to class conflict. All history, he said, is composed of struggles between classes. In ancient Rome, it was a conflict between patricians and plebeians and between masters and slaves. In the Middle Ages, it was a struggle between guildmasters and journeymen and between lords and serfs. And in contemporary Western societies that sprouted from the ruins of the feudal order, class antagonisms revolve about the struggle between the oppressing capitalist class or bourgeoisie and the oppressed working class or proletariat. The former derive their income through their ownership of the means of production, primarily factories, which allows them to exploit the labor of workers. The latter own nothing except their labor power and, because they are dependent for a living on the jobs provided by capitalists, must sell their labor power in order to exist.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

to accord smb. place – надавати кому-небудь місце
to anticipate – передбачати, очікувати
to be anxious [ˈæŋkɪʃəs] – прагнути
to bar from – утримувати від (чого-небудь)
to claim – вимагати
to be compelled – змусити кого-небудь
to dismiss – відкидати
to foster – сприяти розвитку
gathering – збирання (хліба, сіна)
guildmaster – господар, власник
in the service of humanity – на службі людства
journeyman – ремісник
oppressing – пригнічуючи
to own – володіти
partisan sympathy – фанатична симпатія
to penetrate – проникати (всередину); розуміти
political exile [ˈeksail] – політичне заслання (вигнання)
serf – кріпак
a slave – раб
to sprout from – народжуватися з
struggle – боротьба
to subjugate [ˈsʌbdʒʊgeɪt] – поневолювати, підпорядковувати
tool – інструмент (засіб)
vehicle [ˈvi:ɪk(ə)l] – засіб

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions:

1. What was K. Marx? 2. How did Marx view science? 3. What was he anxious to establish? 4. What happened to Marx's theories through the years? 5. What should be stressed? 6. What society did Marx anticipate? 7. Has Marx influenced sociological thinking? 8. Some sociologists have constructed their work specifically *against* his theory, haven't they? 9. Why did most American theorists dismiss Marx as an ideologue? 10. When did American sociologists begin to give serious attention to Marx's works? 11. Have American sociologists come to accord Marx his rightful place among the giants of sociological or philosophical thought? 12. What basic principles did Marx discover? 13. Marx focused his search on the economic environments in which societies develop, didn't he? 14. What is society divided into, according to Marx? 15. What is history composed of?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

Although, to consider oneself, in truth, as well, to view science as, a vehicle, to be anxious to do something, to establish, in the service of humanity, to be compelled to do smth., through the years, have come to be accepted, to claim, to run on principles, to rule, it should be stressed, however, indeed, it is quite likely, to anticipate, to foster an objective understanding of institutional life, to bring about social change, to construct one's work against someone's theory, specifically, to dismiss smb., to bar somebody from, to be drawn into the civil rights and antiwar movements, in the intervening decades, to accord smb. rightful place, to discover the basic principles of history, to focus search on, the current state of technology, to dictate, to dominate society, wealth, to give rise to, to be composed of, contemporary, to sprout from, to revolve, the former... the latter, to derive income, ownership, the means of production, provided by, to sell labor power, in order to, to exist.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Хоча, розглядати науку як, бути вимушеним робити що-небудь, через роки, заявляти, слід зазначити, передбачати, завдавати соціальних змін, захищати кого-небудь від, в наступні десятиліття, надати гідне місце, сфокусувати дослідження на, багатство, сучасний, отримувати дохід, засоби виробництва; для того, щоб.

Exercise 4. Find the corresponding ending of each sentence.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. He viewed science not only as a vehicle for understanding society | A. except their labor power. |
| 2. Marx has influenced sociological thinking both by his penetrating insights | B. in which societies develop. |
| 3. Prior to the 1960s, most American theorists dismissed Marx | C. and by the fact that some sociologists have constructed their work specifically <i>against</i> his theory. |
| 4. He focused his search on the economic environments | D. through their ownership of the means of production. |
| 5. The former derive their income | E. as an ideologue whose partisan sympathies barred him from producing serious scientific work. |
| 6. The latter own nothing | F. but also as a tool for transforming it. |

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Make the written analysis of the text, present it to your classmates.

Exercise 2. Reproduce the text in your own words.

Text 4

EMILE DURKHEIM

Whereas Marx saw society as a stage upon which classes with conflicting interests contested with one another, the French sociologist Emile Durkheim (1858-1916) focused his sociological eye on the question of how societies hold together and endure. The principal objection Durkheim had to Marx's work was that Marx attributed too much importance to economic factors and class struggle and not enough to social solidarity. Central to Durkheim's sociology is the notion that social integration is necessary for the maintenance of the social order and for the happiness of individuals. In particular, he suggested that happiness depends on individuals finding a sense of meaning outside themselves that occurs within the context of group involvement.

Durkheim sought to demonstrate that the destruction of social bonds has negative consequences, and under some circumstances can lead individuals to commit suicide.

Social facts are aspects of social life that cannot be explained in terms of the biological or mental characteristics of the individual. People experience the social fact as external to themselves in the sense that it has an independent reality and forms a part of their objective environment. As such, the social fact serves to *constrain* their behavior. Illustrations include social rules, maxims of public morality, patterns of family living, and religious observances.

Viewed in this manner, the social fact takes on the qualities of a "thing," a reality in its own right that is independent of its manifestation in particular individuals. Since the social fact is real and external, like the physical and biological aspects of the human environment, it has implications for individuals and their behavior. The hallmark of this independent reality is the resistance it poses to our inclinations and the counter-pressure it places on our actions. Durkheim insisted that the explanation of social life must be sought in society itself. Society, he said, is more than the sum of its parts; it is a system formed by the association of individuals that comes to constitute a reality, with its own distinctive characteristics.

Durkheim used statistical techniques for studying human populations. In doing so, he was the first major sociologist to face up to the complex problems associated with the disciplined and rigorous study of social life.

In his study of suicide, Durkheim used population data gained from government records statistically to refute theories that explained suicide in terms of climatic, geographic, biological, or psychological factors. As an alternative, he proposed that suicide is a social fact—a product of the meanings, expectations, and structural arrangements that evolve as people interact with one another. As such, suicide is explainable by social factors. Durkheim investigated suicide rates among various groups of Europeans and found that some groups had higher rates than others. Protestants had higher rates than did Catholics; the unmarried, higher rates than the married; and soldiers, higher rates than civilians. Moreover, suicide rates were higher in times of peace than in times of war and revolution, and higher in times of economic prosperity and recession than in times of economic stability. On the basis

of these findings, he concluded that different suicide rates (as distinct from the individual case, which is a matter for psychology) are the consequence of variations in social solidarity. Individuals who are enmeshed in a web of social bonds are less inclined to suicide than individuals who are weakly integrated into group life.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

arrangement [ə'reɪndʒmənt] – систематизація; розстановка
to attribute – відносити (до чого-небудь), пояснювати (чим-небудь)
to conclude – укладати; завершувати
consequence [ˈkɒnsɪkwəns] – наслідок, результат
to constrain – змушувати
to contest – оскаржувати, сперечатися
counter-pressure – протитиск
destruction – руйнування
endure [ɪn'dʒʊə] – витерпіти, витримати
to be enmeshed – заплутатися
hallmark – ознака, критерій
happiness – успіх
implication – залучення; прихований сенс
inclination – потяг, схильність
to be inclined to – бути схильним до
an independent reality – незалежна дійсність
to insist – наполегливо стверджувати; наполягати
maxim – правило поведінки, принцип
objection – неприязнь; протест
to pose – викладати, формулювати
prosperity – процвітання, досягнення успіху
rate – відсоток, коефіцієнт; частота
recession [rɪ'seʃ(ə)n] – відступ, спад
to refute [rɪ'fju:t] – спростовувати, доводити неспроможність
rigorous [ˈrɪɡərəs] – точний, ретельний
to seek (sought; sought) – шукати; прагнути до чого-небудь
web – мережа, сплетіння

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What was the principal objection Durkheim had to Marx's work?
2. What notion is central to Durkheim's sociology?
3. What did Durkheim seek to demonstrate?
4. How do people experience the social fact?
5. Does the social fact serve to constrain the behavior of people?
6. Is a reality in its own right independent of its manifestation in particular individuals?
7. What has implications for individuals and their behavior?
8. What is the hallmark of this independent reality?
9. What explanation did

Durkheim insist on? 10. How did Durkheim characterize society? 11. What did he use statistical techniques for? 12. What problems did Durkheim face up to? 13. Why did he use population data gained from government records? 14. Is suicide explainable by social factors? 15. Which groups had higher suicide rates? 16. When were suicide rates higher? 17. What did Durkheim conclude on the basis of his findings?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

Conflicting interests, to contest with each other, to focus on, to endure, the principal objection, to attribute to smth., a notion, the maintenance of the social order, in particular, to depend on, a sense of meaning, to occur within group involvement, to seek, social bonds, to have negative consequences, to lead to, in terms, mental characteristics, objective environment, to constrain behaviour, maxims of public morality, patterns, religious observances, to take on smth., external fact, the hallmark, to pose to, to constitute a reality, distinctive characteristics, to use statistical techniques, to face up to complex problems, disciplined and rigorous study, data gained from, government records, to refute theories, structural arrangements, to interact with, to investigate, civilians, economic prosperity and recession, economic stability, a matter for psychology, the consequence of variations, to be enmeshed in a web of social bonds, to be weakly integrated into group life.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Конфліктуючі інтереси, сфокусуватися на, виживати, поняття, підтримування соціального порядку, залежати від, в межах, шукати, соціальні зв'язки, приводити до, об'єктивне середовище, суспільні правила поведінки, зовнішній факт, відмінні характеристики, використовувати статистичні методи, зіткнутися зі складними проблемами, урядові джерела, спростовувати теорії, економічне процвітання і спад, питання для психологічного вивчення, бути слабо залученим в життя групи.

Exercise 4. Disagree with the statements avoiding a simple negation.

- 1) Emile Durkheim is a German sociologist.
- 2) Marx attributed too much importance to social solidarity.
- 3) The social fact doesn't serve to constrain people's behavior.
- 4) Durkheim insisted that the explanation of social life mustn't be sought in society itself.
- 5) Durkheim used dialectic techniques for studying human populations.
- 6) He was the second major sociologist to face up to the complex problems associated with the disciplined and rigorous study of social life.
- 7) Durkheim proposed that suicide is a political fact.
- 8) He investigated suicide rates among various groups of Americans.
- 9) Suicide rates were higher in times of war and revolutions than in times of peace.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Speak about some circumstances that can lead individuals to commit suicide. What is your opinion on the topic?

Text 5 MAX WEBER

Max Weber has had a great impact on sociology. Among sociologists he is known not only for his theoretical contributions but for a number of specific ideas that in their own right have generated considerable interest and research.

His sociological work covered a wide range of topics, including politics, bureaucracies, social stratification, law, religion, capitalism, music, the city, and cross-cultural comparison.

Weber believed that sociologists can derive an *understanding* of their subject matter in a manner that is unavailable to chemists and physicists. In investigating human behavior, sociologists are not limited to such objective criteria as weight and temperature; they can examine the "meanings" individuals bring to their interactions with one another. Consequently, Weber contended that a critical aspect of the sociological enterprise is the study of the intentions, values, beliefs, and attitudes that underlie people's behavior. Weber employed the German word *Verstehen*—meaning "understanding" or "insight" — in describing this approach for learning about the subjective meanings people attach to their actions. In using this method, sociologists mentally attempt to place themselves in the shoes of other people and identify what they think and how they feel. Whereas Durkheim argued that sociologists should direct their investigations primarily to social facts that lie beyond the individual, Weber thought it is also essential that sociologists examine the definitions people use in shaping their behavior.

Another notable sociological contribution made by Weber is his concept of the ideal type. An **ideal type** is a concept constructed by a sociologist to portray the principal characteristics of a phenomenon. The term has nothing to do with evaluations of any sort. Rather, it is a tool that allows sociologists to generalize and simplify data by ignoring minor differences in order to accentuate major similarities.

In his writings, Weber stressed the importance of a **value-free sociology**. He insisted that sociologists must not allow their personal biases to affect the conduct of their scientific research. Weber recognized that sociologists, like everyone else, have individual biases and moral convictions regarding behavior. But he insisted that sociologists must cultivate a disciplined approach to the phenomena they study so that they may see facts as they are, and not as they might wish them to be. By the same token, Weber recognized that objectivity is not neutrality. *Neutrality* implies that a person does not take sides on an issue; *objectivity* has to do with the pursuit of scientifically verifiable knowledge. Weber saw a role for values in certain specific aspects of the research process — namely, in selecting a topic for study and in determining the uses to which the knowledge is put. Clearly, data do not speak for themselves; they must be interpreted by scientists. For his part, Weber was led to study bureaucracy because it was an important part of the Germany in which he lived.

Moreover, Weber was not afraid to express a value judgment or to tackle important issues of the day.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

to accentuate [ək'sentʃueɪt] – підкреслювати, виділяти
approach – підхід
to attach to – приписувати
belief – довіра; переконання
to bias [ˈbiəɪs] – n. упереджене ставлення; перевага
v. мати поганий вплив на когось; вселяти упередження
to bring to – довести до (чого-небудь)
bureaucracy [ˌbjʊ(ə)'rɒkɪrəsi] – бюрократія
by ignoring – не звертаючи уваги
by the same token – до того ж; зайвий доказ того, що
conduct [ˈkɒndʌkt] – поведінка; керування
to contend – сперечатися; наполягати, стверджувати
conviction – переконання, переконаність
cross-cultural comparison – порівняння протилежних культур
to derive – отримувати, витягувати
in a manner – способом
intention – намір, мета
to lie beyond – перебувати поза
notable – чудовий, видатний
to portray – описувати, зображати
pursuit [pə'sju:t] – прагнення; пошуки
stratification – стратифікація; розшарування
to tackle – енергійно братися (за що-небудь); займатися (чим-небудь)
to underlie – лежати в основі (чого-небудь)
value-free sociology – соціологія, вільна від оціночних суджень

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions about the text.

1. What impact has Max Weber had?
2. What is he known for among sociologists?
3. What topics did his sociological work cover?
4. What did Max Weber believe?
5. What can sociologists examine in their work?
6. What is a critical aspect of the sociological enterprise, according to Weber?
7. What did Weber employ in describing his approach for learning?
8. Do sociologists mentally attempt to place themselves in the shoes of other people?
9. What is different in Durkheim's and Weber's approaches to sociologists' investigations?
10. What was another notable sociological contribution made by Weber?
11. Ideal type allows sociologists to generalize and simplify data by ignoring minor differences in order to accentuate major similarities, doesn't it?
12. What did Weber stress in his writings?
13. He insisted that sociologists must cultivate a disciplined approach to the phenomena they study, didn't he? Why?

14. What is the difference between objectivity and neutrality, according to Weber?
15. Do data speak for themselves?
16. Why was Weber led to study bureaucracy?
17. Was Weber afraid to express a value judgment or to tackle important issues of the day?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

To have a great impact on, to be known for, contribution, a number of ideas, to generate considerable interest and research, to cover a wide range of topics, social stratification, to derive an understanding of the subject, to be limited to criteria, interactions, to underlie, an approach for learning, to direct investigations primarily to, a notable contribution, to construct a concept, to portray the principal characteristics of a phenomenon, rather, to generalize and simplify data, to accentuate major similarities, to stress the importance, personal biases, value-free sociology, moral convictions, to cultivate a disciplined approach to the phenomena, to take sides on an issue, the pursuit of scientifically verifiable knowledge, to select a topic for study, to determine, to speak for oneself, to express a value judgment, to tackle important issues of the day.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Торкатися злободенних проблем, висловлювати цінне судження, приймати сторону в суперечці (з даного питання), особисті переваги, соціальна стратифікація, створити концепцію, викликати значний інтерес до досліджень, значний внесок, охоплювати широкий перелік питань, соціологія, вільна від оціночних суджень; внесок, взаємодії, мати величезний вплив на, моральні переконання, визначати, говорити за себе.

Exercise 4. Agree or disagree with the following statements.

- 1) Weber didn't believe that sociologists can derive an understanding of their subject matter in a manner that is unavailable to chemists and physicists.
- 2) Weber employed the Italian word *Verstehen* in describing this approach for learning about the subjective meanings people attach to their actions.
- 3) Weber thought it is unimportant that sociologists examine the definitions people use in shaping their behavior.
- 4) An ideal type is a concept constructed by a psychologist to portray the principal characteristics of a phenomenon.
- 5) Weber insisted that sociologists must allow their personal biases to affect the conduct of their scientific research.
- 6) Weber was afraid to express a value judgment or to tackle important issues of the day.

Exercise 5. Supply the missing words or word-combinations among those given below:

value-free; covered a wide range; unavailable to; human behavior; to place themselves in the shoes of other people; to express a value judgment; had a great impact on; principal; recognized; speak for themselves.

1. Max Weber has sociology.
2. His sociological..... work of topics.
3. Weber believed that sociologists can derive an understanding of their subject matter in a manner that ischemists and physicists.
4. In investigating, sociologists are not limited to such objective criteria as weight and temperature
5. Sociologists mentally attempt and identify what they think and how they feel.
6. An ideal type is a concept constructed by a sociologist to portray the..... characteristics of a phenomenon.
7. Weber stressed the importance of asociology.
8. Weberthat objectivity is not neutrality
9. Data do not.....; they must be interpreted by scientists.
10. Moreover, Weber was not afraid or to tackle important issues of the day.

Exercise 6. Find in the text, write out and learn the following definitions:

An ideal type, value-free sociology, objectivity, neutrality.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Make up a short oral summary of the text. Use reference literature. Present your summary in class.

Text 6 AMERICAN SOCIOLOGY

The sociologists we have considered have been of European origin. Were sociologists to establish a sociological Hall of Fame, Comte, Martineau, Spencer, Marx, Durkheim, and Weber would unquestionably be among its first inductees. Yet as sociology entered the twentieth century, Americans assumed a critical role in its development. In the period preceding World War I, an array of factors provided a favorable climate for sociology in the United States. As in Europe, the Industrial Revolution and urbanization gave a major impetus to sociological study. An added factor was the massive immigration of foreigners to the United States and the problems their absorption and assimilation posed for American life.

Further, both sociology and the modern university system arose together. In Europe, by contrast, sociology had a more difficult time becoming established because it had to break into an established system of academic disciplines.

A number of individuals like Lester F. Ward (1841–1913) played an important part in the development of sociology in the United States. Ward was influenced by Spencer's ideas, but unlike Spencer he was an advocate of social reform. He thought that sociologists should identify the basic laws that underlie social life, and then use this knowledge to improve human society. However, contributions of more lasting significance to sociology were made by sociologists at the University of Chicago, where the first department of sociology in the United States was established in 1893. Until 1940, Chicago sociologists dominated the discipline, as did the study of Chicago itself. Chicago was viewed as a "social laboratory," and it was subjected to intense and systematic study. Included in this research were investigations of juvenile gangs, immigrant ghettos, wealthy Gold Coast and slum life, prostitution, and mental disorders.

During the 1940s and until the mid-1960s, sociologists at Columbia, Harvard, and the University of California at Berkeley took the lead and established the major directions for sociological research and theory. Paul L. Lazarsfeld and his colleagues crafted techniques for surveying public attitudes, while Talcott Parsons, Robert K. Merton, and Kingsley Davis refined models that portrayed society as a system made up of parts with interrelated functions. The leaders of American sociology insisted that the discipline should remain out-side social problems and concern itself strictly with the enlargement of sociological knowledge.

The social turmoil of the 1960s and early 1970s brought to sociology many students who were student power, civil right, and peace activists. These "new breed" sociologists contended that the doctrine of sociological neutrality was a cloak concealing moral insensitivity – a crass disregard for such things as the suffering of the poor and minorities, the destructiveness of war, and the high social costs of crime. These sociologists broke with established sociological theory and sought new directions in theory and research. Thus sociology today is a much more diverse, and many would say richer, discipline than it was a few decades ago.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

advocate – п. захисник; прихильник (поглядів)
to arise (arose; arisen) – виникати, з'являтися
an array – маса, безліч
to assume – брати на себе
to break into – вриватися до
to break with – розривати (стосунки) з
to craft – пристосувати
enlargement – розширення, збільшення
inductee – *тут.* послідовник
intense – значний; інтенсивний
to insist – наполегливо стверджувати
juvenile gang [ˈdʒu:vənailgæŋ] – підліткова банда
a major impetus – основний стимул (поштовх)

"New breed" – "нове покоління"
to pose – викладати, формулювати
to refine models – удосконалити моделі
slum life – життя в нетрях
to subject to – піддавати чому-небудь
surveying – огляд
turmoil [ˈtɜːməɪl] – безлад; метушня
to underlie – лежати в основі

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. When did American sociologists assume a critical role in the development of sociology? 2. What was an added factor? 3. Who played an important part in the development of sociology in the United States? 4. Whose ideas was Lester F. Ward influenced by? 5. What did he think about the role of sociologists? 6. Where were contributions to sociology made by sociologists? 7. When was the first department of sociology in the United States established? 8. How was Chicago viewed? 9. What was included in the research? 10. When did sociologists at Columbia, Harvard and the University of California take the lead and establish the major directions for sociological research and theory? 11. What did the leaders of American sociology insist on? 12. Why did "new breed" appear?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

To consider, to be of European origin, to establish a Hall of Fame, unquestionably, inductees, to enter the century, to assume a critical role, preceding, an array of factors, to provide a favorable climate for sociology, to give a major impetus to, an added factor, absorption and assimilation, to pose for, unlike, to be an advocate of social reforms, to underlie social life, to identify the basic laws, to improve human society, to dominate the discipline, to be subjected to intense and systematic study, mental disorders, slum life, the mid-1960s, to establish the major directions for sociological research and theory, to refine models, to insist on, to concern oneself strictly with the enlargement of sociological knowledge, the social turmoil, "new breed" sociologists, to conceal moral insensitivity, a crass disregard for, the destructiveness of war, diverse, decades.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Займати домінуюче місце в дисципліні, що передує, десятиліття, на відміну, руйнівність війни, безсумнівно, дати головний поштовх, наполягати на, перелік факторів, захищати соціальні реформи, соціальний переворот, визначити основні закони, поліпшити людське суспільство, приховувати моральну байдужість, виділити моделі, різноманітний.

Exercise 4. Fill in the gaps with the following prepositions. Reread the text if necessary.

Among, for, into, for, with, by, of.

1. The sociologists we have considered have beenEuropean origin.
2. Comte, Martineau, Spencer, Marx, Durkheim, and Weber would unquestionably be.... its first inductees of a sociological Hall of Fame.
3. In the period preceding World War I, an array of factors provided a favorable climate sociology in the United States.
4. It (Sociology) had to break an established system of academic disciplines.
5. Contributions of more lasting significance to sociology were made sociologists at the University of Chicago.
6. Paul L. Lazarsfeld and his colleagues crafted techniques surveying public attitudes.
7. These sociologists broke ... established sociological theory and sought new directions in theory and research.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Outline the main ideas of the text and write a summary. Read it for the class.

Text 7

RESEARCH METHODS

The scientific method allows researchers to pursue answers to their questions by gathering evidence in a systematic manner. Although no single method can eliminate uncertainty, the steps embodied in the scientific method maximize the chances for deriving information that is relevant, unbiased, and economical. Four major techniques of data collection are available to sociologists: experiments, surveys, observation, and archival research. Let us examine each of these research designs in turn.

Experiments. The ideal design for scientific research is one that allows researchers either to accept or reject a hypothesis. In order to do so, scientists attempt to control all the relevant variables to eliminate other explanations for their findings. The **experiment** best meets this requirement. In the experiment, researchers work with two groups that are identical in all relevant respects. They introduce a change in one group—the **experimental group**—but not in the other group—the **control group**. The two groups are identical except for the variable that the researchers introduce in the experimental group. The control group affords a neutral standard against which the changes in the experimental group can then be measured. This procedure allows sociologists to test the effects of an independent variable on a dependent variable.

Surveys. Methods that rely on observation attempt to describe and portray behavior as it occurs. But some aspects of behavior are not directly accessible to

observation, particularly those having to do with people's values, beliefs, attitudes, perceptions, motivations, and feelings. Further, individuals may be willing to report but not permit researchers to observe some of their private behaviors, particularly religious practices, and drug use. And since the spontaneous occurrence of some events is unpredictable, trained observers cannot always be on the scene. Under these circumstances, the survey is a valuable tool in the researcher's arsenal. Survey data are typically gathered in one of two ways. In the first, the researcher interviews people by reading them questions from a prepared questionnaire. In the second, people receive a questionnaire in the mail, fill it out, and return it by mail.

Sociologists typically employ either a random sample or a stratified random sample in their research. In the **random sample** researchers select subjects on the basis of chance so that every individual in the population has the same opportunity to be chosen. Should sociologists prefer greater precision, they can use a **stratified random sample**. They then divide the population into relevant categories, such as age, sex, socioeconomic level, and race, and draw a random sample from each of the categories.

Designing good questionnaires is not easy. The wording of the questions, their number, and the format in which they appear are all critical matters. For instance, the wording of a question may systematically bias the answers. A good deal of pretesting is required to ensure that questions are understandable, unbiased, and specific enough to elicit the desired information.

Probably the major difficulty with self-report information has to do with the issue of its accuracy. Because individuals are involved in the data they are reporting, they may intentionally or unwittingly supply biased reports. For example, they may withhold or distort information because, if they were to tell the truth, they would feel threatened or face a loss in self-esteem. Further, many people lack the self-insight required to provide certain kinds of information. At least 10 percent of the population lacks the literacy necessary to comprehend even the simplest question. Then too, from 20 to 70 percent of the people who receive a questionnaire in the mail fail to complete or return it, distorting the sample's representativeness.

Observation. Observation is one of the most pervasive activities in which we engage as we go about our everyday lives. It is also a primary tool of sociological inquiry. Observation becomes a scientific technique when it (1) serves a clear research objective, (2) is undertaken in a systematic rather than haphazard manner, (3) is carefully recorded, (4) is related to a broader body of sociological knowledge and theory, and (5) is subjected to the same checks and controls applied to all types of scientific evidence.

Sociologists may engage in activities with the people that they are studying, a technique called **participant observation**.

Elliot Liebow's (1967) study of the black streetcorner men involved participant observation. Liebow, a white, began his study by hanging out on the corner in front of the New Deal Carry-out Shop. Here he initiated a conversation with a 31-year-old black man, Tally Jackson. Over the course of the next four hours the two men struck up a friendship as they drank coffee, watched people pass by, and chatted. Over the next several weeks, Liebow often ate breakfast and lunch at the Carry-out and began

occasionally putting a dime in the jukebox. The streetcorner men were at first suspicious of Liebow, but Tally allayed their distrust by sponsoring Liebow as his friend.

Within a number of months, Liebow was well enough known and accepted by the streetcorner men that he was free to go to their rooms or apartments, needing neither an excuse nor an explanation for doing so. Yet even so, the fact that he was white, college-educated, and "doing research" made him an "outsider."

In many situations observation is the only way to gather data. At times people are unable or unwilling to tell about their behavior: They may lack sufficient self-insight to report on it, or because their behavior is illicit, taboo, or deviant. But observation also has many of the same limitations as the field experiment. Additionally, there is the practical problem of applying observational procedures to phenomena that occur over a long period, such as a certain historic era. For these types of investigation, archival data are particularly useful.

Archival Research. **Archival research** refers to the use of existing records that have been produced or maintained by persons or organizations other than the researcher. Sources include census data, government statistics, newspaper reports, books, magazines, personal letters, speeches, folklore, court records, works of art, and the research data of other social scientists. A new utilization of data already collected for some other purpose may have considerable value and merit.

Archival research has the advantage of allowing researchers to test hypotheses over a wider range of time and societies than would otherwise be possible. We gain greater confidence in the validity of a hypothesis when we can test it in a number of cultures and historical periods rather than restrict ourselves to a single group in the present time and place. However, the technique also has its disadvantages. The major problem is that missing or inaccurate records often prevent an adequate test. And when material is available, it is frequently difficult to categorize in a way that gives an answer to a research question.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

accessible [ək'sesəb(ə)l] – доступний

census data – дані перепису

dime – десятицентовка (монета в десять центів)

evidence ['evid(ə)ns] – дані, факти; доказ

embodied in – втілений в

haphazard – випадковий; зроблений навмання

illicit [ɪ'lɪsɪt] – незаконний, заборонений

in turn – по черзі

jukebox – автоматичний програвач (у ресторанах)

literacy – грамотність

perception – сприйняття, відчуття

pervasive [pə'veɪsɪv] – поширюватися

to portray – зображувати

to pursue – шукати, домагатися

to reject – відкидати, не приймати
self-esteem – самоповага, почуття власної гідності
stratified random sample – поперемінний випадковий приклад (зразок)
survey – огляд
suspicious [sə'spiʃəs] – недовірливий, підозрілий
unbiased [ʌn'baɪəst] – неупереджений
uncertainty – невизначеність; невпевненість
to withhold information – приховувати (замовчувати) інформацію

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions:

1. What does the scientific method allow researchers? 2. What maximizes the chances for deriving relevant and unbiased information? 3. How many major techniques of data collection are available? 4. Why do scientists attempt to control all the relevant variables? 5. Why does the experiment best meet this requirement? 6. What does the control group afford? 7. Under what circumstances is the survey a valuable tool in researcher's arsenal? 8. What are two ways in which survey data are gathered? 9. What samples do sociologists typically employ? 10. What relevant categories do they divide the population into? 11. Why isn't designing good questionnaires easy? 12. Do many people lack the self-insight required to provide certain kinds of information? 13. What is one of the most pervasive activities in which we engage as we go about our everyday life? 14. When does observation become a scientific technique? 15. What technique is called participant observation? 16. What does Elliot Liebow's study deal with? 17. What does archival research refer to? 18. What is the advantage of archival research? 19. What are its disadvantages?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

To pursue answers, to gather evidence in a systematic manner, to eliminate uncertainty, embodied in, to derive information, relevant, unbiased, to be available to, surveys, observations, archival research, in turn, either, in order to, to eliminate, to meet the requirements best, identical, to introduce a change, to afford a neutral standard, to measure, to rely on, to be accessible to observation, perception, religious practices, the spontaneous occurrence of some events, unpredictable, a prepared questionnaire, to employ a random sample or a stratified random sample, to have the same opportunity, to prefer greater precision, to draw a random sample, to design questionnaires, the wording of the questions, critical matters, to elicit the desired information, the issue of an accuracy, intentionally, unwittingly, to withhold or distort information, to tell the truth, to face a loss, a self-esteem, to lack the self-insight, literacy, to comprehend, to fail to do smth., to distort the sample's representativeness, observation, pervasive activities, to engage, a primary tool of sociological inquiry, to serve a clear research objective, to be undertaken in a systematic manner, to be carefully recorded, to be subjected to, participant observation, to initiate a conversation, to put a dime in, jukebox, to be suspicious of smb., illicit, deviant,

archival data, census data, to have considerable value and merit, to test hypotheses over a wider range of time, to gain greater confidence, to categorize data.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Служити визначеній меті дослідження, шукати відповіді, виключити невизначеність, відповідний, учасник спостереження, несуперечливий, сприйняття, бути доступним для, архівні дослідження, у свою чергу, або; для того, щоб; створювати опитувальники (опитування), найкращим чином відповідати вимогам, ідентичний, вносити зміни, вимірювати, ґрунтуватися на, бути доступними для спостереження, непередбачуваний, релігійні служби, непередбачуваний, розпливчастість запитань, важливі моменти, набути значної впевненості, навмисно, утримувати або спотворювати інформацію, говорити правду, самооцінка, грамотність, розуміти, не зуміти зробити що-небудь, спотворювати вибірку, надавати перевагу більшій точності, брати участь в, підозрювати, основний інструмент соціологічного дослідження, отримувати інформацію, здійснювати систематичним чином, піддаватися чому-небудь, заговорити, нелегальний, відхиляється від норми, архівні дані, розбити інформацію за категоріями, збирати факти систематично, ретельно записувати.

Exercise 4. Choose linking words that you think best meet each of the following sentences:

Although, in order to do so, further, since, under these circumstances, in the second, in the first, for instance, for example, yet even so, additionally, however.

1.no single method can eliminate uncertainty, the steps embodied in the scientific method maximize the chances for deriving information that is relevant, unbiased, and economical.
2.scientists attempt to control all the relevant variables to eliminate other explanations for their findings.
3.individuals may be willing to report but not permit researchers to observe some of their private behaviors, particularly religious practices, and drug use.
4. And ... the spontaneous occurrence of some events is unpredictable, trained observers cannot always be on the scene.
5.the survey is a valuable tool in the researcher's arsenal.
6. the researcher interviews people by reading them questions from a prepared questionnaire.
7.people receive a questionnaire in the mail, fill it out, and return it by mail.
8.the wording of a question may systematically bias the answers.
9.they may withhold or distort information because, if they were to tell the truth, they would feel threatened or face a loss in self-esteem.
10.the fact that he was white, college-educated, and "doing research" made him an "outsider."
11.there is the practical problem of applying observational procedures to phenomena that occur over a long period, such as a certain historic era.
12.the technique also has its disadvantages.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Make the written analysis of the text. Use books on Sociology, magazines and Internet sites to add data to your report. Produce it in class.

REVISION EXERCISES ON UNIT II

Exercise 1. Translate the following sentences:

1. Соціологічна уява – це здатність розглянути свій особистий досвід і труднощі разом зі структурою суспільства й історичною епохою, в якій ми живемо.

2. Звичайно наше сприйняття обмежене школою, роботою, родиною, сусідами.

3. Зміни у віковій структурі населення впливають на соціальні, економічні та політичні зміни у суспільстві.

4. Приватні та суспільні проблеми тісно пов'язані між собою, формуючи структуру соціального й історичного життя.

5. Соціологічна уява дозволяє нам зрозуміти, що відбувається з нами зараз, в даний момент, на перетині нашого життя і суспільних явищ.

6. Маркс намагався відкрити основні історичні принципи. Він сфокусував свої дослідження на економіці, в якій суспільства розвиваються.

7. Вся історія, за словами Маркса, складається з боротьби класів.

8. У наступні два десятиліття американські соціологи дійшли думки, що Маркс займає по праву своє місце серед гігантів соціологічної думки.

9. Видатний французький соціолог Еміль Дюркгейм сфокусував свій погляд на те, як суспільства зберігаються і виживають.

10. Дюркгейм показав, що руйнування соціальних зв'язків має негативні наслідки і може призвести окремих індивідуумів до самогубства.

11. Дюркгейм використовував статистичні методи для вивчення населення. Він виявився першим видатним соціологом, який зіткнувся зі складними проблемами, пов'язаними із суворим вивченням соціального життя.

12. Роботи Макса Вебера охоплювали широкий перелік тем, включаючи політику, бюрократію, соціальну стратифікацію, закон, релігію, капіталізм, музику, місто як явище та міжкультурні порівняння.

13. Використовуючи метод Макса Вебера, соціологи намагаються поставити себе на місце інших людей і зрозуміти, що вони думають і відчують.

14. Згідно з Максом Вебером, ідеальний тип - це концепція, створена соціологом для зображення основних характеристик явища.

15. У ХХ столітті провідну роль у розвитку соціології зіграли американські вчені.

16. Протягом 1940-х і в середині 1960-х соціологи Колумбійського, Гарвардського та Каліфорнійського університетів стали відігравати провідну роль і встановили основні напрямки в соціологічних дослідженнях та теорії.

17. Нове покоління американських соціологів 1970-х років вважали, що доктрина соціологічного нейтралітету приховувала такі проблеми, як страждання бідних і меншин, руйнівний характер війни і високу соціальну вартість злочинів.

18. Соціологи вважають, що злочини, расизм, соціальна нерівність і шлюби не просто «відбуваються», а мають причину для цього.

19. Вивчаючи причинно-наслідкові зв'язки, вчені роблять відмінність між незалежним і залежним чинником.

20. Науковий метод – це спосіб вивчення світу, який ґрунтується на суворому відборі фактів і їх логічному поясненні.

21. Експеримент – це ідеальний спосіб наукового вивчення, який дозволяє дослідникам або прийняти, або спростувати гіпотезу.

Exercise 2. Prepare a report on one of the issues of Unit II.

Exercise 3. Study the following glossary.

GLOSSARY

archival research. The use of existing records that have been produced or maintained by persons or organizations other than the researcher.

class conflict. The view of Karl Marx that society is divided into those who own the means of producing wealth and those who do not, giving rise to struggles between classes.

control group. The group that affords a neutral standard against which the changes in an experimental group can be measured.

correlation A change in one variable associated with a change in another variable.

dependent variable. The variable that is affected in an experimental setting.

dialectic. The notion in Hegelian philosophy that an idea, termed a *thesis*, takes on meaning only when it is related to its opposite or contradictory idea, called an *antithesis*. The interaction between the two ideas forms a new idea, termed a *synthesis*.

dialectical materialism. The notion in Marxist theory that development depends on the clash of contradictions and the creation of new, more advanced structures out of these clashes.

experiment. Researchers work with two groups that are identical in all relevant respects. They introduce a change in one group, but not in the other group. The procedure permits researchers to test the effects of an independent variable on a dependent variable.

experimental group. The group in which researchers introduce a change in an experimental setting.

hypothesis. A proposition that can be tested to determine its validity.

ideal type. A concept constructed by a sociologist to portray the principal characteristics of a phenomenon.

independent variable. The variable that causes an effect in an experimental setting.

mechanical solidarity. A form of social integration that characterized early societies in which a sense of oneness was derived from the fact that all the members of the society engaged in essentially similar tasks.

operational definition. Taking abstract concepts and putting them in a form that permits their measurement.

organic solidarity. A form of social integration that characterizes modern societies. A society is held together by the interdependence fostered by the differences among people.

participant observation. A technique in which researchers engage in activities with the people that they are observing.

random sample. Researchers select subjects on the basis of chance so that every individual in the population has the same opportunity to be chosen.

Social Darwinism. The application of evolutionary notions and the concept of the survival of the fittest to the social world.

social dynamics. Those aspects of social life that have to do with social change and that pattern institutional development.

social facts. Those aspects of social life that cannot be explained in terms of the biological or mental characteristics of the individual. People experience the social fact as external to themselves in the sense that it has an independent reality and forms a part of their objective environment.

social statics. Those aspects of social life that have to do with order and stability and that allow societies to hold together and endure.

sociological imagination. The ability to see our private experiences and personal difficulties as entwined with the structural arrangements of our society and the historical times in which we live.

sociology. The scientific study of social interaction and organization.

stratified random sample. Researchers divide a population into relevant categories and draw a random sample from each of the categories. **superstructure.** The notion of Karl Marx that political ideologies, religion, family organization, education, and government constitute a level of social life that is primarily shaped by the economic institution.

survey. A method for gathering data on people's beliefs, values, attitudes, perceptions, motivations, and feelings. The data can be derived from interviews or questionnaires.

unobtrusive observation. A technique in which researchers observe the activities of people without intruding or participating in the activities.

value-free sociology. The view of Max Weber that sociologists must not allow their personal biases to affect the conduct of their scientific research.

variable. The term scientists apply to something they think influences (or is influenced by) something else.

Verstehen. An approach to the study of social life developed by Max Weber in which sociologists mentally attempt to place themselves in the shoes of other people and identify what they think and how they feel.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Unit III. HUMAN SOCIAL LIFE INVESTIGATION

Text 1

CULTURE AND SOCIAL STRUCTURE

Culture refers to the social heritage of a people – those learned patterns for thinking, feeling, and acting that are transmitted from one generation to the next, including the embodiment of these patterns in material items. It includes both **nonmaterial culture** – abstract creations like values, beliefs, symbols, norms, customs, and institutional arrangements – and **material culture** – physical artifacts or objects like stone axes, computers, loincloths, tuxedos, automobiles, paintings, hammocks, and domed stadiums. Two primary components of a society are its culture and its social structure.

A society is a large social grouping that shares the same geographical territory, a common culture and social structure, and is expected to abide by the same laws. Very simply, culture has to do with the customs of a people, and society with the people who are practicing the customs. Culture provides the fabric that enables human beings to interpret their experiences and guide their actions, whereas society represents the networks of social relations that arise among a people. Culture allows us to "know" in rather broad terms what we can expect of others and what they can expect of us. Simultaneously, culture affords a kind of map or a set of guideposts for finding our way about life. If we know a people's culture – their design for living – we can understand and predict a good deal of their behavior.

Social structure is a term used in the social sciences to refer to patterned social arrangements which form the society as a whole, and which determine, to some degree, the actions of the individuals socialized into that structure. The meaning of "social structure" differs between various fields of sociology. On the macro scale, it can refer to the system of socioeconomic stratification (e.g., the class structure), social institutions, or, other patterned relations between large social groups. On the meso scale, it can refer to the structure of social network ties between individuals or organizations. On the micro scale, it can refer to the way norms shape the behavior of actors within the social system.

The concept of culture is different for each society, but the structures of the culture are all the same as the people come and go through time leaving their mark, slightly changing the previous culture before it passes on to the next generation to germinate and grow.

Culture and social structure are the core concepts used in sociology. These are the basics an individual should know before engaging in a sociological discussion.

Vocabulary list

to abide – підкорятися

artifact – артефакт; предмет, який свідчить про культуру певного етапу розвитку

axe – сокира

beliefs – вірування

a core concept – основна концепція
 domed – під куполом
 embodiment [ɪmˈbɒdɪmənt] – втілення
 fabric – структура, лад
 to germinate [ˈdʒɜːmɪneɪt] – породжувати, викликати до життя
 guidepost [ˈɡaɪdpəʊst] – віха
 hammock [ˈhæmək] – гамак
 heritage [ˈherɪtɪdʒ] – спадщина
 item – окремий предмет
 institutional arrangements – зд. інститути
 loincloth [ˈlɒŋkloʊθ] – пов'язка на стегнах
 meso scale – центральний, середній рівень
 pattern – схема, модель, шаблон
 to predict – передбачати
 scale – зд. рівень
 to some degree – деякою мірою
 tuxedo [ˈtʌkˈsɪːdəʊ] – смокінг
 values – цінності

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What does culture refer to? 2. What is transmitted from one generation to the next?
 3. What refers to non-material culture? 4. Material culture includes physical artifacts
 or objects, doesn't it? 5. Name the two primary components of a society. 6. Where is
 the term social structure used? 7. Does the term "social structure" refer to patterned
 social arrangements? 8. How does the meaning of "social structure" differ between
 various fields of sociology? 9. Is the concept of culture different for each society?
 10. What is slightly changing before passing on to the next generation? 11. What
 should an individual know before engaging in a sociological discussion?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

To refer to, the social heritage, learned patterns, to transmit from one generation to
 the next, embodiment, material items, nonmaterial culture, abstract creations,
 physical artifacts, primary components, a large social grouping, to share a common
 culture, to abide by the same laws, to do with the customs of a people, to practice the
 customs, to provide the fabric, to enable, to interpret experience, to guide actions, to
 arise, in rather broad terms, simultaneously, a set of guideposts, to find way about
 life, to predict behavior, patterned social arrangements, to determine, socioeconomic
 stratification, social network ties, to change slightly, to pass on to the next generation,
 to germinate, core concepts, basics, to be engaged in a discussion.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Соціальна спадщина, передавати від одного покоління до іншого, втілення, основні компоненти, підкорятися законам, традиціям, трактувати свій досвід, представляти мережі соціальних відносин, передбачати поведінку, різні галузі соціології, соціоекономічна стратифікація, різні концепції, попередня культура, основні соціологічні концепції, брати участь в обговоренні.

Exercise 4. Agree or disagree.

- 1) Culture doesn't refer to the social heritage of a people.
- 2) Society refers to a group of people who don't live within the same territory.
- 3) Culture has to do with the customs of a people, and society with the people who are practicing the customs.
- 4) The concept of culture is the same for each society.
- 5) On the meso scale, social structure can refer to the structure of social network ties between individuals or organizations.

Exercise 5. Define the following key terms and memorize the definitions:

Culture, material culture, nonmaterial culture, social structure.

DEVELOPING LANGUAGE SKILLS

Exercise 1. Insert the verbs from the box into the text in the corresponding tense form.

To refer to, to distinguish, to be closely connected, to be a highly developed sphere, to be comprised of, to consist of, not to change, to give.

Culture is known to have many meanings. One of them the spiritual and material achievements of humanity. On the whole it is possible three kinds of culture. They are elite culture, folk culture and popular culture. These cultures with one another and one culture is part of the others. Elite culture, it painting, sculpture, architecture, literature, music. Folk culture is the culture of everyday life and routine relations of social life. Folk culture traditional knowledge and practice. It is like a habit of people, thus this culture very quickly Popular culture i.e. mass culture. It is a professionally organized sphere that works for a large mass of people. Popular culture people, especially young, standards to be what they like.

Exercise 2. Ask all possible questions to the following sentences.

1. A subculture is the culture of a subgroup of society that adopts norms which set them apart from the dominant group.
2. A counterculture is a subculture whose norms and values are not just different from but in conflict with those of the dominant culture.
3. Social structure is the enduring patterns of social behavior including statuses, roles, norms and institutions that constitute relatively stable relations in society.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Discuss the problem of a culture in modern society.

Exercise 2. What do you think of the following?

Within any culture there also exists sub culture and popular culture, which consists of people who agree with the overall cultural structure, but have different views and interests than the majority of the culture.

Text 2

COMPONENTS OF CULTURE

Let us examine more carefully a number of key components of culture.

NORMS

If we are going to live our lives in group settings, we must have understandings that tell us which actions are permissible and which are not. Only in this way do our daily lives take on an ordered and patterned existence and only in this way can we determine which behavior we can legitimately insist others perform and which they can legitimately insist we perform. For instance, when we enter a clothing store, begin a college course, get married, or start a new job, we already have some idea regarding the expectations that will hold for us and others in these settings. Such expectations are norms. Norms are social rules that specify appropriate and inappropriate behavior in given situations. They tell us what we "should," "ought," and "must" do, as well as what we "should not," "ought not," and "must not" do.

Norms afford a *means* by which we orient ourselves to other people. They provide social definitions that allow us to shape our actions so that we can align them with those of other people. But norms are also *ends*. We and others attribute to them an independent quality, making them "things" in their own right. They become standards by which individuals appraise one another's actions and reward and punish various behaviors. People attach a good deal of importance to some norms, called *mores* (singular *mos*), and they mete out harsh punishment to violators. Other norms, called *folkways*, they deem to be of less importance and they exact less stringent conformity to them.

Folkways. Folkways have to do with the customary ways and ordinary conventions by which we carry out our daily activities. We bathe, brush our teeth, groom our hair, wear shoes or sandals, wave greetings to friends, mow our lawns, and sleep in beds. We view people who violate folkways, especially those who violate a good number of them, as somehow "different" and even "strange." However, ordinarily we do not attach moral significance to folkways. For example, we may regard people who wear soiled clothing as crude but not as sinful, and people who are late for appointments as thoughtless but not evil. Gossip and ridicule are important mechanisms for enforcing folkways.

Mores. People take a less benign approach to violators of mores. Mores are seen as vital to a society's well-being and survival. People usually attach moral

significance to mores, and they define people who violate them as sinful, evil, and wicked. Consequently, the punishment for violators of a society's mores is severe; they may be put to death, imprisoned, outcast, mutilated, or tortured.

Laws. Society's mores are an important source of laws. Laws are rules that are enforced by a special political organization composed of individuals who enjoy the right to use force. The people who administer laws may make use of physical force with a low probability of retaliation by a third party. Laws tend to be the result of conscious thought, deliberate planning, and formal declaration. They can be changed more readily than can folkways and mores.

VALUES

Whereas norms are rules for behavior, values are broad ideas regarding what is desirable, correct, and good that most members of a society share. Values are so general and abstract that they do not explicitly specify which behaviors are acceptable and which are not. Instead, values provide us with criteria and conceptions by which we evaluate people, objects, and events as to their relative worth, merit, beauty, or morality. For example, in American culture a great importance is given to success, work and activity, efficiency and practicality, material comfort, individuality, progress, rationality, patriotism, and democracy. People tend to appeal to values as the ultimate rationales for the choices they make in life.

SYMBOLS AND LANGUAGE

Norms and values are nontangible aspects of social life, what sociologists term nonmaterial culture. But how in the course of our daily lives can we talk to one another about rules and standards and appraise people's behavior in terms of them? The answer has to do with symbols. **Symbols** are acts or objects that have come to be socially accepted as standing for something else. They come to represent other things through the shared understandings people have. Consider the word "computer," a symbol that when spoken or written stands for a physical object. It becomes a vehicle of communication because a community of users agree that the symbol and the object are linked. Hence symbols are a powerful code or shorthand for representing and dealing with aspects of the world about us.

Symbols assume many different forms. Take body gestures with social significance. Whereas Americans shake their heads to show a negative reaction, the inhabitants of the Admiralty Islands make a quick stroke of the nose with a finger of the right hand. Turks display negation by throwing their heads back and then making a clucking noise with the tongue. Objects such as flags, paintings, religious icons, badges, and uniforms also function as social symbols. But probably the most important symbols of all are found in language – a socially structured system of sound patterns (words and sentences) with specific and arbitrary meanings. Language is the cornerstone of every culture. It is the chief vehicle by which people communicate ideas, information, attitudes, and emotions to one another. And it is the principal means by which human beings create culture and transmit it from generation to generation.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

to align [ə'laɪn] – узгодити, поєднати
to appraise [ə'preɪz] – оцінювати, давати оцінку
appropriate [ə'prəʊpɪət] – відповідний
arbitrary [ˈɑːbɪtrəri] – довільний, самовільний
to assume [ə'sju:m] – припускати, допускати
to attribute [ˈætrɪbjʊ:t] – приписувати, вважати чимось невід'ємною властивістю
badge [bædʒ] – значок, знак, символ
benign [bɪ'naɪn] – милосердний, лагідний
conscious ['kɒnʃəs] – свідомий, усвідомлений, сприймаючий
deliberate [dɪ'lɪb(ə)rət] – навмисний
to determine [dɪ'tɜ:mɪn] – визначати
evil [ˈi:v(ə)l] – злий, зіпсований, згубний
to examine [ɪg'zæmɪn] – розглядати; обстежити; перевіряти; досліджувати; вивчати
folkways [ˈfəʊkweɪz] – звичаї, вистави; звичаї, властиві певній соціальній групі
gesture [ˈdʒestʃə] – жест, рух тіла, міміка
gossip – плітка, пересуди
legitimately [lɪ'dʒɪtɪmɪtli] – обґрунтовано, законно, правильно, з цілковитою підставою
a means – засіб
merit – заслуга, гідність, доблесть
mores [ˈmɔːreɪz], [-rɪz] – моральні норми, правила
to be permissible [pə'mɪsəb(ə)l] – бути дозволеним, розв'язним, допустимим
retaliation [rɪ,tæli'eɪʃ(ə)n] – відплата, відповідна міра
to ridicule [ˈrɪdɪkjʊ:l] – висміювати, брати на сміх
significance [sɪg'nɪfɪkəns] – значення, сенс, важливість
soiled – брудний, забруднений, вимазаний
to specify – визначати, відзначати, уточнювати
tangible [ˈtæŋdʒəb(ə)l] – відчутний, практично здійснений
ultimate [ˈʌltɪmət] – остаточний, граничний
vehicle [ˈvi:ɪk(ə)l] – засіб поширення
to violate [ˈvaɪələt] – порушувати
wicked [ˈwɪkɪd] – злий, порочний, аморальний

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What are key components of culture? 2. Why must we have understandings about permissible and non-permissible actions? Give an example. 3. What are norms? 4. What do norms provide? 5. What do folkways have to do with? 6. Do we attach moral significance to folkways? 7. What are important mechanisms for enforcing folkways? 8. How are mores seen? 9. Do people usually attach moral significance to mores? 10. The punishment for violators of a society's mores is severe, isn't it? Explain. 11. What can you say about laws? 12. Can laws be changed more readily than folkways and mores? 13. Define values. 14. What do values provide us with? 15. What do sociologists term "nonmaterial culture"? 16. What are symbols? 17. Are

the symbol and the object linked or not? 18. Symbols are a powerful code or shorthand for representing and dealing with aspects of the world about us, aren't they? 19. Give example of symbolic gestures. 20. Where are the most important symbols found in? 21. How do human beings create and transmit culture from one generation to the next?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

To live in group settings, to have understandings, permissible actions, daily lives, to take an ordered and patterned existence, to insist, to have some idea regarding the expectations, to specify appropriate and inappropriate behavior, given situations, to afford means, to provide social definitions, to shape actions, to align, to appraise one another's actions, to reward and punish various behavior, to attach a good deal of importance to some norms, to mete our harsh punishment to violators, to be of less importance, to exact less stringent conformity to them, to do with the customary ways, to carry out daily activities, to violate folkways, to attach moral significance to, to be late for appointments, to take a benign approach to, to administer laws, to be general and abstract, to specify explicitly, to be acceptable, to provide smb. with criteria and conceptions, to give great importance to, to appeal to values, nontangible aspects of social life, to be socially accepted, to become a vehicle of communication, hence, to deal with, to assume many different forms, to show a negative reaction, to be found in, the cornerstone of every culture, to create and transmit from generation to generation.

Exercise 3. Read the following passage. Divide into groups. Ask each other questions and discuss the main message of the text.

Social norms grow out of social value and both serve to differentiate human social behaviour from that of other species. The significance of learning in behaviour varies from species to species and is closely linked to processes of communication. Only human beings are capable of elaborate symbolic communication and of structuring their behavior in terms of abstract preferences that we have called values. Norms are the means through which values are expressed in behaviour.

Norms generally are the rules and regulations that groups live by. Or perhaps because the words, rules and regulations, call to mind some kind of formal listing, we might refer to norms as the standards of behaviour of a group. For while some of the appropriate standards of behaviour in most societies are written down, many of them are not that formal. Many are learned, informally, in interaction with other people and are passed that way from generation to generation.

The term "norms" covers an exceedingly wide range of behaviour. So that the whole range of that behaviour may be included. Sociologists have offered the following definition. Social norms are rules developed by a group of people that specify how people must, should, may, should not, and must not behave in various situations.

(From www.sociologyguide.com)

DEVELOPING LANGUAGE SKILLS

Exercise 1. Divide into pairs. Ask each other questions to find out the missing information.

The concept of culture was rigorously defined by ...*Who?* in 1860s. According to him culture is *What?* which man makes as a member of society. Taylor's theme that culture is a result of human collectivity has been accepted by ...*Whom?* Tylarian idea can be discerned in a modern definition of culture – culture is the man-made part of environment (M.J. Herskovits).

From this, it follows that culture and society are separable only at the analytical level: at the actual existential level, they can be understood as *How?* ...Culture, on one hand, is an outcome of society and, on the other hand, society is able to survive and perpetuate itself because of the existence of culture. Culture is *What?*... of man in the sense that it enhances man's adaptability to nature. It is because of the adaptive value of culture that Herskovits *What... state?* Culture is an instrument by which man exploits the environment and shapes it accordingly.

When? ...the Maori rub noses; the Australians rub faces; the Chinese place nose to cheeks; the Westerners *What ... do?*; some groups practice spitting on the beloved. Or, consider this; American men are permitted to laugh in public but not to cry; Iroquois men are permitted to do neither in public; Italian men are permitted to do both. *Why?*... physiological factors have little to do with when men laugh and cry and when they do not do either. The variability of the human experience simply cannot be explained by making reference to

The concept of culture was rigorously defined by E.B. Taylor ... *When?* According to him culture is the sum total of ideas, beliefs, values, material cultural equipments and non-material aspects which man makes as a member of society. *Whose theme?*... that culture is a result of human collectivity has been accepted by most anthropologists. *What?*... can be discerned in a modern definition of culture – culture is the man-made part of environment (M.J. Herskovits).

From this, it follows that culture and society are separable only *At what level?*... at the actual existential level, they can be understood as the two sides of the same coin. Culture, on one hand, is an outcome of society and, on the other hand, society is able to survive and perpetuate itself *Why?*.... Culture is an ally of man in the sense that *What enhances?*...It is because of the adaptive value of culture that Herskovits states that culture is a screen between man and nature. Culture is an instrument by which man exploits the environment and shapes it *How?*...

In showing affection, the Maori rub noses; the Australians rub faces; *Who?*... place nose to cheeks; the Westerners kiss; some groups practice spitting on the beloved. Or, consider this; American men are permitted to *What ...do?* Iroquois men are permitted to do neither in public; Italian men are permitted to do both. Since this is true, physiological factors have little to do with when men laugh and cry and when they do not do either. *What?* ...cannot be explained by making reference to human biology, or to the climate and

<p>human biology, or to the climate and geography. Instead, we must consider culture as <i>What?</i></p> <p>Culture can be conceived as a continuous, cumulative reservoir containing both material and non-material elements that are <i>How?</i> ... transmitted from generation to generation. Culture is continuous because cultural patterns transcend years, reappearing in successive generations. Culture is cumulative because each generation <i>Whatdoes?</i></p>	<p>geography. Instead, we must consider culture as the fabric of human society.</p> <p>Culture can be conceived as a continuous, cumulative reservoir containing both material and non-material elements that are socially transmitted from generation to generation. Culture is continuous <i>Why?</i> Culture is cumulative because each generation contributes to the reservoir.</p>
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Exercise 2. Write a short essay:

How do subcultures and counter cultures differ from the dominant culture?

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Discuss the effect of culture on young people.

Exercise 2. Imagine you have received the task to make an open lecture entitled “Components of culture”. What problems can you discuss in it?

Text 3

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF SYMBOLS AND THE LINGUISTIC RELATIVITY HYPOTHESIS

We can gain an appreciation for that part that symbols, particularly words, play in our daily lives by recalling the experiences of Helen Keller. Helen Keller was stricken with a severe illness at the age of 21 months that left her deaf and blind. In her autobiography, *The Story of My Life* (1904), she recounts that in her early years she remained imprisoned in her body, having only nebulous and uncertain links to the outside world. Later, through the skilled and patient teaching given her by Anne Mansfield Sullivan, she learned the American Sign Language for the deaf. In the following passage from her autobiography, Helen Keller tells of her early experiences:

Have you ever been at sea in a dense fog, when it seemed as if a tangible white darkness shut you in, and the great ship groped her way toward the shore and you waited with beating heart for something to happen? I was like that ship before my education began, only I was without compass and had no way of knowing how near the harbour was.

. . . The morning after my teacher came she led me into her room and gave me a doll. When I had played with it a little while, Miss Sullivan slowly spelled into my hand the word "d-o-l-l." I was at once interested in this finger play and tried to imitate it. I did

not know that I was spelling a word or even that words existed; I was simply making my fingers go in monkey-like imitation. In the days that followed I learned to spell in this incomprehensible way a great many words, among them pin, hat, cup and a few verbs like sit, stand and walk. But my teacher had been with me several weeks before I understood that everything has a name and each name gave birth to a new thought.

Only as Helen Keller grasped the significance of symbols, particularly words, did she acquire an intelligent understanding of her environment. Indeed, the change it brought revolutionized her personality. The association between a word and an experience allowed her to use the symbol in the absence of the experience. By virtue of symbolic expression, "reality" becomes internally coded in a condensed and more easily manipulated mental form. The ability to use symbols, especially language, was the ticket that admitted Helen Keller to social life and hence to full humanness.

Human beings live their lives primarily within symbolic environments. Other organisms may communicate by means of gestures, sounds, touch, and chemical odors, but the meanings of these signals are genetically programmed within them.

The Linguistic Relativity Hypothesis. The languages found among the world's people are quite diverse. Arabs have some 6,000 words that are connected in some way with the camel, including colors, breeds (different lineages), classes (such as milk camels, riding camels, marriage camels, and slaughter camels), states of pregnancy (some 50 words), and their current activities (such as grazing, conveying a caravan, and participating in a war expedition). Inuits (Eskimos) make minute distinctions among kinds of snow and snowfall. And Americans have a vast number of words pertaining to automobiles, including make, year, model, body type, and accessories.

Do these linguistic differences mean that if people speak a certain language, they experience a different social reality than do people who speak another language? In other words, does our language shape the way we perceive and interpret the world? Edward Sapir (1949) and his student Benjamin L. Whorf (1956) answer these questions affirmatively. In what has been termed the linguistic relativity hypothesis, Sapir and Whorf contend that languages "slice up" and conceptualize the world of experience differently, creating different realities for us. Hence no two languages shape the thought of people in quite the same fashion. Conceived in these terms, the hypothesis means that we selectively screen sensory input in the way we are programmed by our language, admitting some things while filtering out others. Consequently, experience as it is perceived through one set of linguistically patterned sensory screens is quite different from experience perceived through another set.

Few sociologists challenge the basic premise of the linguistic relativity hypothesis that the words people use reflect their chief cultural concerns – camels, snow, automobiles, or whatever. But most contend that regardless of their culture people can make the same distinctions made by Arabs with regard to camels, Inuits with regard to snow, and Americans with regard to automobiles. They may lack a word to name each distinction, but they are still capable of recognizing it. Rather than determining thought, language is viewed as simply helping or hindering certain kinds of thinking. Viewed in this manner, language reflects the distinctions that are of practical importance in the life of a community. In like fashion, the idioms and

vernacular of sociologists, lawyers, baseball players, college students, drug dealers, and stamp collectors all reflect their special interests and concerns.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

to admit to – визнавати, допускати, погоджуватися з

affirmatively [ə'fɜ:mətɪvli] – стверджувально

appreciation [ə'pri:ʃi'eɪʃ(ə)n] – найвища оцінка, вдячність

the basic premise – основні умови, передумови

breed – порода

to challenge – кидати виклик, брати під сумнів, оспорювати

to conceive [kən'si:v] – осмислювати, осягати, сприймати

dense – густий, глибокий

distinctions – відмінності

diverse [daɪ'vɜ:s] – різний, різноманітний

to grope [grəʊp] – шукати, нащупувати

harbor ['hɑ:bə] – гавань, порт

incomprehensible [ɪn,kəm'prɪ'hensəb(ə)l] – незрозумілий, незбагненний

minute ['mɪnju:t] – крихітний

nebulous ['nebju:ləs] – неясний, розпливчастий

to pertain to [pə'teɪn] – належати, бути властивим, ставитися

to recall – згадувати, нагадувати

to recount – розповідати, викладати

slaughter ['slɔ:tə] – убивчий

vast [vɑ:st] – обширний

vernacular [və'nækjʊlə] – професійний жаргон

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What can we appreciate by recalling the experiences of Helen Keller? 2. What do you know about her life? 3. How does Helen Keller describe her early experiences? 4. When did Helen Keller acquire an intelligent understanding of her environment? 5. What is the result of a symbolic expression? 6. Do human beings live their lives primarily within symbolic environments? 7. Are the meanings of these signals genetically programmed? 8. The languages found among the world's people are quite diverse, aren't they? Give examples. 9. How does our language shape the way we perceive and interpret the world? 10. What do Sapir and Whorf contend? 11. Is experience perceived through one set of linguistically patterned sensory screens quite different from experience perceived through another set? 12. What reflects chief cultural concerns? 13. How is the language viewed? 14. What do idioms and vernacular of sociologists, lawyers, etc. reflect?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

To gain an appreciation, to recall the experience, to be stricken with severe illness, to remain imprisoned, sign language, in a dense fog, a tangible white darkness, to grasp the significance of symbols, to acquire an intelligent understanding, internally coded, by virtue of symbolic expression, to admit to social life, to live lives within symbolic environments, diverse, current activities, to graze, to convey a caravan, accessories, to speak a certain language, to perceive and interpret the world, to answer the questions affirmatively, the linguistic relativity hypothesis, to conceptualize the world of experience differently, to create different realities, to screen sensory input selectively, to challenge the basic premise, regardless of, to name each distinction, to be of practical importance, to reflect special interests and concerns.

Exercise 3. Read the text. Ask questions as for the contents of it. Discuss the message of the text in class. Write out terms relating to the topic.

Cultural Relativism

This is a method whereby different societies or cultures are analyzed objectively without using the values of one culture to judge the worth of another. We cannot possibly understand the actions of other groups if we analyze them in terms of our motives and values. We must interpret their behavior in the light of their motives, habits and values if we are to understand them. Cultural relativism means that the function and meaning of a trait are relative to its cultural setting. A trait is neither good nor bad in itself. It is good or bad only with reference to the culture in which it is to function. Fur clothing is good in the Arctic but not in the tropics. In some hunting societies which occasionally face long periods of hunger to be fat is good; it has real survival value and fat people are admired. In our society to be fat is not only unnecessary but is known to be unhealthful and fat people are not admired.

The concept of cultural relativism does not mean that all customs are equally valuable, nor does it imply that no customs are harmful. Some patterns of behavior may be injurious everywhere, but even such patterns serve some purpose in the culture and the society will suffer unless a substitute is provided. The central point in cultural relativism is that in a particular cultural setting certain traits are right because they work well in that setting while other traits are wrong because they would clash painfully with parts of that culture.

DEVELOPING LANGUAGE SKILLS

Exercise 1. Translate the following sentences.

1. Поняття культури складається з трьох складових: життєвих цінностей, норм поведінки, артефактів (матеріальних творів).
2. Життєві цінності – це найважливіші в житті поняття, які є основою культури.
3. Норми поведінки відображаються в поняттях мораль та моральність. Вони показують, як люди повинні поводити себе в різних ситуаціях.
4. Правила, формально закріплені в державі, називаються законами.

5. Антропологи розуміють «культуру» не лише як набір об'єктів або товарів, але і як процеси, що створюють ці товари та роблять їх цінними, а також як соціальні відносини, в яких ці об'єкти використовуються.

6. Культура – багатогранне, складне, історично суспільне явище, яке розвивається; спосіб освоєння дійсності, реалізації творчого потенціалу людини у сфері матеріальної та духовної діяльності.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Speak on: Symbols are acts or objects that have come to be socially accepted as standing for something else.

Exercise 2. You are invited to broadcast for three minutes on “Language is the principal means by which human beings create culture and transmit it from generation to generation”. What would you say?

Exercise 3. Make the written analysis of the text and present it to your group mates. After a proper discussion present your critical remarks.

Text 4

CULTURAL UNITY AND DIVERSITY

The great merit of culture is that it permits human beings to circumvent the slowness of genetic evolution. Behavior patterns that are wired into organisms by their genes do not allow rapid adaptation to changing conditions. In contrast, cultural change can be rapid. Indeed, some social scientists contend that cultural evolution has swamped biological evolution as the chief source of behavior change for human beings. The functioning of the human brain is no longer rigidly prescribed by genetic programs. Instead, genes have allowed the construction of a liberated brain, one that permits a flexible repertoire of responses. The more culture human beings have acquired, the more biological capacity for culture has then evolved, leading to more culture, and so on. The fact that culture has increasingly usurped nature as the primary moving force in human development has implications for cultural unity and diversity, a matter to which we now turn our attention.

Although culture provides guideposts for daily living – a blueprint or map for life's activities – these guideposts often differ from one society to another. The "oughts" and "musts" of some societies are the "ought nots" and "must nots" of other societies; the "good" and "desirable" among this people are the "bad" and "undesirable" among that people. And so it goes. Should this fact of cultural variation lead to the conclusion that cultures are different in all respects and hence not comparable? Or to put the question another way, can we realistically speak of **cultural universals** – patterned and recurrent aspects of life that appear in all known societies?

There are indeed such common denominators or cultural constants. The reason is not hard to come by. All people confront many of the same problems. They must secure a livelihood, socialize children, handle grief, deal with deviants, and so on.

Culture represents an accumulation of solutions to the problems posed by human biology and the generalities of the human situation.

George Peter Murdock and his associates at Yale University (1950) have developed a classification of cultural components that has universal application. They list some eighty-eight general categories of behavior that are found among all cultures, including "food quest," "clothing," "settlements," "property," "travel and transport," "fine arts," "social stratification," "kinship," "political behavior," "death," "religious practices," and "infancy and childhood." The eighty-eight categories are subdivided into additional topics. For example, "funeral rites" always include expressions of grief, means for disposing of the corpse, and rituals to define the relations of the dead with the living. It should be emphasized, however, that universal components at no point include the specific details of actual behavior. The universals relate to broad, overall categories and not to the *content of culture*. Consider marriage. Although marriage is found in all cultures, some societies favor monogamy (one spouse), others polyandry (plural husbands), and still others polygyny (plural wives).

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

blueprint – проект, програма
to circumvent [ˌsɜːkəmˈvent] – обдурити, ввести в оману
to contend – стверджувати, заявляти, оскаржувати
denominators – міра, мірило
deviants [ˈdiːviənts] – відхилення (від прийнятих норм, правил, обов'язків)
to favor – сприяти
food quest – пошук їжі
grief – горе, печаль
hard to come by – важко знайти
implications – підтекст, сутність, прихований сенс
infancy – дитинство, раннє дитинство
kinship – (кровне) споріднення
to lead to conclusion – прийти до висновку
a liberated brain – розкутий розум
livelihood [ˈlaɪvliːhʊd] – засоби до існування
merit – заслуга, гідність
rapid – швидкий
repertoire [ˈrepətwaː] – *фр.* репертуар
rigidly [ˈrɪdʒɪdli] – суворо, жорстко
spouse [spaʊz] – чоловік; дружина
to usurp [juːˈzɜːp] – узурпувати
to be wired into – передаватися в

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions:

1. What is the great merit of culture? 2. How are behavior patterns wired into organisms? 3. What do some social scientists think about cultural evolution? 4. Why is the functioning of the human brain no longer rigidly prescribed by genetic programs? 5. How do guideposts differ from one society to another? 6. What does culture represent? 7. Who has developed a classification of cultural components? 8. How many general categories do they list? 9. Do the universals relate to the content of culture?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

The great merit of culture, human beings, to circumvent the slowness of genetic evolution, behavior patterns, to be wired into organisms by their genes, to allow rapid adaptation to changing conditions, in contrast, cultural change, indeed, to contend, cultural evolution, to swamp biological evolution, the chief source of behavior change, to be rigidly prescribed by genetic programs, instead, to acquire culture, the primary moving force, human development, implications for cultural unity and diversity, a matter, to turn attention to, to provide guideposts for daily living, a blueprint, to differ from one society to another, undesirable, cultural variation, to put the question another way, to speak of cultural universals, common denominators or cultural constants, to confront the same problems, to secure a livelihood, to socialize children, to handle grief, to deal with deviants, to represent an accumulation of solutions to the problems, to be posed by, the generalities of the human situation, associates, to develop a classification of cultural components, to have universal application, to list, to include the specific details of actual behavior, to relate to overall categories.

Exercise 3. Look through text 4 again. Give the main points of each paragraph of the text. Use “deals with” + word-combinations given below.

E.g. The first (second...) paragraph of the text deals with...
the great merit; cultural change; daily living; cultural variation; common denominators or cultural constants; universal application; eighty-eight categories; specific details.

Exercise 4. Read and translate the text. Use a dictionary if necessary. Think of a title for it. Ask questions to the text in writing.

In spite of the fact that invention occupied a dominant place in culture growth over such a long period of time, most of the content of modern cultures appears to have been gained through diffusion. The term diffusion refers to the borrowing of cultural elements from other societies in contrast to their independent invention within a host society.

In order for diffusion to operate on a substantial scale, there must be separate societies that have existed long enough to have elaborated distinctive ways of life.

Moreover, those societies must be in contact with one another so that substantial borrowing is possible. These conditions probably developed late in the evolutionary process. Once begun, however, culture borrowing became so pervasive that most of the elements of most modern cultures, including our own, originated with other people.

Culture has grown, then, through a combination of invention and diffusion. It grew slowly at first, mostly as the result of invention. As the culture base expanded and societies became differentiated, the large -scale diffusion of traits become possible and the rate of growth speeded up. In modern times, and particularly in the Western world, the rate of culture growth has become overwhelming.

(From www.sociologyguide.com)

DEVELOPING LANGUAGE SKILLS

Exercise 1. Translate the following sentences. Use a dictionary if necessary.

1. Спільна праця, спорт, освіта, наявність ритуалів, системи спорідненості, правила взаємодії статей, мова тощо є загальними рисами, властивими всім культурам.
2. Виникнення цих універсалій пов'язано з потребами людини і людських спільнот.
3. У масштабі людства розрізняють системи національної культури.
4. У масштабі окремого суспільства: Елітарна культура, народна культура, масова культура.
5. Культури можна порівнювати за елементами культури; за проявом культурних універсалій.
6. Елітарна культура зорієнтована на певну підготовлену аудиторію.
7. Функціонування народної культури практично невіддільне від повсякденного і практичного життя.
8. Масова культура – феномен суспільства ХХ століття. Це кіно, друк, поп-музика, мода.
9. Масова культура створюється професіоналами, вона загальнодоступна, орієнтована на найширші аудиторії.
10. Частини культури, притаманні певним соціальним групам, або пов'язані з певними видами діяльності називаються субкультурами.

Exercise 2. Complete the gaps in the text with the corresponding verb forms:

To establish, to become, to involve, to support, to become, to establish, to regulate, to cover, to contribute, to extend, to determine, to destroy, not to play, to exist, to contribute

Once a habit is, it a role or norm of action. Customs often binding reciprocal obligations. Also, custom law, without which it meaningless. In the words of Maclver and Page, custom a social order of its own so that conflict arising between custom and law is not a conflict between law and lawlessness, but between the orders of reflection (law) and the order of spontaneity (custom).

In general, customs the whole social life of a man. Law itself cannot ... the whole gamut of social behavior. It is the customary practices that to the harmonious

social interactions in a society in normal times of peace and tranquility. The influence of custom, at times, ... beyond one's own community. In certain communities custom ... the relations between two communities at war. The Bedouins of the African desert will never ... a water-well of the enemy.

Some of the customs any role in social control. They just ... because of their ancient nature just as all people bathing in an unhygienic tank or a lake just because of an established religious custom. However, in most of the traditional societies the customary practices are all emptied of their meaning.

In brief, although custom is regarded as one of the less formal types of control like public opinion, its influence on social life is very significant as it alone to the textual part of social behavior.

(From www.sociologyguide.com)

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Think of the answer for the following question:

How has your culture affected the way you behave and see the world?

Prepare a short report and present it in class.

Text 5

CULTURAL INTEGRATION

The items that form a culture tend to constitute a consistent and integrated whole. However, perfect integration is never achieved for the obvious reason that historical events constantly exert a disturbing influence. Nor is it sufficient merely to know the traits of a people. Two cultures could have identical inventories of items and yet be substantially different. We need to know how the various ingredients are interrelated. An analogy may prove helpful. Take a musical sequence of three pitches, C, E, and G. Knowing this information does not allow us to predict the type of sensation that the playing of these pitches is likely to produce. We need to know the relationship between the pitches. In what order will they be played? What will be the duration each will receive? How will the emphasis be distributed? And will the instrument on which they are played be a horn, a piano, or a violin?

Many early anthropologists made the error of viewing culture as so loosely knit together that the main task of cultural analysis consisted of disentangling the various elements and showing from which people they came. They portrayed culture as just so many patches and shreds that somehow coexisted. But increasingly social scientists have come to recognize that the parts of a culture comprise a closely interwoven fabric, so that a change in one part has consequences for other parts and for the whole. For this reason, an element undergoes modification in the process of being diffused from one society to another. Occasionally the modification of a cultural trait may take the form of *syncretism* – the blending or fusing of the trait with a like element in another culture. Our contemporary Christmas and Easter holidays are examples. In pre-Christian times, many European peoples carried out midwinter and spring ceremonies. The midwinter festival often included games, dancing, exchange of gifts, and general merrymaking. These elements have entered into the

celebration of Christmas and are summed up in the traditional greeting, "Merry Christmas!" Early Christians simply found it advantageous to locate Christmas and Easter at times of already existing festivals.

ETHNOCENTRISM

Once we acquire the cultural ways peculiar to our own society, they become so deeply engrained that they seem second nature to us. It is hardly surprising that we should judge the behavior of other groups by the standards of our own culture, a phenomenon sociologists call **ethnocentrism**.

Ethnocentrism is the tendency to believe that one's ethnic or cultural group is centrally important, and that all other groups are measured in relation to one's own. The ethnocentric individual will judge other groups relative to his or her own particular ethnic group or culture, especially with concern to language, behavior, customs, and religion. These ethnic distinctions and sub-divisions serve to define each ethnicity's unique cultural identity.

The term ethnocentrism was coined by William G. Sumner, upon observing the tendency for people to differentiate between the ingroup and others. He described it as often leading to pride, vanity, beliefs of one's own group's superiority, and contempt of outsiders.

Anthropologists such as Franz Boas and Bronislaw Malinowski argued that any human science had to transcend the ethnocentrism of the scientist. Both urged anthropologists to conduct ethnographic fieldwork in order to overcome their ethnocentrism. Boas developed the principle of cultural relativism and Malinowski developed the theory of functionalism as guides for producing non-ethnocentric studies of different cultures.

Ethnocentrism is found among families, tribes, nations, cliques, colleges, fraternities, businesses, churches, and political parties. The notion that one belongs to the "best people" provides a kind of social glue cementing people together. Feelings of group pride, belonging, and collective self-awareness promote solidarity and stability. But at the same time these feelings generate intergroup conflict. Ethnocentrism, then, is a double-edged feeling. It fosters a sense of oneness, overriding divisions within a group and binding together people who otherwise are divided by economic conflicts and social gradations. And it sets people apart by promoting a longing not to belong to any other group.

(From www.bbclearningenglish.com)

Vocabulary list

blending – змішування

consistent – стійкий, несуперечливий, єдиний, узгоджуваний

contemporary [kən'sɪst(ə)nt] – сучасний

contempt – презирство, неповага, зневага

to differentiate [ˌdɪfə'reɪnʃieɪt] – проводити чи встановлювати відмінність, диференціювати

to disentangle [ˌdɪsɪn'teɪŋɡl] – виплутуватися, вивільняти

duration – тривалість
 to engrain [ɪnˈɡreɪn] – впроваджувати, укореняти, прищеплювати (звички)
 to exert [ɪɡˈzɜ:t] – тиснути
 fabric – структура
 fieldwork – збір даних на місцях; польові дослідження
 to foster – заохочувати
 to fuse – об'єднуватися, з'єднуватися
 glue – клей; сполучна ланка, елемент
 horn – англійський ріжок (муз. інструмент)
 interrelated [ˌɪntəˈrɪleɪtɪd] – взаємопов'язаний, взаємодіючий
 inventory – реєстр, список (майна)
 merrymaking – веселощі, потіха, святкування
 obvious [ˈɒvviəs] – очевидний
 to override – відкидати, не брати до уваги, зневажати
 patches and shreds – клаптики й обрізки
 pitch – висота (тон, звук)
 self-awareness – самосвідомість, самоусвідомлення
 a sense of oneness [ˈwʌnnɪs] – винятковість, єдність
 substantially [səbˈstænz(ə)li] – значно
 syncretism [ˈsɪŋkretɪz(ə)m] – синкретизм
 to transcend [trænˈsend] – виходити за межі, не піддаватися включенню
 (в категорію, класифікацію)
 to undergo – відчувати, переносити, зазнавати (протилежні догмати та обряди)
 vanity [ˈvænɪti] – марнославство

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What constitutes a consistent and integrated whole? 2. Is perfect integration achieved? Why? 3. Is it sufficient to know traits of people? 4. What could two cultures have? Give an analogy. 5. What is the main task of cultural analysis? 6. How did early anthropologists portray culture? 7. What did social scientists come to recognize? 8. How does an element undergo modification? 9. What phenomenon is called ethnocentrism? 10. How will ethnocentric individual judge other groups? 11. What serves to define each ethnicity's unique cultural identity? 12. Who was the term ethnocentrism coined by? 13. Where is ethnocentrism found? 14. What provides a kind of social glue cementing people? 15. Why is ethnocentrism double-edge feeling?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

To form a culture, to constitute a consistent and integrated whole, obvious reason, to exert a disturbing influence, to know the traits of people, to be substantially different, to prove helpful, loosely knit together, to comprise a closely interwoven fabric, to undergo modification, to be diffused from one society to another, the modification of

a cultural trait, the blending or fusing of the trait with a like element in another culture, to carry out ceremonies, to enter into the celebration, to acquire the cultural ways peculiar to our own society, to judge the behavior of other groups, to be centrally important, with concern to, to judge other groups, ethnic distinctions, to transcend the ethnocentrism, to develop the principle of cultural relativism, to be found among, to provide a kind of social glue, a double-edged feeling, to foster a sense of oneness, to override divisions, to bind people together, to set people apart.

DEVELOPING LANGUAGE SKILLS

Exercise 1. Ask all possible questions to the sentences.

1. The word ethno comes from Greek and refers to a people, nation, or cultural grouping, while centric comes from Latin and refers, of course to the centre.
2. The term ethnocentrism then refers to the tendency for each society to place its own culture patterns at the centre of things.
3. It makes our culture into a yardstick with which to measure all other cultures.
4. Among adults, ethnocentrism is simply a fact of life.

Exercise 2. Translate the following sentences. Use a dictionary if necessary.

1. Термін етноцентризм був придуманий Вільямом Самнером.
2. Етноцентризм – специфічне світовідчуття, що ставить на перше місце інтереси того чи іншого етносу, який сприймає реальність через призму етнічних процесів і міжнаціональних відносин.
3. Етноцентризм сприяє формуванню стереотипів національної свідомості, стійких напрямів представників інших етнічних спільнот.
4. У соціологічних концепціях етноцентризм висловлює ідею про те, що система суспільних відносин та інститутів в кожному конкретному випадку визначається особливостями національної культури.
5. У сфері міжнаціональних відносин етноцентризм може переростати в націоналізм.
6. Етноцентризм походить з того, що саме етнічні процеси та етнічне сприйняття світу лежать в основі історії людського суспільства.
7. Міжнаціональні відносини, а саме, боротьба етнічних систем, визначають логіку історії.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Reproduce the text in your own words.

Exercise 2. Think of the questions:

How can we explore cultural differences?

What can help us communicate better with people from different cultural backgrounds?

Be ready to share your opinion with your classmates.

Text 6 CULTURAL RELATIVISM

We cannot grasp the behavior of other peoples if we interpret it in the context of *our* values, beliefs, and motives. Rather, we must examine their behavior in the light of *their* values, beliefs, and motives. This approach, termed **cultural relativism**, views the behavior of a people from the perspective of their own culture. In sharp contrast to ethnocentrism, cultural relativism employs the kind of value-free or neutral approach advocated by Max Weber.

Anthropologist Elman Service came to appreciate the importance of cultural relativism in the course of his fieldwork among the Havasupai Indians of the Southwest. In interviewing an old man about the tribe's culture, the anthropologist periodically asked why the people behave as they do. The man would answer: "That's the way we do." Service observes: "I was looking for a key to Havasupai culture, afraid of not finding it, and right there I patently overlooked the truth: There is no key to understanding culture except on its own terms."

A perspective characterized by cultural relativism does not ask whether or not a particular trait is moral or immoral, but what part it plays in the life of a people. For instance, among some Inuit peoples, the elderly infirm are left behind to perish in the cold. Rather than condemning the practice, social scientists examine the behavior in the context of Inuit culture, where it is defined as a humane measure. The Inuits believe that individuals experience in the next world a standard of health similar to that which they enjoyed in the period preceding death. Consequently, the Inuits see the practice as minimizing the disabilities and infirmities their loved ones will encounter in the hereafter. By the same token, social scientists point out that the practice is adaptive for a people whose subsistence is precarious and who must strictly limit their dependent population. For Americans who are appalled at the Inuit custom, it is worth noting that many Japanese find quite abhorrent our practice of placing our elderly infirm in nursing homes rather than caring for them at home.

Cultural diversity may also be found within a society. In many modern nations, the members of some groups participate in the main culture of the society while simultaneously sharing with one another a number of unique values, norms, traditions, and life styles. These distinctive cultural patterns are termed **a subculture**. Subcultures find expression in various religious, racial, ethnic, occupational, and age groups.

The Old Order Amish are a case in point. The Amish are a religious sect that originated in Germany and Switzerland during the Reformation conflicts of the sixteenth century. Because of religious persecution, many Amish migrated to Pennsylvania in the early 1700s. Most Amish families live on farms, although a minority work in skilled crafts like carpentry, furniture making, and blacksmithing. They believe in a literal interpretation of the Bible and turn their backs on modern standards of dress, "progressive" morality, "worldly" amusement, automobiles, and higher education. Above all, the Amish value hard physical work and believe that those who do not find joy in work are somehow abnormal. Far from being ashamed

of their nonconformity to "worldly standards," the Amish pride themselves on being a "peculiar people" who separate themselves from the world.

Youth culture is another example of a subculture. Western nations have postponed the entrance of their adolescents into adulthood for economic and educational reasons and have segregated them in schools and colleges. In doing so, they have spawned conditions favorable to the development of unique cultural patterns among their youth. These cultural patterns find expression in fads having to do with recordings, entertainment idols, and dance steps, personal adornment and hair styles, and distinctive jargons. Standards revolving about masculinity and femininity also have high priority. For boys, the critical signs of manhood are physical mastery, athletic skill, risk taking, courage in the face of aggression, and a willingness to defend one's honor at all costs. For girls, the most admired qualities are physical attractiveness, personal vivaciousness, the ability to manipulate delicately various sorts of interpersonal relationships.

At times the norms, values, and life styles of a subculture are substantially at odds with those of the larger society and constitute a **counterculture**. A counterculture rejects many of the behavioral standards and guideposts that hold in the dominant culture. Delinquent gangs, Satanic cults, and the survivalist right are other illustrations of counterculture groups. The "hang-loose" orientation found among some youth in the early 1970s had a good many countercultural overtones. The young people questioned the legitimacy of the Establishment, rejected the hard-work ethic of their elders, turned to drugs in a search for new experiences, and "dropped out" of middle-class life.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

abhorrent [əb'(h)ɔrənt] – що викликає, огидний, ненависний

adolescent [ˌædə'les(ə)nt] – підліток

adornment [ə'dɔ:nmənt] – прикраса

Amish – секта американських менонітів, послідовники єпископа Аммана (XVII ст.)

to appall [ə'pɔ:l] – лякати, жахати

to appreciate [ə'pri:ʃieɪt] – високо цінувати, оцінювати, бути вдячним

to condemn [kən'dem] – осуджувати, засуджувати, виносити вирок

delicately ['delɪkətli] – тонко, зі смаком, вишукано

delinquent [dɪ'lɪŋkwənt] – правопорушник, злочинець

to encounter [ɪn'kaʊntə] – стикатися, зіткнутися

Establishment – панівна верхівка

fad – примха, пунтик

femininity [ˌfemɪ'nɪnɪti] – жіночність

fieldwork – збір статистичних даних

to grasp [grɑ:sp] – зрозуміти, осягнути, усвідомити

hereafter – в майбутньому, в подальшому

infirm – немічний, старий, слабкий

legitimacy [lɪ'dʒɪtɪməsi] – законність, легітимність

manhood – мужність
 masculinity [ˌmæskjʊˈlɪnɪti] – мужність, чоловічі риси характеру й поведінки
 mastery – панування, влада, майстерність
 at odds – бути в конфлікті, не в ладах
 overtones – нотка, натяк, підтекст
 to perish – гинути
 to postpone [pə(ʊ)ˈspəʊn] – відкладати
 precarious [preɪˈkeɪ(ə)riəs] – ненадійний, сумнівний
 to reject – відкидати, відхиляти
 to segregate [ˈsegɪɡ(ə)ɪt] – ізолювати, відокремлювати, виділяти
 to spawn [spɔːn] – породжувати, створювати
 survivalist – учасник руху за виживання
 traits – характерна риса; особливості, властивість
 vivaciousness [vɪˈveɪʃəs nes] – жвавість

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. When can not we grasp the behavior of other people? 2. What is cultural relativism? 3. What does cultural relativism employ? 4. How did anthropologist Elman Service come to appreciate the importance of cultural relativism? 5. What do Amish believe in? 6. What is another example of subculture? 7. Why have Western nations postponed the entrance of their adolescents into adulthood? 8. What do cultural patterns find expressions in? 9. At times the norms, values, and life styles of a subculture are substantially at odds with those of the larger society, aren't they? 10. What can be said of masculinity and femininity standards? 11. What constitutes a counterculture? Give examples.

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

To grasp the behavior, in sharp contrast to, to employ value-free approach, to appreciate the importance of cultural relativism, in the course of fieldwork, to look for a key, a particular trait, the elderly infirm, to be left behind, to perish in the cold, to condemn the practice, to examine the behaviour, a standard of health, consequently, by the same token, precarious subsistence, to limit strictly, nursing homes, abhorrent practice, cultural diversity, to share unique values, a case in point, skilled crafts, carpentry, blacksmithing, a literal interpretation of a Bible, to segregate adolescents in schools, personal adornment, to constitute a counterculture, "hang-loose" orientation, to have a good many countercultural overtones, to question the legitimacy of the Establishment, to reject the hard-work ethic of one's elders, to turn to drugs, to search for a new experience.

Exercise 3. Read the following text. Agree or disagree with the statements after the text. Be ready to retell the text in class.

Communication's done so naturally by all of us that we take it for granted and we don't think very much about what happens when we communicate we just think,

well we're all human and we all communicate, therefore communication must be easy and it must be universal. But, in fact, communication isn't a simple process at all. Communication seems such a normal thing to do that we tend to think that everyone – no matter where they're from – will communicate in the same way that we do. Language isn't just a tool to help people from the same culture communicate effectively. It's also a window into the way people from that culture see the world. But why should language tell us anything about a particular culture? Surely we all look at the world in much the same way? After all, we're all human. Isn't it natural to think that people from other cultures will use language in exactly the same way that we do? Well, maybe not.

A hundred years ago, language experts believed that you could say exactly the same thing in two different languages just by accurately translating the vocabulary and the grammar. But in the early 20th century, people began to look at languages a bit more closely. One of these people was the amateur linguist Benjamin Lee Whorf. Whorf went to study the language of the Hopi people, in the south west of the United States of America. And he made some interesting discoveries. For example, the area where the Hopi lived was very cold – so they had many more different words for snow than, say, English has.

Whorf also learnt that the Hopi saw 'time' as one continuous event. It couldn't be broken up into units. So the language had no way of counting time – you couldn't say one o'clock or two o'clock. There were no words to distinguish seasons like summer, autumn and winter – and there were no past or future tenses. Facts like these lead Whorf to draw conclusions that revolutionised the way people thought about language and culture.

Whorf deduced from this that how you perceive the world affects the language that you speak because the language that you speak arises from your needs as a culture, the environment that you live in and that must mean that all of our languages are in some way different – so it's not as simple as there being a one to one correspondence or correlation between languages. And anyone who's ever tried to translate anything from one language to another will know that it's not easy and you sometimes have to translate concepts with very different words for the people in another culture to get the same meaning from them – this means that languages are relative and not universal.

(From www.bbclearningenglish.com)

- Communication isn't done naturally.
- Communication must be easy and it must be universal.
- Language is just a tool to help people from the same culture communicate effectively.
- People from other cultures will use language in exactly the same way that we do.
- Whorf went to study the language of the Inuit people, in the south west of the United States of America.
- Whorf also learnt that the Japanese saw 'time' as one continuous event.
- All of our languages are in some way different.

- You don't have to translate concepts with very different words for the people in another culture.

DEVELOPING LANGUAGE SKILLS

Exercise 1. Translate the following sentences. Use a dictionary if necessary

1. Ідея культурного релятивізму, множинності та рівноправності культурних типів в географічному просторі та історичному часі є найважливішою складовою культури.
2. Початок концепції культурного релятивізму було закладено великим американським етнологом Францем Буасом (1858-1942).
3. Ідея множинності культурних типів співвідноситься з філософськими категоріями субстанції і форми.
4. Виникнувши в одному суспільстві, те чи інше явище культури може бути засвоєно членами багатьох інших суспільств.
5. Звертаючись до культури, багато етнологів насамперед мали на увазі систему норм і цінностей, що існують у тому чи іншому окремому суспільстві.
6. На противагу етноцентризму виникла точка зору, згідно з якою норми і цінності одного суспільства не можна розглядати з позицій норм і цінностей іншого, яким би воно не було. Набір норм і цінностей того чи іншого суспільства можна розглядати тільки з позицій членів цього товариства.
7. Відповідно до цієї концепції всі культури рівноцінні. Жодна з них не може розглядатися по відношенню до інших ні як вища, ні як нижча.
8. Культурні релятивісти прагнули довести, що люди, яких колонізатори називали дикунами, за рівнем культурного розвитку стоять нітрохи не нижче європейців.
9. В уявленнях якщо не всіх, то багатьох культурних релятивістів людство постає як величезна кількість абсолютно рівноцінних унікальних замкнутих культурних світів.

Exercise 2. Fill the gaps with the proper words from the box.

to consider, to view, to be relative to, to be worthy, to be of equal value, to exist, immoral, to be determined, to apply to, to pass, to be considered.

Cultural relativism is the view that all beliefs, customs, and ethics ... the individual within his own social context. In other words, "right" and "wrong" are culture-specific; what moral in one society may be considered ... in another, and, since no universal standard of morality ..., no one has the right to judge another society's customs.

Cultural relativism is widely accepted in modern anthropology. Cultural relativists believe that all cultures ... in their own right and Diversity of cultures, even those with conflicting moral beliefs, is not to be considered in terms of right and wrong or good and bad. Today's anthropologist ... all cultures to be equally legitimate expressions of human existence, to be studied from a purely neutral perspective.

Cultural relativism is closely related to ethical relativism, which ... truth as variable and not absolute. What constitutes right and wrong solely by the individual or by society. Since truth is not objective, there can be no objective standard which ... all cultures. No one can say if someone else is right or wrong; it is a matter of personal opinion, and no society can ... judgment on another society.

(From www.gotquestions.org/cultural-relativism.html)

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Cultural issues multiple choice:

1. _____ are rules that cover customary ways of thinking, feeling, and behaving but lack moral overtones.
 - Folkways
 - Values
 - Mores
 - Taboos
2. _____ are broad ideas shared by people in a society about what is good or desirable.
 - Values
 - Norms
 - Folkways
 - Mores
3. Innate, or unlearned, patterns of behavior are called _____.
 - reflexes
 - drives
 - instincts
 - heredity
4. Real culture is _____.
 - cultural guidelines that group members claim to accept
 - actual behavior patterns of members of a group
 - ideas, knowledge, and beliefs that influence people's behaviour
 - the concrete, tangible objects of a culture
5. _____ are rewards and punishments used to encourage people to follow norms.
 - Folkways
 - Sanctions
 - Mores
 - Cultural universals
6. A _____ is a group that is part of the dominant culture but that differs from it in some important respects.
 - subculture
 - counterculture
 - real culture
 - ideal culture

7. _____ culture consists of the concrete, tangible objects within a culture, such as automobiles, chairs, and art.
 - Ideal
 - Real
 - Nonmaterial
 - Material
8. General cultural traits that exist in all cultures are called _____.
 - cultural particulars
 - subcultures
 - countercultures
 - cultural universals
9. Judging others in terms of one's own standards is called
 - discrimination
 - a formal sanction
 - ethnocentrism
 - sociobiology
10. Norms afford _____ by which we orient ourselves to other people.
 - formal sanctions
 - a means
 - a gesture
 - a social rule

Exercise 2. Do you behave and see the world differently from people of another culture? Prepare a report on intercultural communication. Present it in class.

Text 7

THE INTERACTIONIST PERSPECTIVE

The functionalist and conflict perspectives take a "big-picture" approach to sociology, focusing on the "macro" or large-scale structures of society. In contrast, the interactionist perspective has traditionally been more concerned with the "micro" or small-scale aspects of social life. Sociologists like Charles Horton Cooley, George Herbert Mead, Manford Kuhn, and Herbert Blumer have turned their attention to the individuals who make up society and have asked how they go about fitting their actions together.

As with the functionalist and conflict perspectives, a number of themes recur in the various formulations of interactionist thought.

Symbols. Interactionists emphasize that we are social beings who live a group existence. However, in contrast with ants, bees, termites, and other social insects, we possess few, if any, innate behaviors for relating ourselves to one another. If we are largely lacking in such inborn mechanisms, how is society possible? Interactionists find the answer in the ability of human beings to communicate by means of symbols. Because they stress the importance of social interaction and the symbols people use

to attune themselves to one another, these sociologists are called *symbolic interactionists*.

Meaning: Constructing Reality. Symbolic interactionists contend that we act toward people, objects, and events on the basis of the *meanings* we impart to them. Meaning is not something that inheres in things, it is a property that derives from, or arises out of, the interaction that takes place among people in the course of their daily lives. Put another way, reality does not exist "out there" in the world but is *manufactured* by people as they intervene in the world and interpret what is occurring there. As social philosopher Alfred Schutz (1971) points out, there are strictly speaking no such things as facts, pure and simple. We select facts from a universal context through the activities of our mind, and for this reason all "facts" are human creations. Accordingly, symbolic interactionists say that we experience the world as **constructed reality**.

An illustration may help in grasping this point. Some cloudless night, look up into the northern heavens and find the seven stars that form the Big Dipper. Then attempt to discern in this combination of stars the image first of a bear, then a wagon, and finally a bushel basket. Most Americans have great difficulty identifying the latter objects. They conclude: "It just looks like a dipper and that's all there is to it." Other people have known this same set of stars by different names. The ancient Syrians saw the configuration as the Wild Boar; the Hindus, as the Seven Sages; the Greeks, as the Great Bear; the Poles, as the Heavenly Wagon; and the Chinese, as the Northern Bushel.

The interesting thing about all this is the influence the assignment of such names – symbolic word handles – has had on how people view this celestial configuration. From their writings, it is clear that the ancient Greeks did not just call these stars the Great Bear; when they looked into the northern sky, they *saw* the figure of a bear. Nor does it matter to most of us that some 200 other stars are visible in the same constellation – Ursa Major – and that these stars offer an infinite number of combinations and configurations. In the case of the dipper, we single out seven specific stars, label them a "dipper," and in turn we see a "dipper." For their part, the ancient Greeks saw a bear; the Syrians, a wild boar; and so on. All this leads symbolic interactionists to say that if sociologists are to understand social life, they must understand what people actually say and do from the viewpoint of the people themselves. This orientation is strongly influenced by Max Weber's concept of *Verstehen*.

Fashioning Behavior. Symbolic interactionists portray us as creatively constructing our actions in accordance with the meanings we attribute to a situation. In fashioning our behavior, we use symbols to define our perceptual inputs, mentally outline possible responses, imagine the consequences of alternative courses of action, eliminate unlikely possibilities, and finally select the optimal mode of action. We mentally rehearse our actions before we actually act and, upon acting, serve as audiences to our own actions. This implies that a certain amount of indeterminacy or unpredictability inheres in human behavior because we must continually fashion meanings and devise ways to fit our actions together. Consequently, much of our

behavior has a tentative and developing quality to it: We map, test, devise, suspend, and revise our overt actions in response to the actions of others.

Evaluation of the Interactionist Perspective. The interactionist perspective has the advantage of bringing "people" into the panorama of sociological investigation. It directs our attention to the activities of individuals as they go about their everyday lives. We see people not as robots mechanically enacting behavior prescribed by social rules and institutional arrangements, but as social beings endowed with the capacity for thought. Through interaction they acquire the symbols and the meanings that allow them to interpret situations, assess the advantages and disadvantages of given actions, and then select one of them. Thus from interactionists we gain an image of human beings as individuals who actively fashion their behavior, as opposed to an image of individuals who simply respond in a passive manner to the external dictates of structural constraints.

However, the interactionist perspective has its limitations. In their everyday lives people do not enjoy total flexibility in shaping their actions. Although interactionists acknowledge that many of our actions are guided by systems of preestablished meanings, including culture and social order, some like Herbert Blumer downgrade the part social structure plays in our lives. Critics contend that symbolic interactionism can lead to a marked overemphasis on the immediate situation and an "obsessive concern with the transient, episodic and fleeting". The perspective tends to overlook the connectedness that outcomes have to one another, particularly the links that exist among episodes of interaction.

In contrast with traditional formulations of the interactionist perspective, functionalists remind us that society has a patterned, recurrent quality to it that limits the latitude people have in forging their actions. And conflict theorists alert us to the fact that social arrangements are not neutral, but allocate the burdens and benefits of society unequally among different groups. To rectify some of these difficulties, a number of symbolic interactionists have recently undertaken to introduce structural and large-scale components into interactionist thought. We saw that the intertwined patterns of action and interaction form the foundation for groups and societies.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

ant – мураха

to assess – визначати (розмір податку або штрафу)

the Big Dipper – Велика Ведмедиця

bushel basket – кошик ємністю в бушель

celestial [si'lestiəl] – *возвиш.* небожитель

to discern [di'sɜ:n] – розгледіти

to endow [in'dau] – матеріально забезпечувати

to fit actions together – пристосовувати дії

forging ['fɔ:dʒɪŋ] – (метал.) кування

the Heavenly Wagon – Велика Ведмедиця

to impart – надавати, наділяти

to inhere [ɪnˈhɪə] – бути властивим, притаманним
innate – вроджений, природний
the Northern Bushel – Північна Корона
obsessive [əbˈsesɪv] – нав'язливий, всепоглинаючий
overt [ˈəʊvɜ:t] – відкритий, неприхований, відвертий
to rectify – виправляти, поправляти
to recur [rɪˈkɜ:] – повертатися; знову спадати на думку
to rehearse [rɪˈhɜ:s] – повторювати, перераховувати
the Seven Sages – сім волхвів
to suspend – відкладати; (тимчасово) припиняти
Ursa Major – Велика Ведмедиця

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Outline the main ideas of the text and write a summary.

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

To take a "big-picture" approach to sociology, small-scale aspects of social life, to fit actions together, to live a group existence, to attune to one another, symbolic interactionists, to construct reality, to arise out of, to intervene in the world, to select facts from a universal context, the latter objects, the same constellation, to define perceptual inputs, mentally outline possible responses, imagine the consequences of alternative courses of action, eliminate unlikely possibilities, finally select the optimal mode of action, to rehearse actions, a certain amount of indeterminacy, to be prescribed by social rules, to be endowed with, to assess the advantages and disadvantages, to be guided by systems of pre-established meanings, to have a recurrent quality, to rectify, the intertwined patterns of action and interaction, to form the foundation for groups and societies.

Exercise 3. Read the following questions and answer them.

1. What is the science that studies human society and social behavior?
 - a. Psychology
 - b. Economics
 - c. Archaeology
 - d. Sociology
2. Name the study of the choices people make in an effort to satisfy their wants and needs.
 - a. Exogamy
 - b. Evolution
 - c. Dyad
 - d. Economics
3. What is the meaning of 'social phenomenon'?
 - a. Beliefs

- b. Life style
 - c. Values
 - d. An observable fact or event
4. Who was Auguste Comte?
- a. Managing director
 - b. Psychologist
 - c. French philosopher who is considered to be the founder of Sociology
 - d. Founder of the French Revolution
5. What century did Sociology take root?
- a. Seventeenth century
 - b. Nineteenth century
 - c. Fifteenth century
 - d. Recently in 2001
6. What is the study of various aspects of past and present cultures?
- a. Anthropology
 - b. Correlation
 - c. Bureaucracy
 - d. Conflict
7. What is culture?
- a. Control theory
 - b. Social structure
 - c. Shared products of human groups
 - d. Barter
8. What is a sociological definition of the word drug?
- a. A dysfunction
 - b. Ecology
 - c. A fad
 - d. A substance that changes mood, behavior, or consciousness.
9. What is the name used by sociologists for the very basis of human culture?
- a. Invention
 - b. Free trade
 - c. Group
 - d. Symbols
10. Name that means the shared rules of conduct that tell people how to act in specific situations.
- a. Norms
 - b. Peer groups
 - c. Novice phase
 - d. Political party

DEVELOPING LANGUAGE SKILLS

Exercise 1. Put the words in the correct order to make sentences.

1. of, originator, and, term, the, a profound, social, Herbert Blumer, had, on, theory, methodology, effect, "symbolic interactionism,".
2. is, upon, bedrock, philosophy, the, any, which, is, built, discipline.
3. is, thought, shot, with, the, through, ideas, of, Blumer's, John Dewey.
4. rejected, call
5. ed, for, the, quest, Dewey, certainty, and, what, he, each, philosophical, the, for, the "spectator theory" of knowledge, that, notion there, idea, a, is, thing, in, corresponding, reality.
6. is, symbolic, of, human, life, study, and, human, down-to-earth, interactionism, the, approach, a, to, scientific, group, conduct.
7. holds, human, symbolic, the, these, very, to, meanings, other, which, viewpoints, would, as, belongs, view, incidental, central, that, the, role, in, Interactionism, behavior, dismiss.

Exercise 2. Ask all possible questions to the following sentences

1. The term Social Interaction presupposes that group life consists of interaction between members of a group (i.e., society consists in the interaction of individual human beings).
2. The nature of human action follows from the ability to make indications to the Self.
3. The interlinkages of human actions are the building blocks of human group life.
4. Social Interactionism comprises a micro-level framework for studying social phenomenon not afforded by other major schools of sociological thought.

Exercise 3. Read the following Herbert Blumer's biography facts. Complete the text with the following verbs in the correct form.

to name, to develop, to include, to believe, to be, to come, to be born, to live, to attend, to secure, to relocate, to play, to accept, to continue, to move, to preside, to develop, to become, to receive, to die.

Herbert Blumer (7 March 1900 – 13 April 1987) was an American sociologist. Continuing the work of George Herbert Mead, he ... and ... the topic of symbolic interactionism. Blumer's main research interests ... empirical method and observation of popular culture. He ... that sympathetic introspection and participant observation ... more important than scientific approaches when it ... to examining symbolic interactionism.

Blumer ... March 7, 1900 in St. Louis, Missouri. He ... there with his parents and ... the University of Missouri from 1918 to 1922. After graduation, he ... a teaching position there, but in 1925 he ... to the University of Chicago where he was greatly influenced by sociologists George Herbert Mead, W. I. Thomas, and Robert Park. While studying sociology at the University of Chicago, he ... professional

football for the Chicago Cardinals. At the time, the Cardinals were the cross-town rivals of the Bears. Upon completing his doctorate in 1928, he ... a teaching position at the University of Chicago, where he ... his own research and the work of Mead. Blumer was the secretary treasurer of the American Sociological Association from 1930-1935, and was the editor of the American Journal of Sociology from 1941-1952. In 1952, he ... from the University of Chicago, and ... and ... the newly-formed Sociology Department at the University of California, Berkeley. In 1952, he ... the president of the American Sociological Association, and he ... the association's award for a Career of Distinguished Scholarship in 1983. Herbert Blumer ... on April 13, 1987.

(From wikipedia)

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Comment on the sayings:

- 1) Symbolic interactionists contend that society is possible because human beings have the ability to communicate with one another by means of symbols.
- 2) We experience the world as constructed reality.

Exercise 2. Share in groups, prepare your own group report on *Movies and Conduct* and present it from your group in class.

Another of Blumer's best-known studies was part of the Payne Fund research project, which was a result of fears about the effect of movies on children and young adults. The project included more than 18 social scientists who produced eleven published reports. In Blumer's study, *Movies and Conduct* (1933), more than fifteen hundred college and high school students wrote autobiographies of their movie-going experiences. He uncovered that movies teach children things about life: attitudes, hairstyles, how to kiss, even how to pickpocket.

Text 8

SOCIAL COMMUNICATION

If they are to adapt to their environment, human beings must be able to communicate with one another. Indeed, all social interaction involves communication. Communication refers to the process by which people transmit information, ideas, attitudes, and mental states to one another. It includes all those verbal and nonverbal processes by which we send and receive messages. Without the ability to communicate, each human being would be locked within a private world. Communication allows us to establish "commonness" with one another so that senders and receivers can come together through a given message. Communication is an indispensable mechanism by which human beings attain social goals. It permits them to coordinate complex group activities, and as such it is the foundation for institutional life.

Verbal Communication. Language has enabled human beings alone of all animals to transcend biological evolution. Whereas biological evolution works only

through genes, cultural evolution takes place through the linguistic transmission of information. For example, evolutionary processes took millions of years to fashion amphibians – creatures that can live on land or in water. In contrast, second amphibians – astronauts who can live in the earth's atmosphere or in the space outside it – have "evolved" in a comparatively short period of time. Human anatomy did not alter so that people could live in space. Rather, human beings increased their knowledge to the point where they could employ it to complement and supplement their anatomy. They were able to make themselves spaceworthy.

What is the source of this amazing human facility? For years many social scientists asserted that infants come into the world essentially unprogrammed for language use. But then linguists began noticing similarities in languages throughout the world. It seems that all languages have nouns and verbs and allow individuals to ask questions, give commands, and deny statements. Moreover, children acquire language with little difficulty, despite the fact that they must master an incredibly complex and abstract set of rules for transforming strings of sounds into meanings. Even deaf children have a strong bias to communicate in languagelike ways. And speakers can understand and produce an infinite set of sentences, even sentences they have never before heard or uttered.

In 1957, the eminent linguist Noam Chomsky put these observations together to suggest that human beings possess an inborn language-generating mechanism, what he terms the language acquisition device. The basic structure of language is biologically channeled, forming a sort of prefabricated filing system to order the words and phrases that make up human languages. All a child needs to do is learn the peculiarities of his or her society's language.

Chomsky's hypothesis has attracted interest as well as controversy. Social scientists have pointed out that simply because a biological predisposition for the development of language may be anchored in the human brain does not mean that environmental factors play no part in the acquisition of language. For instance, children do not seem to learn language simply by hearing it spoken. Two cases highlight the point. A boy with normal hearing but with deaf parents who communicated by the American Sign Language was exposed daily to television, with the expectation that he would learn English. Because he suffered from asthma, he was confined to his home, where his interactions were limited to people who communicated in sign language. By the time he was 3, he was fluent in sign language, but he neither understood nor spoke English.

Similarly, a child born with a nonfunctioning immune system was kept in a germ-free bubble environment for the first four years of his life, when a bone marrow transplant provided him with a normal immune response and allowed him to return home. During his years of isolation, he communicated with the outside world by means of gestures. When released from the hospital environment, he had considerable difficulty using language and rarely initiated a conversation. Although the child had been encouraged to speak while hospitalized, his life in isolation had not provided a context in which to use language. These cases suggest that to learn a language, children must be able to *interact* with people in that language.

In sum, the acquiring of language cannot be understood by examining genetic factors and learning processes in isolation from one another. Instead, complex and dynamic interactions occur among biochemical processes, maturational factors, learning strategies, and the social environment. No aspect by itself can produce a language-using human being.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

amphibian [æm'fɪbrən] – амфібія, земноводне
to be anchored – закріплюватися
bone marrow – кістковий мозок
commonness ['kɒmənɪs] – буденність
to assert – стверджувати
to be channeled – відбуватися з (якогось джерела)
to complement – доповнювати
to deny – заперечувати, відкидати
eminent [ˈemɪnənt] – видатний
filing ['faɪlɪŋ] – систематизований
germ-free – знешкоджений, продезінфікований; *тут.* стерильний
incredibly [ɪn'kredəblɪ] – неправдоподібно; неймовірно
indispensable [ˌɪndɪ'spensəb(ə)l] – необхідний, обов'язковий
to put together – з'єднувати, складати
spaceworthy – космічного застосування
strings of sounds – серії звуків
to transcend – переступати межі (кордони)
to utter [ˈʌtə] – висловлювати словами; вимовляти

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions:

1. What does social interaction involve? 2. Which process does communication refer to? 3. When would each human being be locked within a private world? 4. What allows us to establish “commonness” with one another? 5. What has enabled human beings to transcend biological evolution? 6. What did linguists begin noticing throughout the world? 7. What did Noam Chomsky suggest putting these observations together? 8. Why cannot the acquiring of language be understood by examining genetic factors and learning processes in isolation from one another?

Exercise 2. Give Ukrainian equivalents of the following.

Verbal communication, to adapt to the environment, social interaction, to involve, to transmit information, the ability to communicate, to be locked within a private world, an indispensable mechanism, to attain social goals, to employ, to assert, moreover, to acquire a language, a set of rules, eminent, to possess an inborn language-generating mechanism, to be biologically channeled, to attract interest, to point out, to be

anchored in the human brain, the acquisition of language, to be kept in a germ-free bubble environment, by examining genetic factors.

Exercise 3. Give English equivalents of the following and use them in the sentences of your own.

Видатний лінгвіст, пристосуватися до навколишнього середовища, усне повідомлення, передавати інформацію, необхідний механізм, лінгвістична передача інформації, стверджувати, вивчаючи генетичні фактори, відкидати формулювання, набір правил, серії звуків, оволодіти мовою, незважаючи на факт, вимовляти, володіти вродженим мовотворчим механізмом, основна структура мови, викликати інтерес.

Exercise 4. Agree or disagree.

1. Communication refers to the process by which people transmit dynamic interplay to one another.
2. Communication isn't an indispensable mechanism by which human beings attain social goals.
3. Whereas biological evolution works only through genes, cultural evolution takes place through the algorithmic transmission of information.
4. For years many social scientists asserted that infants come into the world essentially programmed for language use.
5. Children acquire language with little difficulty.

Exercise 5. Complete the following sentences:

1. Communication refers to the process by which.....
2. Communication is an indispensable mechanism by which.....
3. Whereas biological evolution works only through genes, cultural evolution takes place through.....
4. It seems that all languages have nouns and verbs and allow.....
5. Chomsky's hypothesis has attracted interest as well as.....
6. During his years of isolation, he communicated with.....
7. The acquiring of language cannot be understood by.....

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Make the written analysis of the text and present it to your class mates.

Exercise 2. Prove the fact that complex and dynamic interactions occur among biochemical processes, maturational factors, learning strategies and social environment.

Text 9

SOCIAL STRUCTURE

Earlier we noted that culture has to do with the customs of a people, and society with the people who are practicing the customs. Culture supplies the framework that allows people to interpret events and guide their actions; society consists of the actual web of relationships that people enter into as they go about their daily activities. For the most part, people do not interact in a haphazard or random manner. Rather, their relationships are characterized by social ordering. Sociologists apply the term **social structure** to this social ordering – the interweaving of people's interactions and relationships in recurrent and stable patterns. It finds expression in a matrix of social positions and the distribution of people in them.

Social structure provides an organized and focused quality to our group experiences. By virtue of social structure, we link certain of our experiences, terming them, for example, "the family," "the church," "the neighborhood," and "General Motors." In somewhat similar fashion, we perceive physical aspects of our experience as structures – parts organized into wholes – and not as isolated elements. For example, when we look at a building, we do not simply see lumber, shingles, bricks, glass, and other components, but a house; when we look at a tailless amphibian, we do not merely see bulging eyes, smooth spotted skin, and long hind legs, but a frog. In so doing we relate an experience to other experiences in terms of some larger, more inclusive context.

Social structure gives us the feeling that life is characterized by organization and stability. For example, consider the social structure of your college. Each semester you enter new classes, yet you have little difficulty attuning yourself to unfamiliar classmates and professors. Courses in Sociology, Calculus, American History, English Composition, and Physical Education are offered year after year. A new class enters college each fall, and another class graduates each spring. Football games are scheduled for Saturday afternoons in the autumn and basketball games for evenings during the winter months. Deans prepare budgets, allocate funds, and manage their academic domains. All the while new students, professors, coaches, players, and deans pass through the system and in due course make their exits. Yet even though the actual people that comprise a college change over time, the college endures. Likewise, a clique, a family, a rock band, an army, a business organization, a religious group, and a nation are social structures. Social structure, then, consists of the recurrent and orderly relationships that prevail among the members of a group or society.

Sociologists view social structure as a *social fact* of the sort described by Emile Durkheim. We experience a social fact as external to ourselves – as an independent reality that forms a part of our objective environment. Consequently, social structures constrain our behavior and channel our actions in certain directions. When you entered *college for the first time*, you felt somewhat awkward because as yet you did not fit into your college's way of doing things. The college's way is social structure, the shape or form that a particular organization has taken through the years as students, professors, and administrators have interacted on a regular basis.

Although we use motionless structural terms as a convenient means for describing and analyzing social life, we should not allow this practice to blind us to the dynamic and changing qualities of social structure. A college is not a fixed entity that, once created, continues to operate perpetually in the same manner. All social ordering must be continually created and re-created through the interweaving and stabilizing of social relationships. For this reason, organized social life is always undergoing modification and change.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

to allocate [ˈæləkeɪt] – розподіляти
to attune [əˈtju:n] – привчати, пристосовувати
bulging [ˈbʌldʒɪŋ] – випнутий
calculus [ˈkælkjʊləs] – диференціальне та інтегральне обчислення
clique [kli:k] – угруповання, банда
custom – звичай
to endure [ɪnˈdʒʊə] – винести, витримати
entity [ˈentɪti] – існування, даність, сутність
framework – структура, будова
haphazard [ˌhæpˈhæzəd] – випадковий, необдуманий
hind [haɪnd] legs – задні ноги
to interact – взаємодіяти, впливати
to interweave [ˌɪntəˈwi:v] – вплітати, перемішувати
interweaving – переплітаються, вплітаються
lumber [ˈlʌmbə] – лісоматеріал
motionless – нерухомий
to note – помітити, звертати увагу
perceive [pəˈsi:v] – розуміти, усвідомлювати, досягти
perpetually – безстроково, постійно
to prevail – переважати
recurrent [rɪˈkʌrənt] – повторюється
shingle [ˈʃɪŋɡ(ə)l] – гравій
to undergo – відчувати, переносити, піддаватися
by virtue [ˈvɜ:tju:] of – за допомогою

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What does culture have to do with? 2. Culture supplies the framework that allows people to interpret events and guide their actions, doesn't it? 3. What does society consist of? 4. Don't people interact in a haphazard or random manner? 5. Do sociologists apply the term social structure to the social ordering? 6. What does social structure provide? 7. Do we perceive physical aspects of our experience as structures? 8. We don't relate an experience to other experiences in terms of some larger, more

inclusive context, do we? 9. What is life characterized by? 10. What does then social structure consist of? 11. How do sociologists view social structure? 12. How do we experience a social fact? 13. What do we use for describing and analyzing social life? 14. All social ordering must be continually created and re-created through the interweaving and stabilizing of social relationships, mustn't it? 15. Is organized social life always undergoing modification and change?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

To do with the customs of a people, to practice the customs, to supply the framework, to interpret events and guide actions, the actual web of relationships, to interact in a haphazard or random manner, to go about daily activities, social ordering, the interweaving of people's interactions and relationships in recurrent and stable patterns, to provide an organized and focused quality, in similar fashion, to perceive physical aspects of our experience as structures, to relate an experience to other experiences, more inclusive context, to be characterized by an organization, to attune oneself to unfamiliar classmates and professors, to be scheduled for, to prepare budgets, to allocate funds, to manage academic domains, in due course, to form a part of our objective environment, to interact on a regular basis, to use motionless structural terms, to describe and analyze social life, to blind smb. to the dynamic and changing qualities of social structure, a fixed entity, to operate perpetually in the same manner, interweaving and stabilizing of social relationships, to undergo modification and change.

Exercise 3. Use your knowledge and do the quiz. Use reference books and dictionaries if necessary.

1. Social structures constrain our _____.
 - a. solidarity
 - b. expectation
 - c. behaviour
 - d. obligation

2. The underlying patterns of social relationship in a group are called
 - a. culture
 - b. status set
 - c. social structure
 - d. social interaction

3. A(n) _____ status is a position that strongly affects most other aspects of a person's life.
 - a. achieved
 - b. ascribed
 - c. primary
 - d. master

4. Gender is an example of _____.
- an ascribed status
 - an achieved status
 - a master status
 - a status set
5. The process of influencing each other as people relate is called _____.
- role performance
 - role strain
 - role interaction
 - social structure
6. _____ exists when the performance of a role in one status contradicts the performance of a role in another status.
- Role performance
 - Role strain
 - Role interaction
 - Role conflict
7. Mechanization and urbanization are features of _____ societies.
- agricultural
 - pastoral
 - industrial
 - postindustrial
8. A(n) _____ is a behavior that individuals are expected to perform towards others.
- obligation
 - right
 - role
 - expectation
9. A type of social unity in which members' interdependence is based on specialized functions and statuses is _____.
- organic solidarity
 - mechanical solidarity
 - social solidarity
 - functional solidarity
10. A(n) _____ society is one that survives primarily through the growing of plants.
- hunting and gathering
 - horticultural
 - pastoral
 - agricultural

DEVELOPING LANGUAGE SKILLS

Exercise 1. Translate the following sentences. Use a dictionary, if necessary.

1. Соціальна група являє собою будь-яку сукупність людей, виділених за соціально значимими критеріями.
2. Соціальна структура дає нам відчуття, що життя характеризується стабільністю.
3. Соціальна система являє собою цілісну структуру, основним елементом якої є люди, їх взаємодії, відносини і зв'язки.
4. Соціальне становище – це узагальнена характеристика, яка охоплює професію, економічне становище, політичні можливості, демографічні властивості людини.
5. Соціальна система – це сукупність соціальних явищ і процесів, які знаходяться у відносинах і зв'язку між собою та утворюють деякий цілісний соціальний об'єкт.
6. Соціальна структура – це сукупність взаємопов'язаних елементів, що становлять внутрішню будову суспільства.

Exercise 2. Fill in the gaps with the corresponding adjectives from the box.

emotional, normative, inter-related, proper, varied, accepted, social, different
--

Elements of Social Structure

.... system presents the society with the ideals and values. The people attach ... importance to these norms. The institutions and associations are ... according to these norms. The individuals perform their roles in accordance with the ... norms of society.

Position system refers to the statuses and roles of the individuals. The desires, aspirations and expectations of the individuals are ..., multiple and unlimited. So these can be fulfilled only if the members of the society are assigned ... roles according to their capacities and capabilities. Actually the proper functioning of ... structure depends upon proper assignments of roles and statues.

For the ... enforcement of norms, every society has a sanction system. The integration and coordination of the different parts of social structure depend upon conformity of social norms. The stability of a social structure depends upon the effectiveness of its sanction system.

(From www.sociologyguide.com)

Exercise 3. Ask all possible questions to the following sentences:

1. Social structure denotes patterns which change more slowly than the particular personnel who constitute them.
2. The stability of a social structure depends upon the effectiveness of its sanction system.
3. Talcott Parsons has described 4 principal types of social structure.

4. Universalistic social values are those which are found almost in every society and are applicable to everybody.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Look through the text. Give the main points of each paragraph of the text. Use “deals with” + word-combinations given below.

E.g. The first (second, third...) paragraph of the text deals with...

The framework; an organized and focused quality; organization and stability; an independent reality; undergoing modification and change.

Exercise 2. Imagine you have received the task to make an open lecture entitled “Relationships of people are characterized by social ordering”. What problems can you discuss in it?

Text 10 STATUSES

In our daily conversations, we use the word "status" to refer to a person's ranking as determined by wealth, influence, and prestige. However, sociologists employ status somewhat differently to mean a position within a group or society. It is by means of statuses that we locate one another in various social structures. Mother, mayor, priest, friend, supervisor, male, captain, child, Cuban-American, customer, professor, and convict are all statuses.

A status has been likened to a ready-made suit of clothes. Within certain limits, the prospective buyer can choose regarding matters of style and fabric. But an American is not free to choose the costume of a Chinese peasant or that of a Hindu prince. We must choose from among the suits presented by our society. Furthermore, our choice is limited to a size that will fit, as well as by our pocketbooks. Having made our choice within these limits, we can have certain alterations made. But apart from minor modifications, we tend to be limited to what retailers already have on their racks. Statuses too come ready-made, and the range of choice among them is limited. Societies commonly limit competition for statuses with reference to gender, age, and social affiliations. For instance, realistically, not every American can be elected president. Women, blacks, and members of the lower class suffer severe handicaps from the outset. This observation brings us to a consideration of ascribed and achieved statuses.

Ascribed and Achieved Statuses. We have greater control over some of our statuses than others. Some statuses are assigned to us by our group or society and termed ascribed statuses. Age and sex are common reference points for the ascription of statuses. For instance, one cannot legally drive a car (age 16 or 17), vote (age 18), become president (age 35), or receive social security retirement benefits (age 62)

without being the requisite age. Race, religion, family background, and socio-economic status are also common bases for assigning statuses to individuals.

Other statuses we secure on the basis of individual choice and competition. We call these achieved statuses. No society ignores the fact that individuals differ from one another, and all societies recognize individual accomplishment and failure. This fact is reflected in the allocation of some statuses on the basis of individual achievement. Quarterback, choir director, physician, actor, college student, church deacon, county sheriff, pickpocket, president of Exxon, coach, and scuba diver are illustrations of achieved statuses.

Master Statuses. Some of our statuses overshadow other of our statuses both in our own minds and in those of other people as well. A master status is a key or core status that carries primary weight in a person's interactions and relationships with others. For children, age is a master status; similarly, sex is a master status in most societies. Additionally, race and occupation are particularly critical statuses in American life. Master statuses tend to lay the framework within which our goals are formulated and our training is carried out.

A status carries with it a set of culturally defined rights and duties, what sociologists term a role. These expectations define the behavior people view as appropriate and inappropriate for the occupant of a status. Quite simply, the difference between a status and a role is that we *occupy* a status and *play* a role.

Sociologists have taken the notion of role from the theater, an analogy suggested by William Shakespeare in *As You Like It* (Act II, Scene 7):

*All the world's 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.*

Actors perform their roles in accordance with a script (analogous to culture), what the other actors say and do, and the reactions of the audience. But the theater analogy also has its weaknesses. Whereas the theater is a world of make-believe, in life our parts are real. And as we go about our daily activities, we are seldom conscious of "acting" according to a script. Moreover, in life we must do a good deal of improvising, continually testing and changing our actions in accordance with the behavior of other people.

Roles allow us to formulate our behavior mentally so we can shape our actions in appropriate ways. In doing so, we collect the particulars of an unfolding situation and identify *who does what, when, and where*. Roles permit us to assume that in some respects we can ignore personal differences and say that for practical matters people are interchangeable. For example, every American "knows" that a physician is "a person who treats sick people" and a carpenter is "a person who uses lumber to build houses." In sum, roles enable us to collapse or telescope a range of behaviors into manageable bundles.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

affiliation [əˌfɪlɪ'eɪʃ(ə)n] – приєднання, приналежність до організації; членство
alteration [ˌɔ:lteɪ'reɪʃ(ə)n] – зміна, переробка, перешивання одягу
apart from – крім того; не кажучи про
ascription [ə'skrɪpʃ(ə)n] – соціальне походження
ascribed – приписуваний
assign – присвоювати, призначати
benefits – перевага, користь, вигода
choir [ˈkwaɪə] – хор
conscious [ˈkɒnʃəs] – усвідомлює, розуміє
convict – визнати винним, засудити
deacon [ˈdi:k(ə)n] – священик, диякон
handicap [ˈhændɪkæp] – перешкода, фізичний недолік
to liken [ˈlaɪkən] – знаходити схожість, прирівнювати
lumber – ліс, пиломатеріали
mayor – мер
a master status – статус магістра, вчителя
outset – початок
peasant – селянин
prestige – [pre'sti:ʒ] репутація, авторитет, престиж
priest [praɪst] – священик
quarterback [ˈkwɔ:təbæk] – захисник (футбол)
rack – вішалка
requisite [ˈrekwɪzɪt] – вимагається; необхідний
retailer – роздрібний торговець
retirement [rɪ'taɪəmənt] – вихід у відставку або на пенсію
scuba [ˈsk(j)u:bə] diver – аквалангіст, водолаз
unfolding – розгортуваний; відкриваний
wealth [welθ] – багатство, добробут

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What do we refer the word “status” to? 2. What do sociologists mean employing status? 3. Has a status been likened to a ready-made suit of clothes? Why? 4. What do societies limit competition for statuses to? 5. What are ascribed statuses? 6. What statuses are called achieved statuses? 7. Is a master status a core status? Why? 8. What is termed a role? 9. Where have sociologists taken the notion of role from? 10. How do roles allow us to formulate our behavior?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

Daily conversations, to refer to, a person's ranking, to be determined by, to employ status, to locate one another in various social structures, to be likened to a ready-

made suit of clothes, within certain limits, furthermore, to fit, to have certain alterations made, apart from, minor modifications, to be limited to, retailers, racks, the range of choice, with reference to age, to come ready-made, social affiliations, to suffer severe handicaps from the outset, to bring smb. to a consideration, ascribed and achieved statuses, to have greater control over some of statuses, to drive legally, to be the requisite age, common bases, to assign statuses to individuals, secure other statuses, to recognize individual accomplishment and failure, individual achievement, to be reflected in, master statuses, to overshadow, a key or core status, to carry primary weight in a person's interactions, particularly critical statuses, to tend to lay the framework, to carry out training, culturally defined rights and duties, to term, to occupy a status, to play a role, to suggest an analogy, to perform roles in accordance with a script, a world of make-believe, to be conscious of, to formulate our behavior mentally, to collect the particulars of an unfolding situation, to collapse a range of behaviors into manageable bundles, to telescope.

Exercise 2. Multiple choice:

Sociologists employ status somewhat differently to mean

- a) a content of culture
- b) a position within a group or society
- c) social inequality

Our choice of suits presented by our society is limited to

- a) a choice of a Chinese peasant or that of Hindu Prince.
- b) people's interactions and relationships
- c) a size that will fit, as well as by our pocketbook

... carries with it a set of culturally defined rights and duties.

- a) A status
- b) Observation
- c) Individual choice

DEVELOPING LANGUAGE SKILLS

Exercise 1. Insert the corresponding nouns into the gaps from the box:

stratification, system, position, person, honour, prestige, scale, militant, worth, status, term, study, behavior, rank, types, people, difference

The term “status” has two sociological uses:

1. R. Linton (1936) defined ... simply as a in a social, such as child or parent. Status refers to what a ... is, whereas the closely linked notion of role refers to the expected of ... in a status.
2. Status is also used as a ... for honor or, when social status denotes the relative position of a person on a publicly recognized ... or hierarchy of social

3. It is the first meaning of the ... status, status as position, which we are going to refer to in the following paragraphs. Status as ...or prestige is a part of the ... of social

4. A status is simply a ... or position that one holds in a group. One occupies the status of son or daughter, playmate, pupil, radical, ... and so on. Eventually one occupies the statuses of husband, mother bread-winner, cricket fan, and so on, one has as many statuses as there are groups of which one is a member. For analytical purposes, statuses are divided into two basic

5. Thebetween a status and a role is that we occupy a status and play a role.

Exercise 2. Ask all possible questions to the following sentences:

1. Ascribed statuses exist in all societies and include those based upon sex, age, race ethnic group and family background.
2. Similarly, power, prestige, privileges, and obligations always are differentially distributed in societies by the age of the participants.
3. Pre-modern China, by contrast, attached the highest value to old age and required extreme subordination of children.
4. The number and rigidity of ascribed statuses vary from one society to another.
5. Those societies in which many statuses are rigidly prescribed and relatively unchangeable are called caste societies, or at least, caste like.

Exercise 3. Translate the following sentences. Use a dictionary if necessary.

1. Ми створюємо групи в ході соціальної взаємодії, об'єднуючи людей у соціальні осередки: сім'ї, команди, національності, раси, професійні спілки, клуби, корпорації тощо.

2. Групи утворюють структуру, в рамках якої здійснюється наша повсякденна участь у житті.

3. Соціальна структура припускає наявність постійних і впорядкованих взаємозв'язків між членами групи або суспільства.

4. Проте соціологи під статусом розуміють соціальну позицію людини в рамках групи або суспільства, пов'язаної з певними її правами та обов'язками.

5. Суспільства зазвичай лімітують конкурентну боротьбу за статус залежно від статі і віку людини, його соціальної приналежності.

6. Статус, успадкований від народження, природжений називається приписуваним (аскриптивним). Загальноприйнятими критеріями приписуваного статусу є вік і стать.

7. Статус, що індивід досягає у суспільстві завдяки його власним зусиллям, називається досягнутим.

8. Основний статус – це ключовий статус, що визначає соціальне становище і значення людини, пов'язане з певними його правами та обов'язками.

9. Статус припускає наявність певних соціальних культурних прав і обов'язків, які формують модель поведінки – те, що соціологи називають роллю.

10. Професор, диригент хору, лікар, актор, студент університету, священник, міліціонер, кишеньковий злодій, президент компанії, тренер і аквалангіст – все це приклади досягнутого статусу.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Summarize what you have learned. Try to answer and discuss the following questions:

- What is the underlying pattern of social relationship in a group?
- What does it help us to know?
- What major elements of social structure do you know?
- What does a status describe?
- What statuses do you know?
- What does an expected behavior associated with?
- What do roles describe?
- What does a conflict result from?

Text 11 ROLE PERFORMANCE

A role is the *expected* behavior we associate with a status. **Role performance** is the *actual* behavior of the person who occupies a status. In real life a gap often exists between what people should do and what they actually do. And people vary in how they implement the rights and duties associated with their roles. You frequently take such differences into account when you select one professor over another for a given course.

One professor may have the reputation for coming late to class, lecturing in a relaxed, informal manner, and assigning difficult term papers. Another professor may be a distinguished authority in the field, monitor class attendance, and assign take-home examinations. Regardless of which professor you select, you will still occupy the status of student and play its associated role. However, you will have to modify your behavior somewhat depending upon your selection.

Role Set. A single status may have multiple roles attached to it, constituting a **role set**. Consider your status as a student. The status of student involves one role as a pupil, one role as a peer of other students, one role as a loyal supporter of your school's teams, one role as a user of the library, and one role as a "good citizen" of the college community. In fact, a role does not exist in isolation. Instead, it is a bundle of activities that are meshed with the activities of other people. For this reason, there can be no professors without students, no wives without husbands, no blacks without whites, and no patients without physicians.

Roles impinge on us as sets of norms that define our **duties** – the actions others can legitimately insist that we perform – and our **rights** – the actions we can legitimately insist that others perform. Every role has at least one reciprocal role attached to it. Hence, the rights of one role are the duties of the other role. For instance, your rights as a student – to receive authoritative material in lectures, to be administered fair exams, and to be graded objectively – are the duties of your professor. And your duties – to read assigned materials, take exams, and attend classes – are your professor's rights.

One way individuals are linked together in groups is through networks of reciprocal roles. Role relationships tie us to one another because the rights of one end of the relationship are the expectations of the other. Groups consist of intricate complexes of interlocking roles, which their members sustain in the course of interacting with one another. People experience these stable relationships as social structure – a school, a hospital, a family, a gang, an army, and so on.

Role Conflict. **Role conflict** results when individuals are confronted with conflicting expectations stemming from their simultaneous occupancy of two or more statuses. A football coach whose son is a member of the team may experience role conflict when deciding whether to make his own son or another more talented player the starting quarterback. Black police officers at times are placed in a somewhat similar dilemma when their supervisors expect them to be loyal to the police department and blacks expect them to be loyal to the black community. Some college students report that they experience role conflict when their parents pay them a campus visit. They feel they are "on stage" before two audiences holding somewhat contradictory expectations of them. One way to handle role conflict is to subdivide or compartmentalize one's life and assume only one of the incompatible roles at a time. For instance, college students may attempt to segregate their school and home experiences so they do not have to appear before their parents and peers simultaneously.

Role Strain. **Role strain** occurs when individuals find the expectations of a single role incompatible, so that they have difficulty performing the role. Consider the relationship physicians have with their patients. Doctors are expected to be gentle healers, humanitarians, self-sacrificing saviors of the sick. Simultaneously, they are expected to be small-business retailers of knowledge that they have obtained at considerable cost and sacrifice. While aggressive bill collecting is consistent with the small-business-retailer aspects of the role, it is inconsistent with that of the gentle healer. Supervisors often confront similar difficulties. They wonder: "Should I be a good Joe and mix with my staff, or should I maintain my distance from them?" They are asked to be both commanding parent figures and reassuring, comforting big brothers or sisters. For the most part there are few well-defined or accepted answers to the dilemmas posed by these contradictory expectations.

GROUPS

Statuses and roles are building blocks for more comprehensive social structures, including groups. Sociologists view a **group** as two or more people who share a feeling of unity and who are bound together in relatively stable patterns of social interaction. As previously pointed out, roles link us within social relationships. When these relationships are sustained across time, we frequently assign group properties to them. Four things usually happen as a result of these attributions. First, we come to think of the relationships as encompassed by boundaries, so that people are either "inside" or "outside" a group. Second, we attribute an "objective" existence to groups and treat them as if they are real and exact things. Third, we view a group as having a distinct subculture or counterculture – a set of unique norms and values. And fourth, we develop a sense of allegiance to a group that leads us to feel we are a unit with a distinct identity.

A group is more than a collection of people. Sociologists distinguish it from an aggregate, which is simply a collection of anonymous individuals who are in one place at the same time. Shoppers in a mall, individuals waiting in line for football tickets, an audience at a concert, and a crowd watching a hockey game are examples of aggregates. Individuals shift in and out of an aggregate rather easily and frequently. Since the people interact with one another only transiently and temporarily, patterns of social ordering are short-lived. However, this quality should not lead us to dismiss aggregates as inconsequential. They provide the foundation for many forms of collective behavior.

A group also differs from a category, a collection of people who share a characteristic that is deemed to be of social significance. Common categories include age, race, sex, occupation, and educational attainment. Often categories are little more than statistical groupings. However, information regarding such categories can have important uses. For instance, if we know the age distribution of a population, we can make projections that anticipate the demand for various social services, including social security and Medicare benefits. Further, people who are aware that they share certain traits may be motivated to interact. They may even establish organizations to advance their common interests. For example, some women have banded together in the League of Women Voters and NOW (National Organization for Women) by virtue of an awareness that they are a social category that shares certain problems.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

aggregate [ˈægrɪgeɪt] – сукупність
 allegiance [əˈliːdʒ(ə)ns] – вірність, лояльність, відданість, прив'язаність
 to anticipate – очікувати, передбачати
 to assign – задавати, доручати (завдання, роботу)
 attendance – присутність, відвідуваність
 awareness – обізнаність, інформованість, усвідомленість
 to band – об'єднувати
 healer – цілитель, знахар
 a bundle – набір
 by virtue of – в силу
 campus – територія університету, коледжу
 comprehensive [ˌkɒmpriˈhensɪv] – всеосяжний, вичерпний, всебічний
 contradictory [ˌkɒntrəˈdɪkt(ə)rɪ] – суперечливий
 to deem – вважати, думати, вважати
 distinguished authority – відома особа
 a football coach – футбольний тренер
 gang – банда, ватага (згряя)
 gap – проміжок; розбіжність; розрив
 to impinge on [ɪmˈpɪndʒ] – настовхуватися на що-небудь
 to implement – виконувати, здійснювати
 informal manner – неофіційний спосіб (образ)
 to insist – наполягати

interlocking – з'єднаний; взаємозалежний
 intricate [ˈɪntrɪkət] – заплутаний, складний
 Joe – хлопець, малий
 to be meshed with – не суперечити
 to monitor – контролювати, стежити, спостерігати
 peer – рівня, тотожний, однаковий
 physician [fɪˈzɪʃ(ə)n] – лікар-терапевт, доктор
 reassuring – повторно запевняючи; заспокоюючи
 reciprocal [rɪˈsɪrək(ə)l] – взаємний
 to segregate [ˈsegɪɡ(e)ɪt] – відокремлювати, виділяти, ізолювати
 self-sacrificing savior [ˈseɪviə] – самопожертвуючий рятівник
 to stem – відбуватися, виникати
 stemming – виникнувший, відбутися
 to subdivide – підрозділяти
 to sustain [səˈsteɪn] – підтримувати, підтверджувати

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What is a role? 2. What is role performance? 3. What happens in real life? Illustrate. 4. When will you have to modify your behavior? 5. What constitutes a role set? 6. Does a role exist in isolation? 7. What do roles impinge on us? 8. Every role has at least one reciprocal role attached to it, doesn't it? 9. What are reciprocal roles? 10. What do people experience as social structure? 11. When does a role conflict result? 12. How can you handle a role conflict? 13. Does role strain occur when individuals find the expectations of a single role incompatible? 14. Are there few well-defined or accepted answers to the dilemmas posed by these contradictory expectations? 15. What are statuses and roles? 16. How do sociologists view a group? 17. What happens when relationships are sustained across time? 18. A group is more than a collection of people, isn't it? Give examples. 19. What provides the foundation for many forms of collective behavior? 20. What do common categories include?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

The expected behavior, to associate, role performance, to implement the rights and duties associated with roles, to take such differences into account frequently, a given course, to be a distinguished authority in the field, to monitor class attendance, to assign take-home examinations, associated role, to exist in isolation, reciprocal role, to be administered fair, to read assigned materials, to attend classes, to be linked together in groups, intricate complexes of interlocking roles, to sustain, to confront with conflicting expectations, to stem from, simultaneous occupancy of two or more statuses, a somewhat similar dilemma, to be loyal to, to pay a visit, contradictory expectations, to segregate school and home experiences, role strain, self-sacrificing saviors, to obtain at a considerable cost and sacrifice, to be consistent with, to confront similar difficulties, to share a feeling of unity, relatively stable patterns of

social interaction, to assign group properties to, to sustain relationships across time, to point out, to be encompassed by boundaries, to have a distinct subculture, a set of unique norms and values, a sense of allegiance, a unit with a distinct identity, to shift in and out of an aggregate, inconsequential, to provide the foundation for, to be of social significance, to make projections, to anticipate the demand for various social services, to share certain traits, to advance common interests.

DEVELOPING LANGUAGE SKILLS

Exercise 1. Translate the following sentences. Use a dictionary if necessary.

1. Один статус може мати деяке число пов'язаних з ним ролей, утворюючи рольовий набір.
2. Обов'язки студента – вивчати призначений матеріал, складати іспити і відвідувати заняття – є правами викладача.
3. Рольові відносини пов'язують нас один з одним тому, що права взаємовідношень на одній стороні є вимогами на іншій.
4. Групи складаються з складних комплексів сплетених ролей, які члени груп відіграють в процесі взаємодії.
5. Рольовий конфлікт виникає в тому випадку, коли індивіди стикаються з суперечливими вимогами, які обумовлені одночасним володінням двома або більше статусами.
6. Рольова напруженість – це ситуація, за якої одна роль пред'являє людині суперечливі вимоги і їй стає важко виконувати цю роль.
7. Соціологи називають групою двох або більше індивідів, які мають спільні погляди і пов'язані один з одним відносно стійкими моделями соціальної взаємодії.
8. Ролі об'єднують нас в межах соціальних відносин.
9. Коли ці відносини підтримуються протягом тривалого часу, їм приписують властивості групи.
10. Соціологи відрізняють групу від агрегату - просто набору анонімних осіб, що знаходяться в одному місці в один і той самий час.
11. Група також відрізняється і від категорії – збори людей з одними загальними властивостями, які розцінюються як соціально значущі. Звичайні категорії – це зібрання людей певного віку, раси, статі, роду занять та рівня освіти.

Exercise 2. Find the corresponding ending from each of the sentences. Mind subject and verb agreement.

- | | |
|-------------------------|---|
| 1. A social group | a. often give rise to social groups, as for example, social classes give rise to political parties. |
| 2. The definition | b. have been called quasi-groups or groupings. |
| 3. Frequent interaction | c. are among the most stable and enduring of social units. |

- | | |
|---|---|
| 4. This similarity and the interaction | d. is all social groups. |
| 5. Each group | e. cause them to identify with one another. |
| 6. Groups | f. maintains solidarity with all to other groups and other types of social systems. |
| 7. Thus, a family, a village, a political party a trade union | g. leads people to share values and beliefs. |
| 8. These | h. are different from social classes, status groups or crowds. |
| 9. They | i. is simple enough, but it has significant implications. |
| 10. Quasi-groups | j. consists of two or more people who interact with one another and who recognize themselves as a distinct social unit. |

Exercise 3. Ask questions to the highlighted parts of the sentences.

- Groups** are important both **to their members** and to the society **at large**.
- The distinction** between social groups and quasi-groups is **fluid and variable**.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Use speech patterns while discussing the information in the text.

The information deals with... .

It should be mentioned... .

Therefore... .

Touching upon this problem... .

We can come to conclusion... .

Exercise 2. Read the following passage.

Industrial and Postindustrial Societies. Industrial societies differ from earlier societies in that they depend on science and technology to produce basic goods and services. In postindustrial societies the economic emphasis is on providing services and information. Some sociologists believe that the transition from an industrial to a postindustrial society has increased social instability.

What do you think of it?

Exercise 3. Present your answers for the following questions:

- *How do leaders emerge within groups?*
- *How do groups influence individual perception and behavior?*
- *How is group decision-making different from individual decision-making?*
- *What is the difference between primary and secondary groups?*
- *How important is social support to the quality and length of life?*

Text 12

INSTITUTIONS

Groups assume a particularly important part in institutional life. Sociologists view **institutions** as the principal instruments whereby the essential tasks of living are organized, directed, and executed. Each institution is built about a standardized solution to a set of problems. The family institution has as its chief focus the reproduction, socialization, and maintenance of children; the economic institution, the production and distribution of goods and services; the political institution, the protection of citizens from one another and from foreign enemies; the religious institution, the enhancement of social solidarity and consensus; and the educational institution, the transmission of the cultural heritage from one generation to the next. Admittedly this classification oversimplifies matters. An institution may perform more than one function, and several institutions may contribute to the performance of the same function.

As sociologists typically define an institution, it encompasses both the notion of cultural patterns and social structure. Thus institutions constitute (1) the more or less standardized solutions (cultural patterns) that serve to direct people in meeting the problems of social living, and (2) the relatively stable relationships that characterize people in actually implementing these solutions. Conceived in this way, a cluster of cultural patterns (a set of norms, values, and symbols) establishes the behavior that is expected of us as a certain kind of person (for instance, a student) in relation to certain other kinds of people (for example, a professor, dean, teaching assistant, departmental secretary, registrar, or bursar). This set of cultural patterns locates us within a network of relationships. The concept of institution, then, implies that we are bound within networks of relationships (groups) in which we interact with one another (play our roles) in terms of certain shared understandings (cultural patterns) that define the behavior expected of us as given kinds of people (statuses).

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

admittedly – за загальним визнанням

bursar [ˈbɜːsə] – скарбник

cluster – пакет

to encompass [ɪnˈkʌmpəs] – укладати (у собі), стосуватися

enhancement [ɪnˈhɑːnsmənt] – збільшення, посилення

heritage [ˈherɪtɪdʒ] – спадщина; спадок; традиція

to imply – розуміти, припускати

to oversimplify – розуміти надто спрощено

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What do groups assume? 2. How do sociologists view institutions? 3. Each institution isn't built about a standardized solution to a set of problems, is it? 4. What does the family institution have its chief focus on? 5. What does the notion of an institution encompass? 6. What do institutions constitute? 7. What else can you say about the concept of an institution?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

To assume a particularly important part, the principal instruments, essential tasks of living, a standardized solution to a set of problems, the production and distribution of goods, the protection of citizens, the enhancement of social solidarity and consensus, the transmission of the cultural heritage, to oversimplify, to contribute to, to encompass both the notion of cultural patterns and social structure, the relatively stable relationships, a cluster of cultural patterns, a certain kind of person, in relation to, within a network of relationships, in terms of, certain shared understandings.

Exercise 3. Share in groups. Find the answers for the following questions. Compare your answers.

Political and Economic Institutions

- Theinstitution has its chief focus on the reproduction, socialization, and maintenance of children.
 - political
 - family
 - educational
 - sociological
- The set of functions that concern the production and distribution of goods and services for a society is called the _____ institution.
 - political
 - economic
 - sociological
 - monetary
- Most modern governments are based on a system of _____, in which the power of government officials is based on the offices they hold.
 - charismatic authority
 - traditional authority
 - elective authority
- _____ is the ability to control the behavior of others, even against their will.
 - Power
 - Coercion
 - Authority
 - Leadership

5. John F. Kennedy, and Martin Luther King, Jr., were examples of _____ leaders.
- traditional
 - rational-legal
 - charismatic
 - coercive
6. Which economic system is founded on the belief that the means of production should be controlled by the people as a whole?
- capitalism
 - socialism
 - communism
 - totalitarianism
7. _____, one of the two major models of political power in a democratic society, is a system in which political decisions are made as a result of bargaining and compromise among special interest groups.
- Pluralism
 - Elitism
 - Capitalism
 - Authoritarianism
8. Employees in the _____ sector of an economy provide services.
- primary
 - secondary
 - tertiary
 - peripheral
9. A(n) _____ is a network of unrelated businesses operating under one corporate umbrella.
- corporation
 - interlocking directorate
 - conglomerate
 - multinational

DEVELOPING LANGUAGE SKILLS

Exercise 1. Read the following passages. Complete the gaps with the words from the box. What parts of speech do they belong to?

Corporate, subtle, political, legitimate, totalitarian, contingent, evident, negative, pure, industrialized, mixed, basic, great, modern, charismatic, powerful, private, interchangeably, major, domestic, occupational, prevalent.

Although some people might use the words *power* and *authority*..., there is a ... distinction between the two. Power is the ability to control the behavior of others, even against their will, while authority is power accepted as ... by those subject to it. systems can be based on three types of authority: ..., traditional, and rational-legal. Democratic, ..., and authoritarian are types of political systems; they are distinguished by the degree of power exercised by rulers and the extent of freedom allowed the people who are ruled.

Political Power in American Society. In the United States, political participation is demonstrated through voting, which is limited by the range of candidates. In American society, two... models of political power are ... – elitism and pluralism. The functionalist perspective believes that pluralism best describes the distribution of power in America. Elitism is based on the conflict perspective.

Economic Systems. A variety of economic systems are in place in countries throughout the world. Capitalism is founded on the principles of ... ownership of property and the pursuit of profit. Socialism is based on the belief that the means of production should be controlled by the people as a whole. Examples of ... capitalism or pure socialism are rare, however – most nations of the world fall between the two extremes by practicing ... economic systems.

The Modern Corporation. Sociologists study corporations because of their ... importance in ... economic systems. Corporations – especially multinationals – have grown very Some even boast sales volumes that exceed the annual economic output of some ... nations. ... managers affect ... political decision making and influence the political and economic institutions of countries around the world.

Work in the Modern Economy. A modern society is composed of three ... economic sectors-primary, secondary, and tertiary. The balance of power among the three changes over time. Workers today face a changing ... structure, with such trends as downsizing and ... employment becoming more Some evidence indicates that these trends are having ... consequences.

(From www.glenco.com/qe)

Exercise 2. Ask questions to the text in exercise 1.

Exercise 3. Translate the following sentences. Use a dictionary if necessary.

1. Особливо важливе місце в інституційному житті займають групи.
2. Соціологи розглядають інститути як стійкий комплекс норм, правил, символів, що регулюють різні сфери людської життєдіяльності і організують їх у систему ролей і статусів, за допомогою яких задовольняються основні життєві та соціальні потреби.
3. Кожен інститут вибудовується навколо стандартного рішення певного набору проблем.
4. Один інститут може бути багатofункціональним, в той час як кілька інститутів можуть брати участь у виконанні однієї і тієї ж функції.
5. Інститут включає в себе як поняття культурних моделей (зразків), так і поняття соціальної структури.

6. Сукупність культурних моделей (зведення правил, цінностей і символів) встановлює поведінку, яка очікується від нас.

7. Поняття соціального інституту означає, що ми об'єднані в межах систем відносин (груп), в яких ми взаємодіємо один з одним (граємо роль), на основі взаєморозуміння (культурних моделей), що визначає поведінку, очікуване від нас як від даного типу людей (статусу).

8. Інституціоналізація – процес, коли якась суспільна потреба починає усвідомлюватися як загальносоціальна, а не приватна, і для її реалізації в суспільстві встановлюються особливі норми поведінки.

9. Сучасне суспільство характеризується розростанням та ускладненням системи інститутів.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Work in pairs. Complete the table. Discuss the issues. Use your professional knowledge.

Social institutions in industrial societies

Social institution	Main functions	Groups and organizations	Values	Roles
Family				
Religion				
Law				
Politics				
Economics				
Education				
Science				
Medical care				

Exercise 2. Outline the main ideas of the text, search for additional information and write a summary. Present it orally in class.

Text 13 SOCIETIES

Societies represent the most comprehensive and complex type of social structure in today's world. *Society* refers to a group of people who live within the same territory and share a common culture. By virtue of this common culture, the members of a society typically possess similar values and norms and a common language. Its members perpetuate themselves primarily through reproduction and comprise a more or less self-sufficient social unit. A society can be as small as a tribal community of several dozen people and as large as modern nations with hundreds of millions of people.

Although we often use the term "nation-state" interchangeably with "society," the two are not necessarily the same. A state is a political entity centering on a

government. Among many peoples of the world, the state binds together nationality and tribal groups that in their own right constitute societies. Consider Europe. A large number of European nation-states contain multiple nationality groups, including Great Britain (Scottish, Welsh, and English), Belgium (Flemings and Walloons), and Switzerland (Germans, Italians, and French). Similarly, many African nation-states contain multiple tribal groups: 250 in Nigeria, 200 in Zaire, and 130 in Tanzania. Political self-determination for one nationality is often incompatible with political self-determination for another.

Sociologists have classified societies in a good many ways. One popular approach is based on the principal way in which the members of a society derive their livelihood. Clearly, survival confronts all peoples with the problem of how they will provide for such vital needs as food, clothing, and shelter. And the manner in which they solve the problem has vast consequences for other aspects of their lives.

Hunting and gathering societies represent the earliest form of organized social life. Individuals survive by hunting animals and gathering edible foods. Because their food-gathering techniques rather quickly reduce the supply of animals and plants in a locality, the people are constantly on the move. Moreover, their society is typically small, consisting of about fifty or so members. Large and complex forms of social organization are virtually impossible at this level of development. Kinship – ties by blood and marriage – is the foundation for most relationships. Specialized and enduring work groups, governments, and standing armies are unknown.

Some ten thousand or so years ago, human beings learned how to cultivate a number of plants on which they depended for food. They became less dependent on the whims of nature than their hunting and gathering ancestors had been. The digging stick, and later the hoe, provided the basis for *horticultural societies*. Horticulturalists clear the land by means of "slash and burn" technology, raise crops for two to three years, and then move on to new plots as the soil becomes exhausted. Their more efficient economies allow for the production of a social surplus – goods and services over and above those necessary for human survival. This surplus becomes the foundation for social stratification; the specialization of some economic, political, and religious roles; a growth in the importance of warfare; and more complex forms of culture and social structure. Even so, the upper limit for most horticultural communities is about 3,000 persons.

Five to six thousand years ago, in fertile river valleys such as those of the Middle East, the plow heralded an agricultural revolution and the emergence of *agrarian societies*. Plowing stirs up the fertile elements in the soil that in semi-arid regions sink beneath the reach of plant roots. Additionally, the harnessing of animal power (such as oxen) and the discovery of the basic principles of metallurgy greatly enhanced the value of the plow. These innovations meant larger crops, more food, expanding populations, and even more complex forms of social organization. In time sophisticated political institutions emerged, with power concentrated in the hands of hereditary monarchs. Continuing advances in both productive and military technologies contributed to a substantial growth in the power of the state, the size of the territory it controlled, and the emergence of large capital cities. The massive pyramids of Egypt, the great cathedrals of medieval Europe, the roads and aqueducts

of Rome, and the far-flung irrigation systems of the Middle East and China are products of agrarian societies.

About 250 years ago, the Industrial Revolution gave birth to *industrial societies* whose productive and economic systems are based on machine technologies. The energy needed for work activities came increasingly from hydroelectric plants, petroleum, and natural gas rather than from people and animals. Economic self-sufficiency and local market systems were displaced by complex divisions of labor, exchange relationships, and national and international market systems. The ability to read and write, limited to a small minority in agrarian societies, became essential skills in advanced industrial societies and led to the growth of educational institutions.

In the postindustrial society, increasing numbers of workers find employment in tertiary industry centering on the provision of services rather than the extraction of raw materials and the manufacture of goods. Simultaneously, new techniques permit the automation of many processes in the workplace with the introduction of computers and complex feedback regulation devices. All these changes are being accompanied by a knowledge explosion based on the creating, processing, and distributing of information.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. *Sociology. The Core*)

Vocabulary list

aqueduct [ˈækwɪdʌkt] – акведук; водогін; канал

to bind – зобов'язувати

to constitute – складати, входити до складу

to derive [dɪˈraɪv] – отримувати, витягувати, відбуватися

digging [ˈdɪɡɪŋ] – копання, риття, земляні роботи

edible – їстівний

to endure [ɪnˈdjʊə] – витримати, витерпіти

to harness [ˈhɑːnɪs] – використовувати, запрягти, поставити собі на службу

hoe – мотика

horticultural – садівничий

hunting – полювання

medieval – середньовічний

to perpetuate [pəˈpetʃueɪt] – увічнювати

plow [pləʊ] – плуг

self-determination – самовизначення

semi-arid [ˈsemiˈæɪrɪd] – напівпосушливий

shelter – дах, притулок

slash – болотиста місцевість, яка заросла чагарником

to stir up – добре розмішувати

surplus [ˈsɜːpləs] – надлишок, залишок

tertiary [ˈtɜːʃ(ə)ɪ] – третинний

tribal – племінної, родової

warfare – війна, бойові дії

whim [wɪm] – каприз, примха

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What do societies represent in today's world? 2. Which group of people does society refer to? 3. What do members of a society typically possess? 4. How can you characterize a state? 4. What does a state bind together? 6. What do a large number of European nation-states contain? Give examples. 7. What is one popular approach for classifying societies based on? 8. Do hunting and gathering represent the earliest form of organized social life? Why? 9. When did human beings learn how to cultivate a number of plants? 10. What means do horticulturalists clear the land by? 11. What becomes the foundation of social stratification? 12. What heralded an agricultural revolution? 13. What did continuing advances in both productive and military technologies contribute to? 14. What were economic self-sufficiency and local market systems displaced by? 15. Do new techniques permit the automation of many processes in the workplace with the introduction of computers and complex feedback regulation devices?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

The most comprehensive and complex type of social structure, to possess similar values and norms, to perpetuate primarily through reproduction, to comprise self-sufficient social unit, to be as small as a tribal community, interchangeably, to bind together nationality and tribal groups, to constitute societies, to contain multiple tribal groups, political self-determination, to classify societies, a popular approach, vital needs, to have vast consequences, food-gathering techniques, to reduce the supply of animals and plants in a locality, to be constantly on the move, enduring work groups, to cultivate plants, to become less dependent on the whims of nature, ancestors, to provide the basis for, to clear the land, to become exhausted, the more efficient economies, to become the foundation for social stratification, fertile river valleys, to herald an agricultural revolution, semi-arid regions, the discovery of the basic principles, expanding populations, hereditary monarchs, advances in productive and military technologies, the emergence of large capital cities, the massive pyramids of Egypt, the far-flung irrigation systems, local market, the extraction of raw materials, the automation of many processes, complex feedback regulation devices, to be accompanied by; to be based on the creating, processing, and distributing of information.

Exercise 3. Read the following text. Ask questions in writing. Extract the information. Make a short oral summary and present it in class.

Social Organization and Social Networks

Human societies routinely accomplish what, when one thinks about it, are remarkable feats of coordination: providing food and shelter, waging war, producing rituals and spiritual meanings, fostering technological innovation, and governing, all of which require the participation of many people in a complex set of

interactions. The study of social organization provides the tools for understanding the range of forms and processes that enable people to accomplish such routine miracles of social choreography.

Statuses are the more or less formally acknowledged positions that constitute any social system, and roles represent the stereotyped behaviors that go with those statuses. Because many roles fit with other roles into complementary relationships, they constitute basic building blocks of larger collectivities. Institutions are larger complexes of purposive activity, oriented around particular tasks that most societies share: for example, educating the young, providing religious services, or coordinating trade in goods and services. In between are social networks, an increasingly prominent concept in all the social sciences. This section will introduce these ideas and illustrate ways in which sociologists use them to analyze concrete social groups and societies. (Because “social networks” may be less familiar than the other terms to many teachers, we provide more detail in the outline, calling attention to research showing how robust social networks help people get desirable jobs and how social network analysis has cast light on the HIV epidemic.)

A central idea in the study of social organization since Durkheim has been the notion that as groups and societies increase in scale, the tasks of fulfilling basic and not-so-basic social needs become ever more challenging. Over the long haul, the challenges associated with increases in scale (the population of a tribe or community, the number of employees of a business) lead to increasing differentiation as people, groups, and role systems specialize around particular tasks or functions. As societies go through this process, we see the emergence of specialized institutions. We also see changes in the basis of social solidarity, from systems in which most people share strong identities and values to ones in which cohesion comes as much from cooperation in a complex division of labor as from shared culture.

(From www.glencoe.com/sec/socialstudies/top)

DEVELOPING LANGUAGE SKILLS

Exercise 1. Translate the following sentences.

1. Суспільство є найбільш великим і складним типом соціальної структури у сучасному світі.
2. Суспільство – це об'єднання людей, яке має закріплену спільну територію, загальні культурні цінності та соціальні норми, що характеризуються усвідомленою соціокультурною ідентичністю.
3. Суспільство може бути і невеликим (плем'я, яке складається з декількох десятків чоловік), і доходити до сотень мільйонів, як у сучасних державах.
4. Соціологи створили безліч класифікацій суспільства.
5. Товариства мисливців і збирачів – одна з перших форм організованого соціального життя.
6. Приблизно 10 тис. років тому люди навчилися вирощувати рослини, які слугували їм їжею.
7. Верхня межа для більшості городницьких громад становить приблизно 3000 чоловік.

8. Винахід плуга 5-6 тис. років потому в родючих долинах річок Близького Сходу став початком революції у сільському господарстві та виникнення аграрних товариств.

9. Близько 250 років потому Промислова революція породила індустріальні суспільства, виробничі та економічні системи яких базуються на машинній техніці.

10. Соціологи стверджують, що зараз в промисловорозвинених країнах світу формується постіндустріальне суспільство (Д. Белл).

11. У постіндустріальному суспільстві все більша кількість людей знаходить роботу у сфері послуг.

12. Крім того, впровадження комп'ютерів та складних систем керування зі зворотним зв'язком дозволяють автоматизувати багато процесів на робочому місці.

Exercise 2. Fill in the gaps with the nouns from the box.

Food, production, subsistence, tools, cultivation, years, irrigation, areas, plows, force, services, horticulture, weapons.

We can identify six types of societies by focusing on the dominant form of work in a society or ... adaptation. In hunting and gathering societies, people live by hunting wild animals using primitive ... and gathering ... as it grows naturally. Herding or pastoral, semi permanent ... produces its food through ... of the soil with hand ... and is more common in ... with fertile soil which is exhausted within three to five Agricultural societies employ animal-drawn ... to cultivate the land and often combine this with ... to increase productivity. In industrial societies the largest portion of the labor ... is involved in mechanized ... of goods and

Exercise 3. Read the following draft of American Chemical Society. Use it as a model for creating a draft of all Ukrainian Sociological Society.

American Chemical Society Draft Strategic Plan

Vision: Improving people's lives through the transforming power of chemistry

Mission: To advance the broader chemistry enterprise and its practitioners for the benefit of Earth and its people

Core Values:

- Passion for chemistry in the broadest sense
 - Research
 - Education
 - Innovation
 - Solutions for today's and tomorrow's challenges
- Focus on members
 - Service to members
 - Volunteer contributions

- Professionalism
 - Integrity and transparency
 - High standards of quality and excellence
- Diversity and inclusion
 - Diverse community of highly-skilled chemical professionals
 - Advancing chemistry as a global multidisciplinary science

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Do you agree with the following statement? Prove your point of view. Societies represent the most comprehensive and complex type of social structure in today's world.

Exercise 3. Do the quiz. Use your knowledge of special terms and information you obtained during lectures.

REVISION EXERCISES ON UNIT III

Exercise 1. Translate the following sentences:

1. Культура – концентрований, організований досвід людства, основа розуміння, пояснення, осмислення, прийняття рішення.
2. Культура виступає як основа консенсусу, інтеграції будь-якого суспільства.
3. Культура ієрархічна, включає рівень, що охоплює суспільство в цілому, субкультури груп, спільнот, вміст масової культури і масової діяльності, особистісну культуру.
4. Соціальна структура – це певний спосіб зв'язку і взаємодії елементів, тобто індивідів, займаючих певні соціальні позиції (статус) і виконують певні соціальні функції (роль) відповідно до прийнятої у даній соціальній системі сукупності норм і цінностей.
5. Суспільство – це дуже складна система, яка має свою внутрішню соціальну структуру.
6. Основну увагу соціології спрямовано на дослідження соціальної структури і шляхів її удосконалення.
7. Компоненти культури – це соціальні норми (звичаї, закони), цінності, символи та мова.
8. Норми – це правила поведінки, очікування і стандарти, що регулюють взаємодії між людьми.
9. Цінності – це загальні уявлення, колективні більшою частиною суспільства, щодо того, що бажано, правильно і корисно.
10. Символи – це дії або об'єкти, які сприймаються суспільством як еквівалент чогось іншого.
11. Мова – це наріжний камінь будь-якої культури, головний засіб, за допомогою якого люди передають один одному ідеї, інформацію, погляди та емоції.

12. Культурні універсалії – типові і повторювані аспекти життя, які проявляються в усіх відомих суспільствах.
13. Інститут включає в себе як поняття культурних моделей (зразків), так і поняття соціальної структури.
14. Соціальна організація розуміється як система відносин, які об'єднують якесь число індивідів (груп) для досягнення певної мети.
15. Поняття "організація" вживають в економіці, біології, кібернетиці, багатьох інших науках і сферах діяльності, тобто скрізь, де діють соціальні групи і впорядковується їх діяльність.

Exercise 2. Prepare a report on one of the issues of Unit III.

Exercise 3. Study the following glossary.

GLOSSARY

achieved status A status that individuals secure on the basis of choice and competition.

aggregate A collection of anonymous individuals who are in one place at the same time.

ascribed status A status assigned to an individual by a group or society.

category A collection of people who share a characteristic that is deemed to be of social significance.

constructed reality Our experience of the world. Meaning is not something that inheres in things, it is a property that derives from, or arises out of, the interaction that takes place among people in the course of their daily lives.

counterculture A subculture-norms, values, and life style-that is at odds with the ways of the larger society.

cultural relativism A value-free or neutral approach that views the behavior of a people from the perspective of their own culture.

cultural universals Patterned and recurrent aspects of life that appear in all known societies.

culture The social heritage of a people; those learned patterns for thinking, feeling, and acting that are transmitted from one generation to the next, including the embodiment of these patterns in material items.

duties Actions that others can legitimately insist we perform.

disfunctions The observed consequences that lessen the adaptation or adjustment of a system.

ethnocentrism The tendency to judge the behavior of other groups by the standards of one's own culture.

folkways Norms people do not deem to be of great importance and to which they exact less stringent conformity.

functions The observed consequences that permit the adaptation or adjustment of a system.

group Two or more people who share a feeling of unity and who are bound together in relatively stable patterns of social interaction.

institutions The principal instruments whereby the essential tasks of living are organized, directed, and executed.

language A socially structured system of sound patterns (words and sentences) with specific and arbitrary meanings.

latent functions Consequences that are neither intended nor recognized by the participants in a system.

laws Rules that are enforced by a special political organization composed of individuals who enjoy the right to use force.

linguistic relativity hypothesis The view that different languages slice up and conceptualize the world of experience differently.

manifest functions Consequences that are intended and recognized by the participants in a system.

master status A key or core status that carries primary weight in a person's interactions and relationships with others.

material culture Physical artifacts or objects created by the members of a society.

mores Norms to which people attach a good deal of importance and exact strict conformity.

nonmaterial culture Abstract creations like values, beliefs, symbols, norms, customs, and institutional arrangements created by the members of a society.

norm A social rule that specifies appropriate and inappropriate behavior in given situations.

power The ability to control the behavior of others, even against their will.

rights The actions that we can legitimately insist that others perform.

role Expectations (rights and duties) that define the behavior people view as appropriate and inappropriate for the occupant of a status.

role conflict Situation in which individuals are confronted with conflicting expectations stemming from their simultaneous occupancy of two or more statuses.

role performance The actual behavior of the person who occupies a status.

role set The multiple roles associated with a single status.

role strain Finding the expectations of a single role incompatible, so that one has difficulty performing the role.

social structure The interweaving of people's interactions and relationships in recurrent and stable patterns.

society A group of people who live within the same territory and share a common culture.

status A position within a group or society; a location in a social structure.

subculture A group whose members participate in the main culture of a society while simultaneously sharing a number of unique values, norms, traditions, and life styles.

symbol An act or object that has come to be socially accepted as standing for something else.

system A set of elements or components related to each other in a more or less stable fashion through a period of time.

theoretical perspective A general approach to phenomena that affords a set of assumptions and interrelated concepts for depicting the world.

values Broad ideas regarding what is desirable, correct, and good that members of a society share.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

UNIT IV. SOCIALIZATION OF INDIVIDUALS

Text 1 THE SELF

We not only arrive at definitions of the situation; we also arrive at self-definitions as we supply answers to the question "Who am I?" These answers constitute what sociologists call the **self** – the set of concepts we use in defining who we are. The formation of the self is a central part of the socialization process. It is not a biological given, but emerges in the course of interaction with other people. Sociologist J. Milton Yinger observes:

The self is formed out of the actions of others, which become part of the individual as a result of his having identified with these others and responded to himself in their terms. Retrospectively, one can ask "Who am I?" But in practice, the answer has come before the question. The answer has come from all the definitions of one's roles, values, and goals that others begin to furnish at the moment of birth. "You are a boy; you are my son; you are French"; "You are a good boy and fully a part of this group" (with rewards confirming the words); or "You are a bad boy" (with significant others driving the point home by the sanctions they administer).

The self represents the ideas we have regarding our attributes, capacities, and behavior. In everyday speech, we note the existence of the self in such phrases as "proud of oneself," "talking to oneself," "losing control of oneself," "ashamed of oneself," "testing oneself," "hating oneself," and "loving oneself." These conceptions represent the heart of our humanness, our awareness that each of us is a unique being apart from other beings and the same person across time. The image that each of us has that we are a distinct, bounded, coherent being gives us a feeling of psychic wholeness. Individuals who are the victims of some forms of severe mental illness, particularly schizophrenia, lack a stable self-conception and clear self-boundaries – a distinct indication of where they begin and end.

The self contributes to an egocentric bias, in which we typically place ourselves at the center of events. By virtue of the egocentric bias, we over-perceive ourselves as the victim or target of an action or event that, in reality, is not directed at us. For instance, when a professor singles out a particularly good or poor exam for a few preliminary remarks before returning the papers to the class, we commonly overestimate the likelihood that one of the papers belongs to us (Feinstein, 1984). In similar fashion, we tend to overestimate the likelihood that we, rather than another member of a group, will be chosen to participate in an experimental demonstration. And if we are lottery players, we sense that our ticket has a far greater probability of being selected a winner than it in fact has. Thus the egocentric bias results in each of us experiencing life through a self-centered filter. This skewed view of reality shapes our perception of events, and later our recall of the events from memory.

We typically think of the self in static terms as an "entity" or "thing." But as the concept is employed by symbolic interactionists, it also has dynamic properties. Symbolic interactionists point out that we can be objects of our own

action. We mentally take a place on the outside and, from this vantage point, become an audience to our own actions. Viewed in this manner, the self is a process by which we devise our actions in order to fit them to the ongoing actions of other people. Sociologists such as Charles Horton Cooley, George Herbert Mead, and Erving Goffman have contributed a good deal to our understanding of these matters.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

to ashame – соромити

bias [ˈbaɪəs] – необ'єктивність; пристрасть

bounded – обмежений; стримуваний

to devise [dɪˈvaɪz] – розробляти

to emerge [ɪˈmɜːdʒ] – з'являтися

to furnish – представляти

humanness [ˈhjuːmənɪs] – людські якості; людяність

perception [pəˈsepʃ(ə)n] – сприйняття; проникливість

preliminary [prɪˈlɪmɪn(ə)rɪ] – попередній

the self – сутність; сукупність властивостей (людини)

to single out – визначати, виділяти

to skew [skjuː] – ухилятися, звертати убік

target [ˈtɑːɡɪt] – мішень

vantage [ˈvɑːntɪdʒ] point – вигідний момент (позиція)

wholeness [ˈhəʊlnɪs] – цілісність, повнота

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What do the answers to the question “Who am I?” constitute? 2. What is a central part of the socialization process? 3. What represents the ideas we have regarding our attributes, capacities, and behavior? 4. Is each of us a unique being apart from other beings and the same person across time? 5. By virtue of what do we overperceive ourselves? 6. How do we experience life? 7. Who points out that we can be objects of our own action? 8. What is the self? 9. Who has contributed a good deal to our understanding of these matters?

Exercise 2. Give Ukrainian equivalents of the following.

To arrive at definitions, self – definitions, confirming the words, to present the ideas, to be a unique being, psychic wholeness, severe mental illness, to contribute to, by virtue of, to over-perceive oneself, a few preliminary remarks, in similar fashion, to participate in, a vantage point, to devise, viewed in this manner.

Exercise 3. Complete the sentences.

1. The socialization process emerges in the course of
2. The self represents the ideas we have regarding.....

3. By virtue of the egocentric bias, we overperceive ourselves as the victim or target of
4. This skewed view of reality shapes our perception of events, and later
5. Symbolic interactionists point out that we can be.....

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Discuss the formation of the self. After a proper discussion present your remarks.

Text 2

CHARLES HORTON COOLEY: THE LOOKING-GLASS SELF

At the turn of this century, the notion was prevalent in both scientific and lay circles that human nature is biologically determined. Charles Horton Cooley (1864-1929) vigorously challenged this assertion. He maintained that people transform themselves and their worlds as they engage in social interaction. In particular, Cooley contended that our consciousness arises in a social context. This notion is best exemplified by his concept of the looking-glass self – a process by which we imaginatively assume the stance of other people and view ourselves as we believe they see us. Our ability to take the perspective of another person is a basic requirement of all social behavior.

Self-Awareness. Cooley suggests that the looking-glass self is an ongoing mental process characterized by three phases. First, we imagine how we appear to others. For example, we may think of ourselves as putting on weight and becoming "fat." Second, we imagine how others judge our appearance. We are aware, for instance, that people typically think of obese people as unattractive. Third, we develop some sort of self-feeling such as pride or mortification on the basis of what we perceive others' judgments to be. In this case, we are likely to experience anxiety or embarrassment regarding our "obese" state. The looking-glass self entails a subjective process and need not accord with objective reality. For example, victims of anorexia nervosa willfully starve themselves, denying that they are actually thin or ill, in the belief that they are too fat.

The notion of the looking-glass self does not imply that our self-conception changes radically every time we encounter a new person or a new situation. Accordingly, it is useful to distinguish between self-images and self-conceptions. A self-image is a mental conception or picture that we have of ourselves, which is relatively temporary; it changes as we move from one context to another. Our self-conception is a more overriding view of our self, a sense of self through time – "the real me," or "I myself as I really am." Layers of self-images typically build up over time and contribute to a relatively stable self-conception. For the most part, this succession of self-images *edits* rather than supplants our more crystallized self-conception or identity.

Shyness. Since human beings are capable of self-awareness, they often experience shyness. *Shyness* is a general tendency to be tense, inhibited, and awkward in social situations. Surveys show that as many as 40 percent of adult Americans consider themselves shy. Even such celebrities as Barbara Walters, England's Prince Charles, Terry Bradshaw, Fred Lynn, Catherine Deneuve, Carol Burnett, and Warren Beatty define themselves as shy. The Japanese tend to have a very high prevalence of shyness – about 60 percent. One reason seems to be that the Japanese have what is described as a "shame culture," in which individuals experience considerable pressure not to let their families down.

Shyness takes a heavy human toll because it creates a barrier for people in achieving happiness and fulfilling their potential. Shy people are commonly big losers – in school, in business, in love, in any arena of life where people meet their needs in the course of social interaction with others. They seem too self-aware, too preoccupied with their own adequacy and the adequacy of their behavior. Consequently, they are unable to "let themselves go" and they hold back from immersing themselves in ongoing social interaction.

Choking. *Choking* is behavior in which we fail to perform up to our level of skills and abilities by virtue of experiencing social pressure. Like shyness, it arises when the selfhood process goes awry. For example, we often become self-conscious when we are expected to provide an excellent performance. Thus in athletic competition we may attempt to ensure the correctness of our execution – the coordination and precision of our muscle movements – by monitoring our performance. But such self-monitoring disrupts the automatic or overlearned nature of execution. Consequently, we become susceptible to mistakes. In the final and decisive game of a championship series, such as baseball's World Series, the home team tends to choke and accordingly is at a decided disadvantage. A home crowd usually claps, shouts, and moans in response to the breaks and exploits of the home team, whereas the visitor's exploits are met either with silence or expressions of frustration. During the regular season and in early games of the World Series, such behavior may be a source of inspiration to the home team. But when a championship is imminent, fear of failing to win it before a support audience compounds the pressures and intensifies the players' self-consciousness. As a result, they become "uptight" and error prone.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

anxiety [æŋˈzaiəti] – тривога, занепокоєння
assertion [əˈsɜːʃ(ə)n] – затвердження
awry [əˈraɪ] – неправильний, невдалий
celebrity [sɪˈlebrɪti] – знаменитість
choking [ˈtʃəʊkɪŋ] – поглинання; придушення
to clap – плескати
consciousness [ˈkɒnʃənsɪs] – свідомість; усвідомлення
embarrassment [ɪmˈbærəsmənt] – збентеження; нерішучість

to engage [in'geɪdʒ] – наймати; займатися
to entail – тягти за собою; викликати
error prone – схильний до здійснення помилок
to exemplify [ɪg'zemplɪfaɪ] – пояснювати, підтверджувати прикладом
frustration [frʌ'streɪʃ(ə)n] – розлад, зрив
imminent [ɪ'mɪnənt] – насуватися, неминучий
to moan [məʊn] – стогнати
mortification [ˌmɔːtɪfɪ'keɪʃ(ə)n] – приниження, почуття сорому
obese [əv'biːs] – огрядний; страждає ожирінням
shy – сором'язливий
stance [staːns] – положення
to starve – страждати або вмирати від голоду
to supplant [sə'plɑːnt] – витіснити що-небудь

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Sum up your ideas of the text.

Exercise 2. Give English equivalents of the following.

Як у наукових, так і в непрофесійних колах; твердження, брати участь у громадській взаємодії, самосвідомість, дзеркальна сутність, усвідомлювати самого себе; люди, які страждають ожирінням; суб'єктивний процес, саморозуміння, самовтілення, сором'язливість, бути напруженим, ідентичність, задовольняти потреби в процесі суспільної взаємодії з іншими; відчуваючи суспільний тиск, ставати невдалим, схильний до скоєння помилок.

Exercise 3. Give definitions of the following words.

Self – awareness, a self – image, shyness, choking.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. What is your opinion on the following topic.

We develop some sort of self – feeling such as pride or mortification on the basis of what we perceive others' judgments of us to be.

Text 3

GEORGE HERBERT MEAD: THE GENERALIZED OTHER

George Herbert Mead (1863-1931) elaborated on Cooley's ideas and contributed many insights of his own. Mead contended that we gain a sense of selfhood by acting toward ourselves in much the same fashion that we act toward others. In so doing, we "take the role of the other toward ourselves." We mentally assume a dual perspective: We are simultaneously the *subject* doing the viewing and the *object* being viewed. In

our imagination, we take the position of another person and look back on ourself from this standpoint.

Mead designates the subject aspect of the self-process the *I* and the object aspect the *me*. Consider what sometimes happens when you contemplate whether or not to ask your professor a question. You think, "If I ask a question, he'll consider me stupid. I'd better keep quiet." In this example, you imagine the attitude of the professor toward students. In so doing, you mentally take the role of the professor and view yourself as an object or "me." It is you as the subject or "I" who decides that it would be unwise to ask the question. The use of the personal pronouns in the statement illustrates the object-subject dimensions.

According to Mead, the key to children's development of the self resides in their acquisition of language. By virtue of language, we arouse the same tendencies in ourselves as we do in others. We mentally say to ourselves, "If I want to get this person to respond this way, what will it take to do so? What would it take to get me to act in this fashion?" Mead uses the example of an instructor who asks a student to bring a chair to the classroom. The student probably would fulfil the request, but if not, the instructor would most likely get the chair herself. To ask the student to secure the chair, the instructor first must conjure up the act within her own mind. Language allows us to carry on an internal conversation. We talk and reply to ourselves in much the same manner that we carry on a conversation with others. In this fashion, we judge how other people will respond to us.

Sociologist Ralph Turner (1968) has clarified and extended Mead's ideas on the self. Turner points out that when speaking and acting, we typically adopt a state of *preparedness* for certain types of responses from the other person. If we wave to a professor, ask a police officer a question, or embrace a friend, we expect that the other person will respond with some action that will appropriately fit our own. As the other person responds, we enter a phase of *testing* and *revision*. We mentally appraise the other's behavior, determining whether or not it accords with our expectations. In doing so we assign meaning to that behavior. We then plan our next course of action. For instance, if the person responded in an unanticipated manner, we might terminate the interaction, attempt to "go back" and reassert our original intention, disregard the other's response, or abandon our initial course of action and follow the other person's lead. Consequently, symbolic interactionists say that the process of self-communication is essential to social interaction.

According to Mead, children typically pass through three stages in developing a full sense of selfhood: the "play" stage, the "game" stage, and the "generalized other" stage. In play, children take the role of only one other person at a time and "try on" the person's behavior. The model, usually an important person in the life of the child, such as a parent, is called a significant other. For example, a 2-year-old child may examine a doll's pants, pretend to find them wet, reprimand the doll, and take it to the bathroom. Presumably the child views the situation from the viewpoint of the parent and acts as the parent would act.

Whereas in the play stage children take the role of only one other person at a time, in the game stage they assume many roles. As in the case of an organized game such as baseball, individuals must take into account the roles of a good many people.

For example, if the batter bunts the ball down the third-base line, the person playing first base must know what the pitcher, third baseman, shortstop, and catcher will do. Each player must see his or her role as meshed with those of the other players. Likewise in life. Children must become familiar with the expectations that hold for a variety of roles if they are to play their own roles successfully.

In Mead's third stage, children recognize that they are immersed within a larger community of people and that this community has very definite attitudes regarding what constitutes appropriate and inappropriate behavior. The social **unit** that gives individuals their unity of self is called the **generalized other**. The attitude of the generalized other is the attitude of the larger community. Although we gain our conceptions of given rules from particular people (our mother, a teacher, or a peer), these notions are generalized or extended to embrace all people within similar situations. To think about our behavior, then, is to interact mentally with ourselves from the perspective of an abstract community of people. According to Mead, the generalized other is the vehicle by which we are linked to society. By means of the generalized other, we incorporate, or internalize, the organized attitudes of our community within our own personalities so that social control becomes self-control.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

batter – гравець з биткою; відбиває м'яч (крикет і бейсбол)

to bunt – ударяти

to conjure up [ˈkɒndʒə] – викликати в уяві

to contemplate [ˈkɒntəmpleɪt] – споглядати, пильно розглядати

to designate [ˈdeɪzɪneɪt] – встановлювати, позначати

to generalize [ˈdʒen(ə)rəlaɪz] – узагальнювати

pitcher – той, хто подає (бейсбол)

preparedness [prɪˈpreədnis] – підготовленість

presumably [prɪˈzju:məbli] – можливо, ймовірно

to reprimand [ˈreɪprɪmɑːnd] – робити догану

to reside [rɪˈzaɪd] – проживати, перебувати де-небудь

selfhood – особистість, індивідуальність

unanticipated [ˌʌnænˈtɪsɪpeɪtɪd] – непередбачений

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Write down problem questions to the text.

Exercise 2. Write a summary of the text answering the questions from exercise 1. Use “deals with”, “George Herbert Mead describes (presents, touches upon)”.

Exercise 3. Give Ukrainian equivalents of the following.

To elaborate on ideas, to gain a sense of, simultaneously, in our imagination, from this standpoint, the subject aspect, the object-subject dimensions, the key to

children's development of the self, the acquisition of language, to act in this fashion, to fulfil the request, the instructor, to conjure up the act, to appraise one's behavior, in doing so, in an unanticipated manner, to pass through stages, to pretend to, at a time, to take into account, inappropriate behavior, to interact mentally, to be linked to society.

Exercise 4. Give English equivalents of the following word combinations and use them in the sentences of your own.

Доповнити чий-небудь ідеї, вважати кого-небудь дурним, оволодіння мовою, виконати прохання, вести розмову з будь-ким, вичерпне значення особистості, непередбаченим чином, брати на себе роль, подумки взаємодіяти, знаходитися у великому співтоваристві людей, відношення більшої частини суспільства, подумки взаємодіяти, абстрактна спільнота людей.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Discuss the problems mentioned in the text.

Exercise 2. What does it mean?

- 1) In our imagination, we take the position of another person and look back on ourself from this standpoint.
- 2) The attitude of the generalized other is the attitude of the larger community.

Text 4

ERVING GOFFMAN: IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT

Erving Goffman (1922-1982) has provided an additional dimension to our understanding of the self. Cooley and Mead had examined how our self-conceptions arise in the course of social interaction and how we fashion our actions based on the feedback we derive about ourselves and our behavior from other people. Goffman directs our attention to another matter. He points out that only by influencing other people's ideas of us can we hope to predict or control what happens to us. We have a stake in presenting ourselves to others in ways that will lead them to view us in a favorable light, a process Goffman calls **impression management**. In doing so, we use both concealment and strategic revelation. For example, a taxi driver may attempt to disguise from a passenger the fact that they were mistakenly traveling in the wrong direction, and a young professor fresh out of graduate school may spend several hours preparing and rehearsing a lecture in hopes of appearing "knowledgeable" to her students. You are probably aware of engaging in impression management when deciding what to wear for particular occasions, such as a party, a physician's appointment, a job interview, or a date.

Goffman sees the performances staged in a theater as an analytical analogy and tool for depicting and understanding social life, a perspective he calls the **dramaturgical approach**. He depicts social life as a stage on which people interact; all human beings are both actors and members of the audience, and the parts are the

roles people play in the course of their daily activities. Goffman illustrates his approach by describing the changes that occur in waiters' behavior as they move from the kitchen to the dining room. As the nature of the audience changes, so does their behavior. "Frontstage" in the dining room, the waiters display a servile demeanor to the guests. "Backstage" in the kitchen, they openly flaunt and otherwise ridicule the servility they must portray frontstage. Further, they seal off the dirty work of food preparation – the gristle, grease, and foul smells of spoiled food – from the appetizing and enticing frontstage atmosphere. Hence, as people move from situation to situation, they drastically alter their self-expression. They undertake to define the situation for others by generating cues that will lead others to act in ways they wish.

Although Goffman is commonly classed by sociologists with interactionists, his work departs in significant ways from classical symbolic interactionist formulations. Symbolic interactionists see each situation as somewhat unique, as freshly built up piece by piece out of the peculiar combinations of activities and meanings that operate in a particular setting. Goffman depicts social life as "frames" – structures – that have an invisible but real existence behind the visible social transactions of everyday life. These basic frameworks of understandings provide stable rules that people use in fashioning their behavior. Thus Goffman sees action as guided more by a mechanical adherence to rules than by an active, ongoing process of interpersonal negotiation.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

adherence [əd'hi(ə)rəns] – прихильність, вірність
concealment [kən'si:lmənt] – приховування,
cue – натяк, репліка
date – побачення
to disguise [dis'gaiz] – маскувати
drastically – рішуче, докорінно
to entice [in'taɪs] – спокушати, захоплювати
feedback – зворотній зв'язок
to flaunt [flɔ:nt] – виставляти себе напоказ; хизуватися
foul [ˈfaʊl] – брудний, огидний
grease [ɡri:s] – топлене сало
gristle – хрящ
to predict – передбачати
to rehearse [ri'hɜ:s] – повторювати, перераховувати
revelation [ˌrevə'leɪʃ(ə)n] – відкриття, розкриття
to ridicule [ˈrɪdɪkjʊ:l] – висміювати, піднімати на сміх
servile [ˈsɜ:vəl] demeanor [dɪ'mi:nə] – улеслива поведінка

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. Who has provided an additional dimension to our understanding of the self?
2. What had Cooley and Mead examined?
3. When can we hope to predict or control what happens to us?
4. Which process does Goffman call impression management?
5. In which cases do we use both concealment and strategic revelation? Give examples.
6. What does Goffman see as an analytical analogy and tool for depicting and understanding social life?
7. When do people usually alter their self-expression?
8. How do symbolic interactionists see each situation?
9. What does Goffman depict as “frames”?
10. What do the basic frameworks of understandings provide?

Exercise 2. Give Ukrainian equivalents of the following.

Impression management, to provide an additional dimension to, to arise in the course, feedback, to direct attention to, in a favorable light, concealment, to travel in the wrong direction, to disguise the fact, stage, to flaunt, to ridicule the servility, to seal off the dirty work, to have an invisible but real existence, by a mechanical adherence to rules.

Exercise 3. Give English equivalents of the following and use them in the sentences of your own.

Формувати свої вчинки, бути кровно зацікавленим в чому-небудь, у сприятливому світлі, приховування, інструмент, в процесі своєї повсякденної діяльності, планувати поведінку, визначити ситуацію, його робота розходиться з класичними формулюваннями, процес міжособистісного спілкування.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Speak on the problem of impression management.

Text 5

FOUNDATION FOR SOCIALIZATION

Human socialization presupposes that an adequate genetic endowment and an adequate environment are available. Psychologists have taught chimpanzees and gorillas a great many things, including the use of symbols. Yet the methods by which the animals must be trained are quite different from the relatively spontaneous way in which children acquire language and many other skills. Nothing happened in the evolution of chimps and gorillas that allows them to produce their own symbols, although they evidently have the mental capabilities to make use of those fashioned by people. Thus chimps and gorillas lack the unique capacity for language and thought that characterizes normal human beings. Clearly, if human socialization is to occur, an appropriate genetic endowment is necessary. By the same token, many cases testify to the inadequacy of our biological equipment for producing a normal

human personality in the absence of social interaction. Humanness, then, is a product of both hereditary and environmental factors.

Every February, as spring arrives, many children on the Mediterranean island of Sardinia suddenly become listless. Over the following three months their schoolwork suffers; they fall asleep at their desks; and they complain of feeling dizzy and nauseous. Sardinian teachers know that children and adults can die of the affliction. An estimated 35 percent of Sardinians suffer from the disorder.

In 1959 scientists investigated the disease and found that it is a hereditary condition associated with the lack of a single enzyme, called glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (or G-6-PD). However, the Sardinians display the symptoms only during the spring, suggesting that a victim's lack of G-6-PD is not the only factor activating the disease. Researchers reasoned that something in the environment had to be taking advantage of the enzyme deficiency. In other words, although the genetic defect may have been the gun, an environmental factor had to be pulling the trigger. They found that the Italian fava bean is the culprit and that susceptible Sardinians can remain free of attacks by not eating the plant and its products.

In recent years, research of the sort undertaken among the Sardinians has shown the complex relationships that exist between heredity and environment. And the old nature-nurture controversy, debated for centuries, had been found to be a nonissue. Even the classical Greek philosophers argued over whether ideas are innate to the human mind or are acquired through experience. At first scientists asked *which* factor, heredity or environment, is more important in fashioning a particular trait, such as a mental disorder or an individual's intelligence. Later they attempted to determine *how much* of the differences they found among people could be attributed to differences in heredity and *how much* to differences in environment. More recently, many of them have phrased the question in terms of *how* specific hereditary and environmental factors *interact* to produce particular characteristics and behaviors.

The early phrasing of the question caused untold difficulties. Carried to its logical conclusion, the either-or dichotomy defines biologically inborn behavior as that which appears in the absence of environment, and learned behavior as that which does not require an organism. The "how much" question also poses difficulties. It assumes that nature and nurture are related in such a way that the contribution of one is *added* to the contribution of the other. Yet in real life, the two factors *work together* to produce a given outcome, as in the case of the Sardinian disorder. Genes determine the range of potential possibilities, but the environment selects among them.

Organisms are not passive objects programmed by internal genetic forces, nor are they passive objects shaped by the external environment. Hereditary and environmental factors interpenetrate and mutually determine each other. By way of analogy, consider the baking of a cake: The taste of the completed product is the result of a complex interaction among the components – the butter, sugar, flour, salt, and so on – exposed for a certain period to oven temperature. The outcome is not dissociable into this-or-that percent of flour, butter, and the like, although each component makes its contribution.

As children develop, their behavior becomes less and less dependent on *maturation* – changes in an organism that unfold more or less automatically in a set, irreversible sequence due to physical and chemical processes. Instead, learning comes increasingly to the forefront. Significantly, in learning, the human organism modifies itself by responding: The mind is not *revealed* as children mature; it is *constructed*. For this reason, human beings are not locked into an unchangeable physical body or social system.

So in a world in which complex developmental interactions are always occurring, process and history assume paramount importance. Individuals become active agents shaping both themselves and their environments. They act on and modify the world in which they live, and in turn they are shaped and transformed by the consequences of their own actions. This dynamic interplay between an individual and the environment is the foundation of human intelligence, knowledge, and culture.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

affliction [ə'flɪkʃ(ə)n] – нещастя, лихо, хвороба
chimp – шимпанзе
controversy [ˈkɒntɹəvɜːsi] – суперечка, дискусія
culprit [ˈkʌlprɪt] – злочинець, винуватець
dichotomy [daɪ'kɒtəmi] – дихотомія
dizzy – відчувати запаморочення
flour [ˈflaʊə] – борошно
endowment [ɪn'dəʊmənt] – обдарування, талант
forefront – центр діяльності
innate [ɪ'neɪt] – вроджений
interpenetrate – взаємопроникати
irreversible [ɪrɪ'vɜːsəb(ə)l] – необоротний
to lack – відчувати нестаток (зазнати недостатку)
listless – млявий, апатичний
maturation [ˌmætʃʊ'reɪʃ(ə)n] – досягнення повного розвитку
nauseous [ˈnɔːziəs] – нудотний
nurture [ˈnɜːtʃə] – виховання, навчання
paramount [ˈpærəməʊnt] – першочерговий
to reveal [rɪ'viːl] – показувати, виявляти
susceptible [sə'septəb(ə)l] – сприйнятливий
token – знак, символ
by the same token – до того ж; зайвий доказ того, що
trigger [ˈtrɪɡə] – спусковий механізм

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Write down problem questions to the text.

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

Human socialization, genetic endowment, to acquire, skills, mental capabilities, to occur, by the same token, inadequacy of one's biological equipment, social interaction, hereditary, to become listless, to fall asleep, to investigate the disease, to reason, trigger, culprit, to be susceptible, the nature-nurture controversy, to be innate, a particular trait, a mental disorder, to be attributed to, a given outcome, mutually, to be programmed by internal genetic forces, paramount importance.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Специфічна риса, відчувати недостаток, генетичний талант, використання символів, вроджена поведінка, між спадковістю і навколишнім середовищем; зайвий доказ того, що; відбуватися, біологічний багаж, фактори навколишнього середовища, центр діяльності, іншими словами, розлад психічної діяльності, суперечка про первісний стан та виховання, відкидати формулювання, межі потенційних можливостей, першочергове значення, визначати.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Look through the text again. Give the main points of each paragraph of the text. Use "deals with" + word-combinations given below.

E. g. The first (second, third...) paragraph of the text deals with... .

Human socialization, spontaneous way, mental capabilities, become listless, complain of feeling dizzy, a hereditary condition, complex relationships, nature-nurture controversy, heredity or environment, biologically inborn behavior, the range of potential possibilities, passive objects, internal genetic forces, irreversible sequence, complex developmental interactions, dynamic interplay.

Exercise 2. Speak on:

Socialization is the process of social interaction by which people acquire those behaviors essential for effective participation in society.

Text 6

NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION

Verbal symbols are only the tip of the communication iceberg. Nonverbal messages abound, and we "read" a good deal into them without necessarily being aware of doing so. On the basis of his experiments, psychologist Albert Mehrabian concludes that the total impact of a message is 7 percent verbal, 38 percent vocal, and 55 percent facial. Another specialist, Raymond L. Birdwhistell, suggests that "no more than 30 to 35 percent of the social meaning of a conversation or an interaction is carried by its words."

One situation in which you are very likely aware of nonverbal communication is the pickup scene of a singles bar or a party. A rather standardized form of eye contact precedes the verbal contact. If, while gazing about a room, a man and woman spot each other and become interested, they signal with eye contact. For example, the man will hold the woman's gaze, look away, and then look back quickly once or twice. If the woman responds in kind, they may maneuver within speaking distance and strike up a conversation. A woman may also send a "flirt" sign - a sudden smile and a quick turning of the head downward or to the side. On the other hand, if you establish and hold eye contact with a stranger on an elevator, it is perceived to be a threatening communication. Similarly, in American culture you generally do not stare at another person unless you are talking. You may establish eye contact with others when they are at a distance beyond that for normal conversation, but as you get closer you shift your eyes away.

There are a good many nonverbal communication systems, including the following:

Body language: Physical motions and gestures provide signals. The "preening behavior" that accompanies courtship is a good illustration. Women frequently stroke their hair, check their makeup, rearrange their clothes, or push the hair away from the face. Men may adjust their hair, tug at their tie, straighten their clothes, or pull up their socks. These are signals that say, "I'm interested in you. Notice me. I'm an attractive person."

Paralanguage: Nonverbal vocal cues surrounding speech – voice pitch, volume, pacing of speech, silent pauses, and sighs – provide a rich source of information. Paralanguage has to do with *how* something is said rather than with *what* is said. One of the least obvious types of paralanguage is silence. Silence can communicate scorn, hostility, defiance, and sternness, as well as respect, kindness, and acceptance.

Proxemics: The way we employ social and personal space also contains messages. For instance, students who sit in the front rows of a classroom tend to be the most interested, those in the rear are more prone to mischievous activities, and students at the aisles are primarily concerned with quick departures.

Touch: Through physical contact such as touching, stroking, hitting, holding, and greeting (handshakes), we convey our feelings to one another. However, touch can also constitute an invasion of privacy, and it can become a symbol of power when people want to make power differences visible. For example, a high-status person might take the liberty of patting a low-status person on the back or shoulder, something that is deemed inappropriate for the subordinate.

Artifacts: We commonly employ objects, including certain types of clothing, makeup, hairpieces, eyeglasses, beauty aids, perfume, and jewelry, that tell other people our gender, rank, status, and attitude. For instance, at a singles bar, clothing and hairstyle tell potential mates what we are and are not and say "see me" or "skip me."

Some aspects of nonverbal communication, such as many gestures, are especially susceptible to cultural influence. The American "A-Okay" gesture made by joining the thumb and forefinger in a circle has quite different meanings, depending on the culture. An American tourist will find that what is taken to be a friendly sign in the United States has an insulting connotation in France and Belgium: "You're

worth zero!" In southern Italy it means "you're a jerk," and in Greece and Turkey it conveys an insulting or vulgar sexual invitation.

However, some facial expressions seem to have universal meanings. For example, in situations of threat and intimidation, people often use glares that very closely resemble the stare-down behavior observed in monkeys and apes. To investigate these matters, Paul Ekman and his associates selected a group of photographs they thought depicted surprise, disgust, fear, anger, sadness, and happiness. They showed the photos to people from five different cultures and asked them to say what the person in each photo was feeling. The overwhelming majority of the subjects identified the emotions in the same way. It appears, then, that the ways of displaying and interpreting certain feelings may be universal, which suggests a strong biological component. Even so, each culture provides its own "display rules," which regulate how and when given emotions may be exhibited and with what consequences.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

to abound – мати у значній кількості

aisle [aɪl] – прохід

ape – мавпа

to be aware of – усвідомлювати, осмислити ...

to conclude – закінчувати, завершувати

connotation – побічний відтінок значення

courtship – залицяння (до жінки)

defiance [dɪ'faɪəns] – зухвала поведінка

disgust [dɪs'gʌst] – огида, відвернення, невдоволення

exposure [ɪk'spəʊʒə] – вплив

facial – особовий

glare – погляд (зазвичай ворожий або пильний)

hostility [hɒ'stɪlɪtɪ] – ворожість; вороже ставлення

intimidation [ɪn,tɪmɪ'deɪ](ə)n] – залякування

to insult – ображати

jerk – тупоголовий; нікчемність

overwhelming [ˌəʊvə'welmɪŋ] – переважний, величезний

mischievous ['mɪstʃɪvəs] – шкідливий

the pickup scene – перехоплена (випадкова) сцена (епізод)

to precede [prɪ'si:d] – передувати

preening – самовдоволення

proxemics [prɒk'si:mɪks] – проксеміка, вивчення взаємодії людини і навколишнього середовища

scorn – зневага

to skip – перемикатися, переключатися

to spot – помітити; побачити

sternness – суворість

verbal – словесний
vocal – голосовий, мовний
voice pitch – висота голосу

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions:

1. Are verbal symbols only the tip of the communication iceberg? 2. What does Albert Mehrabian conclude on the basis of his experiments? 3. Who suggests that “no more than 30 to 35 percent of the social meaning of a conversation or an interaction is carried by its words”? 4. What precedes the verbal contact? 5. When is an eye contact perceived to be a threatening communication? 6. What nonverbal communication systems do you know? 7. What can you say about body language? 8. What does paralanguage have to do with? 9. Can silence communicate scorn, hostility, defiance, as well as respect, kindness, and acceptance? 10. Why does the way we employ social and personal space contain messages? 11. What are physical contacts? 12. Can we convey our feelings to one another through physical contact? 13. What can the touch constitute? 14. What tells other people our gender, rank, status and attitude? 15. What meanings does the American “A-Okay” gesture have? 16. Who selected a group of photographs? 17. Who did Paul Ekman and his associates show the photos they thought depicted surprise, disgust, fear, anger, sadness and happiness? 18. Are the ways of displaying and interpreting certain feelings universal? Give your reason.

Exercise 2. Give English equivalents of the following.

Словесні символи, на основі експериментів, здійснюються за допомогою слів, зоровий контакт, зауважити один одного, з іншого боку, цікавитися будь-ким, подавати знаки, мовчання, рукостискання, дотик; що вважається недоречним для полагодженого, вороже ставлення, образливе побічне значення; для того, щоб дослідити ці питання.

Exercise 3. Give Ukrainian equivalents of the following.

Nonverbal communication, to conclude, the pickup scene, eye contact, to precede the verbal contact, to respond in kind, a sudden smile, on the other hand, body language, to provide signals, voice pitch, a rich source of information, obvious types, silence, hostility, defiance, to employ social and personal space, to tend to be, touch, to convey one's feelings to, to constitute an invasion of privacy, a symbol of power, to make power differences visible, a high-status person, a low-status person, to be deemed inappropriate for the subordinate, an insulting connotation, intimidation, the overwhelming majority of, the ways of displaying and interpreting certain feelings.

Exercise 4. Explain in English what the following words and word combinations mean.

Nonverbal communication, eye contact, the gaze, body language, paralanguage, a row, an artifact, facial expressions.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS.

Exercise 1. What is your opinion on the following topic.

Some aspects of nonverbal communication, such as many gestures, are especially susceptible to cultural influence.

Exercise 2. Reproduce the text in your own words.

Text 7

DEFINITION OF THE SITUATION

From our discussion it is clear that human beings live in both a symbolic and a physical environment. People do not respond directly to stimuli from their sense organs, but assign *meanings* to the stimuli and formulate their actions on the basis of these meanings. For example, a "pen" is not merely a collection of visual, aural, and tactile stimuli. We give meaning to it as an object with which we can write. We may also infer from the quality of the pen something about the social rank of the user. And we may attribute magical powers to the pen as a "good luck" piece for taking unusually difficult examinations.

What we have been saying adds up to this: As we go about our everyday lives, we interpret the world about us. Our symbolic environment mediates the physical environment so that we do not simply experience stimuli, but rather a definition of the situation. A definition of the situation is the interpretation or meaning we give to our immediate circumstances. It is "reality" as perceived by people, the intersection of time and space within which they carry out their actions. Consequently, facts do not have an inherent or uniform existence apart from the persons who observe and assign meaning to them. "Real" facts are the ways in which people define various situations.

Because of differing definitions, people vary in their perceptions of and reactions to different situations. Take a gun. To a soldier it means one thing, to an armed robber another, to a holdup victim still another, to a hunter another, and to a gun control advocate quite another. A man mowing the lawn may be seen as beautifying his yard, avoiding his wife, getting exercise, supporting neighborhood property values, annoying a neighbor who is attempting to sleep, or earning a living by mowing lawns.

Although our definitions of the situation may differ, it is only as we arrive at common understandings that we are able to fit our action to the actions of other people. Whatever we do – play football, chat with a friend on the telephone, rob a store, give a lecture, cross a busy intersection, or purchase a book – we must attribute a similar meaning to the situation if we are to achieve joint action with others. Moreover, a definition of the situation arrived at on one occasion may hold for future occasions. Viewed in this manner, culture may be thought of as the agreed-upon meanings – the shared definitions of situations – that individuals acquire as members of a society. Socialization is the process by which these shared definitions are transmitted from one generation to the next.

Sociologists point out that our definitions influence our construction of reality. William I. Thomas and Dorothy S. Thomas captured this insight in what has become known as the **Thomas theorem**: "If men [people] define situations as real, they are real in their consequences." The Thomas theorem draws our attention to the fact that people respond not only to the objective features of a situation, but also to the meaning the situation has for them. Once the meaning has been assigned, it serves to shape not only what people do or fail to do, but also some of the consequences of their behavior. For example, for a good many generations whites defined blacks as racially inferior. Since whites controlled the centers of institutional power, they allocated to blacks a lesser share of the privileges and opportunities of society. By acting upon their racial definitions, whites fashioned social structures – institutional arrangements – in which blacks have enjoyed fewer advantages than whites. Blacks are less well educated, hold more menial jobs, live in poorer housing, and have poorer health than whites. So whites have created a social order characterized by institutional discrimination.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

to assign [ə'saɪn] – призначити; визначати
 holdup – озброєний грабіж
 to infer – укласти, робити висновок
 inferior [ɪn'fɪ(ə)riə] – стоїть нижче
 menial ['mi:niəl] – зневажливо низький, лакейський
 to perceive [pə'si:v] – розуміти, усвідомлювати
 robber – грабіжник
 stimulus ['stimjʊləs] (pl. stimuli) – стимул
 tactile ['tæktail] – відчутний

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. Is it clear that human beings live in both a symbolic and a physical environment?
 2. How do people formulate their actions?
 3. What meaning do we usually give to a “pen”?
 4. What is a definition of the situation?
 5. What are “real” facts?
 6. May our definitions of the situation differ?
 7. How can culture be thought of?
 8. What is socialization?
 9. What do sociologists point out?
 10. What does the Thomas theorem deal with?
 11. What fact does the Thomas theorem draw our attention to?
 12. Who has created a social order characterized by institutional discrimination?

Exercise 2. Give English equivalents of the following.

Символічне і фізичне навколишнє середовище, органи чуття, визначати значення, на основі цих значень, не тільки, соціальне становище, відчувати стимули, визначення ситуації, здійснювати свої дії, отже, відрізнятися за своїм сприйняттям різних ситуацій, дратуючи сусіда, заробляючи на життя,

відрізнятися, переходити жваве перехрестя, приписувати відповідне значення чого-небудь, передавати з одного покоління наступному, підкреслювати, повернути розуміння, наслідки їх поведінки; раса, нижчого походження; встановлена влада, згідно з расовим визначенням; створити громадський порядок, об'єктивні особливості ситуації.

Exercise 3. Give Ukrainian equivalents of the following.

In both a symbolic and a physical environment, to respond to, on the basis of, to give meaning to, the social rank of the user, the intersection of time and space, to carry out one's actions, perception, an armed robber, annoying a neighbor, earning a living, to arrive at common understandings, to cross a busy intersection, moreover, viewed in this manner, shared definitions, opportunities of society, to be less well educated, to create a social order, to attribute to, a definition of the situation, although.

Exercise 4. Find the synonyms of the following words. Consult the dictionary if necessary.

Power, vary, perception, define, attempt, achieve, point out, blacks, respond.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. What facts prove that for a good many generations whites defined blacks as racially inferior.

Exercise 2. Is it right or not? Share opinions.

A definition of the situation is the interpretation or meaning we give to our immediate circumstances.

Text 8

SOCIALIZATION ACROSS THE LIFE COURSE

Socialization is a continuing, lifelong process. The world about us changes and requires that we also change. The self is not carved in granite, somehow finalized for all time during childhood. Life is adaptation – a process of constant renewing and remaking. Three-year-olds are socialized within the patterns of a nursery school, engineering students within their chosen profession, new employees within an office or plant, a husband and wife within a new family, religious converts within a sect, and elderly patients within a nursing home.

In one way or another, all societies have to deal with the life cycle that begins with conception and continues through old age and ultimately death. A 14-year-old girl may be expected to be a middle-school student in one culture and a mother of two in another; a 45-year-old man may be at the peak of a business career, still moving up in a political career, retired from a career as a professional football player – or dead and worshipped as an ancestor in some other society. All cultures divide

biological time into socially relevant units. While birth, puberty, maturity, aging, and death are biological facts of life, it is society that gives each its distinctive meaning.

Some peoples extend their stages of life to include the unborn and the deceased. The Australian aborigines think of the unborn as the spirits of departed ancestors. These spirits are believed to enter the womb of a passing woman and gain rebirth as a child. Likewise, the Hindus regard the unborn as the spirits of persons or animals who lived in former incarnations. The dead may also be seen as continuing members of the community.

Hence each society shapes the processes of development in its own image, defining the stages it recognizes as significant.

Modern societies are ordered in ways that formally structure people's preparation for new roles. Schools and colleges are designed to transmit various skills, mental hospitals to teach healthier patterns of adjustment, prisons to "resocialize" convicts through rehabilitation programs, and conferences and seminars to familiarize a firm's staff with its operating procedures. Role socialization commonly involves three phases (Mortimer and Simmons, 1978). First, people think about, experiment with, and try on the behaviors associated with a new role, what sociologists term **anticipatory socialization**. Children informally acquaint themselves with such adult roles as spouse and parent by "playing house." Apprenticeship, intern, probationary, and rehabilitation programs are more institutionalized arrangements for acquiring new roles. Second, once individuals assume a new status, they find that they must continually alter, adapt, and remake their roles to fit changing circumstances. For instance, as a couple enter marriage, they must evolve new interpersonal skills because much of the marital role was hidden from them as children. Third, as individuals move through the life span, they not only enter roles, but must disengage or exit from many of them. Such rituals as graduation exercises, marriage, retirement banquets, funerals, and other rites of passage are socially established mechanisms for easing some role transitions.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

ancestor [ˈænsəstə] – предок

anticipatory [ænˌtɪsɪˈpeɪt(ə)ri] – попередній; передчасний

apprenticeship [əˈprentɪsɪʃɪp] – вчення; учнівство

to carve – вирізати, різати

convict – засуджений, укладений

deceased [dɪˈsiːst] – померлий

distinctive [dɪsˈtɪŋ(k)tɪv] – відмінний, особливий

employee [ˌemplɔɪˈiː] – робітник, службовець

granite [ˈgrænɪt] – граніт

incarnation [ˌɪnkɑːˈneɪʃ(ə)n] – втілення

maturity [məˈtʃʊ(ə)rɪti] – зрілість, повний розвиток

probationary – випробувальний

puberty [ˈpju:bəti] – статевa зрілість
to retire from – йти з
rite – обряд, ритуал
span – інтервал, проміжок
spouse [spaʊz] – чоловік; дружина
womb [wʊ:m] – бібл. черевa; утробa (матері)
to worship [ˈwɜ:ʃɪp] – поклонятися, почитати

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What is socialization? 2. Does the world about us change? 3. What is life? 4. What do all societies have to deal with? 5. How may a 14-year-old girl be expected to be in different cultures? 6. What units do all cultures divide biological time into? 7. How do the Australian aborigines think of the inborn? 8. How do the Hindus regard the inborn? 9. Does each society shape the processes of development in its own image? 10. What can you say about modern societies? 11. How many phases does role socialization commonly involve? 12. What do sociologists term anticipatory socialization? 13. Why must individuals continually alter, adapt, and remake their roles? 14. What rituals are socially established mechanisms for easing some role transitions?

Exercise 2. Explain the meaning of these words using an English-English dictionary.

To worship, lifelong, career, image, distinctive, skills, to involve, to be hidden.

Exercise 3. Find words and expressions in the text to which the following are antonyms.

Adolescence, to stop, uncontinuing, similar, temporary, to exclude, to be at the beginning of a business career, divorce, unimportant.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Is it right or not? Share opinions.

Each society shapes the processes of development in its own image, defining the stages it recognizes as significant.

Text 9 CHILDHOOD

In the Middle Ages, the concept of childhood as we know it was unheard of. Children were regarded as small adults. The arts and documents of the medieval world portray adults and children mingling together, wearing the same clothes, and engaging in many of the same activities. The world we think proper for children – fairytales, games, toys, and books – is of comparatively recent origin. Until the

seventeenth century, Western words for young males – "boy," *gargon* (French), and *Knabe* (German) – were used to denote a man of 30 or so years of age who enjoyed an independent position. No special word existed for a young male between the ages of 7 and 16. The word "child" expressed kinship, not an age period. Only around the year 1600 did a new concept of childhood begin to emerge.

The notion that children should be attending school rather than working in factories, mines, and fields is of relatively recent origin. Significantly, the first industrial workers in the United States were nine children hired in 1791 as employees of a Rhode Island textile mill. In the 1820s half of the cotton mill workers in New England were children who worked twelve- to fifteen-hour days. Even as late as 1924, the National Child Labor Committee estimated that 2 million American children under 15 were at work, the majority as farm laborers.

Whatever definitions they hold of children, societies begin socializing them as soon as possible. Most infants are fairly malleable in the sense that within broad limits, they are capable of becoming adults of quite different sorts. The magnitude of their accomplishments over a relatively short period of time is truly astonishing. For example, by their fourth birthday most American children have mastered the complicated and abstract structure of the English language. And they can carry on complex social interactions in accordance with American cultural patterns.

Children display people-oriented responses at very early ages. Even before their first birthdays, children are already contributors to social life. For instance, they will point at objects – a window display, an airplane, an automobile, or a picture of a cereal box – to call other people's attention to them. In doing so, children demonstrate not only that they know other people can see what they see, but also that others will look at what interests them. By 2 years of age, children can make a doll do something as if it were acting on its own. In so doing, they reveal an elementary ability for representing other people as independent agents. Most 3-year-olds can make a doll carry out several role-related activities, revealing knowledge of a social role (for instance, pretend to be a doctor and examine a doll). Four-year-olds can typically act out a role, meshing the behavior with that of a reciprocal role (for example, pretend that a patient doll is sick and a doctor doll examines it, in the course of which both dolls make appropriate responses). During the late preschool years, children become capable of combining roles in more complicated ways (for instance, being a doctor and a father simultaneously). Most 6-year-olds can pretend to carry out several roles at the same time.

During the preschool years, children view the self and the mind as simply parts of the body. However, between 6 and 8 years of age, they begin to distinguish between mind and body. They grasp that people are unique not only because they look different, but because they have different feelings and thoughts. They come to define the self in internal rather than external terms and recognize the difference between psychological and physical attributes. The number of dimensions along which children conceptualize other people increases throughout childhood. The greatest development occurs between 7 and 8 years of age, then the rate of change in conceptualization slows. Indeed, the differences between children who are 7 years old

and those who are 8 are frequently greater than the differences between 8-year-olds and 15-year-olds.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

adult [ˈædʌlt] – дорослий, повнолітній
cotton mill – бавовнопрядильна фабрика
to denote [diˈneɪt] – показувати, відзначати
to hire – наймати
kinship – (кровне) споріднення
laborer – (некваліфікований) робочий
malleable [ˈmæliəb(ə)l] – поступливий, слухняний
medieval – середньовічний
to mesh – спрацьовуватися з ким-небудь; ладити
to mingle together – триматися разом; обертатися разом (всуспільстві)
reciprocal [rɪˈsɪrək(ə)l] – взаємний, обопільний
response – реакція, відгук
to reveal – показувати, виявляти

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Make an outline of the text in the form of key questions.

Exercise 2. Give Ukrainian equivalents of the following.

The Middle Ages, to be regarded as, medieval, to engage in many of the same activities, to be of recent origin, an independent position, notion, rather than, majority, as soon as possible, malleable, in the sense that, over a relatively short period, in accordance with, to display people-oriented responses, a cereal box, to reveal, to pretend, the late preschool years, to distinguish, to recognize the difference, to be hired as, childhood.

Exercise 3. Agree or disagree.

- 1) By their sixth birthday most American children have mastered the complicated and abstract structure of the English language.
- 2) Children don't display people-oriented responses at very early ages.
- 3) By 2 years of age children reveal an elementary ability for representing other people as independent agents.
- 4) During the preschool years children begin to distinguish between mind and body.
- 5) The greatest development occurs between 7 and 8 years of age.

Exercise 4. Complete the following sentences.

1. In the Middle Ages, children were regarded as
2. No special word existed for a young male.....
3. By their fourth birthday most American children have mastered

4. In so doing, children by 2 years of age reveal an elementary ability for representing
5. Most 6-year-olds can pretend to carry out....
6. Between 6 and 8 years of age, they begin to distinguish....

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Prove that children display people-oriented responses at very early ages.

Text 10 ADOLESCENCE

In much of the world, adolescence is not a socially distinct period in the human life span. Although young people everywhere undergo the physiological changes associated with puberty, children frequently assume adult responsibilities by age 13 and even younger. In the United States, adolescence appears to be an "invention" of the past hundred years. As the nation changed from a rural to an urban society, the role of children altered. They no longer had a significant economic function in the family once the workplace became separated from the home. In time, mandatory school attendance, child labor laws, and special legal procedures for "juveniles" established adolescence as a well-defined social reality.

During adolescence, individuals undergo changes in growth and development that are revolutionary. After years of inferiority, they suddenly catch up with adults in physical size and strength.

In the view of neo-Freudians like Erik Erikson, the main task of adolescence is to build and confirm a reasonably stable identity. As they go about their everyday lives, people interact with one another on the basis not so much of what they actually are, as of what conceptions they have of themselves and others. Erikson suggests that an optimal feeling of identity is experienced as a sense of well-being. "Its most obvious concomitants are a feeling of being at home in one's body, a sense of 'knowing where one is going', and an inner assuredness of anticipated recognition from those who count." For adolescents, Erikson says, the search for identity becomes particularly acute. Like trapeze artists, adolescents must release their hold on childhood and reach in midair for a firm grasp on adulthood. In the process, many young people confront role confusion and a blurred self-image. Their uncertain identities lead them to search for a stable anchorage by overcommitting themselves to cliques, allegiances, loves, and social causes.

Erikson's view of adolescence is in keeping with a long psychological tradition that has portrayed adolescence as a period of "storm and stress". Social scientists have suggested that Western nations make the transition from childhood to adulthood a particularly difficult one. At adolescence, boys and girls are expected to stop being children, yet they are not expected to be men and women. The definitions given them by society are inconsistent. Many non-Western societies make the shift in status more definitive by providing puberty rites – initiation ceremonies that symbolize the

transition from childhood to adulthood. Adolescents may be subjected to thoroughly distasteful, painful, and humiliating experiences during such rituals, but they are then pronounced grown up.

In recent years, however, a growing body of research has led social scientists to challenge the view that adolescence among American youth is inherently a turbulent period. Although the self-images and self-conceptions of young people change, the changes are not invariably "stormy."

Changes in the social environment, such as the transition to middle or junior high school, can in some cases have a disturbing effect, especially for girls.

Although the media make a good deal out of generational differences between adolescents and their parents, the notion of a "generation gap" vastly oversimplifies matters. Research suggests that both the family and the peer group are important anchors in the lives of most teenagers. However, the relative influence of the two groups varies with the issue involved. The peer group has the greater influence when the issues have to do with musical tastes, personal adornment, and entertainment idols, and in some cases with marijuana use and drinking. But the family has the greater influence when the issues have to do with future life goals, fundamental behavior codes, and core values. In many cases, a substantial proportion of young people see no reason to distinguish between the value system of their parents and that of their friends. In part this is due to the fact that teenagers select as friends individuals who share attitudes that are compatible with those of their families.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

acute [ə'kju:t] – гострий
adolescence [ˌædə'les(ə)ns] – юність
adornment [ə'dɔ:nmənt] – прикраса
allegiance [ə'li:dʒ(ə)ns] – вірність, лояльність
anchorage [ˈæŋk(ə)ɡɪdʒ] – надійна опора, притулок
assuredness [ə'ʃʊ(ə)ɪdɪns] – впевненість у собі
blurred [blɜ:d] – забруднений; нечіткий
concomitant [kən'kɒmɪt(ə)nt] – супутній елемент
distasteful – неприємний
humiliating [hju:'mɪliətɪŋ] – принизливий
juvenile ['dʒu:vənaɪl] – юнак, підліток
peer – рівний
puberty – статева зрілість
trapeze – трапеція
turbulent period – неспокійний період
to undergo – відчувати, переносити; піддаватися

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. Is adolescence a socially distinct period in the human life span in much of the world? 2. When do children frequently assume adult responsibilities? 3. Where does adolescence appear to be an “invention” of the past hundred years? 4. Why did the role of children alter? 5. Did they have a significant economic function in the family once the workplace became separated from the home? 6. What established adolescence as a well-defined social reality? 7. When do individuals undergo changes in growth and development? 8. What is the main task of adolescence in the view of neo-Freudians like Erick Erikson? 9. Which basis do people interact with one another on as they go about their everyday lives? 10. What does Erikson suggest? 11. What becomes particularly acute for adolescents according to Erikson’s opinion? 12. What have social scientists suggested? 13. How do many non-Western societies make the shift in status more definitive? 14. What view have social scientists challenged in recent years? 15. What makes a good deal out of generational differences between adolescents and their parents? 16. What are important anchors in the lives of most teenagers? 17. When does the peer group have the greater influence? 18. When does the family have the greater influence? 19. Does a substantial proportion of young people see any reason to distinguish between the value system of their parents and that of their friends? Give your reason.

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations.

Adolescence, a socially distinct period, to undergo the physiological changes, associated with, from a rural to an urban society, to alter, once, mandatory school attendance, special legal procedures, a well-defined social reality, after the years of inferiority, in the view of, to confirm, a reasonably stable identity, a sense of well-being, a concomitant, an inner assuredness of, the search for, to catch up with smb., to release one’s hold on, a blurred self-image, a stable anchorage, a transition, to be inconsistent, by providing puberty rites, to be subjected to, to challenge the view, a turbulent period, although, a teenager, the peer group, life goals, the value system, to be due to, to share attitudes.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Юність, супутній елемент, обов'язкове відвідування школи, молодший вік, наздогнати будь-кого, втратити чиясь владу над кимось, основне завдання, стійка ідентичність, шукати чогось, невизначена ідентичність, постійна надійна опора, принизливий досвід, хворобливий, за останні роки, майбутні життєві цілі.

Exercise 4. Complete the following sentences. Use one of the phrases from the box.

In the process, given by, share attitudes, a significant economic function, a sense of well being, the transition from, invariably “stormy”

1. They no longer had in the family, once the workplace became separated from the home.
2. Erikson suggests that an optimal feeling of identity is experienced as
3., many young people confront role confusion and a blurred self-image.
4. Western nations make childhood to adulthood a particularly difficult one.
5. The definitions given them are inconsistent.
6. Although the self-images and self-conceptions of young people change, the changes are not
7. Teenagers select as friends individuals who that are compatible with those of their families.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Speak on: The main task of adolescence is to build and confirm a reasonably stable identity.

Text 11 YOUNG ADULTHOOD

Recent developments in the Western world – the growth of service industries, the prolongation of education, and the enormously high educational demands of postindustrial society – have lengthened the transition to adulthood. In some respects our society appears to be evolving a new status between adolescence and adulthood: youth – —men and women of college and graduate school age. In leaving home, youth in their late teens or early twenties may choose a transitional institution, such as the military or college, to start them on their way. Or young people may work (provided they can find a job) while continuing to live at home. During this time, a roughly equal balance exists between being in the family and moving out. Individuals become less financially dependent, enter new roles and living arrangements, and achieve greater autonomy and responsibility. With the passage of time, the center of gravity in young people's lives gradually shifts away from the family of origin.

The developmental tasks confronting individuals from 18 to 30 years of age typically center on the two core tasks Sigmund Freud called *love* and *work*. Through adult friendships, sexual relationships, and work experiences, they arrive at initial definitions of themselves as adults. Ideally, they develop the capacity to experience a trusting, supportive, and tender relationship with another person. They may cohabit with a sexual partner or marry and begin a family. And they may lay the groundwork for a career or develop one career and then discard it. They may also drift aimlessly, which often precipitates a crisis at about age 30.

In making their way through the early years of adulthood, and for that matter the middle and later years as well, individuals are strongly influenced by age **norms** – rules that define what is appropriate for people to be and to do at various ages. A cultural timetable – a sort of societal "Big Ben" – defines the "best age" for a man or woman to finish school, settle on a career, marry, become a parent, hold a top job, become a grandparent, and retire. Individuals tend to set their personal "watches" by

this **social clock**, and most people readily report whether they themselves are "early," "late," or "on time" with regard to major life events.

However, variations do occur in the setting of one's social clock, so that the higher the social class, the later the pacing of age-linked events tends to be. Early adulthood typically lasts longer for a person in the middle class than for a member of the working class. Further, the life cycle in our society appears to be becoming more fluid; many traditional norms and expectations are changing and age is losing many of its customary meanings. As a result, we may be witnessing what sociologist Bernice L. Neugarten has called an "age-irrelevant society" in which there is no single appropriate age for taking on given roles. She notes that it is no longer unusual to encounter the 28-year-old mayor, the 30-year-old college president, the 35-year-old grandmother, the 50-year-old retiree, the 65-year-old new father, and the 70-year-old student.

Some psychologists, like Erik Erikson, have undertaken the search for what they view as the regular, sequential periods and transitions in the life cycle. They depict life as a succession of stages that resemble a stairway made up of a series of steplike levels. Erikson's chief concern is with psychological development, which he divides into the eight major stages of development. Each stage poses a unique task that revolves about a crisis. According to Erikson, the crisis posed by each stage must be successfully resolved if healthy development is to take place. Consequently, the interaction that occurs between an individual and society at each stage can change the course of personality in a positive or a negative direction. Each stage in life poses a unique set of problems that must be resolved before a person can successfully advance to the next stage. By passing from one stage to the next – *passages* – each individual acquires new strengths and evolves an *authentic identity*.

Daniel J. Levinson has also approached adulthood from a stage perspective. He and his associates at Yale University have studied forty men in their midthirties to midforties. They designate six periods ranging from the late teens or early twenties to the late forties. In Levinson's view, the overriding task confronting individuals throughout adulthood is the creation of a structure for life. But the structure does not become established once and for all time; it must be continually modified and reappraised. Transition periods tend to loom within two or three years of, and on either side of, the symbolically significant birthdays – 20, 30, 40, 50, and 60. By interacting with the environment, each person formulates goals, works out means to achieve them, and modifies assumptions.

Some social scientists believe that unexpected events in our lives shape our development far more than the predictable transitions, such as marriage, parenthood, and retirement. They contend that stage theories overlook the vast differences that characterize the human experience. Adult life is not the same thing for men and women and for rich and poor. Even the era in which a person is born makes a difference. Moreover, these social scientists contend that people are prepared for the major transitions of life by age norms and social clocks. Consequently, people tend to take the transitions in their stride and do not perceive them as crises or unusually stressful events.

People locate themselves across the life span not only in terms of social timetables, but also in terms of life events – turning points at which people change some direction in the course of their lives. Some of these events are related to social clocks. But many are not, such as suffering severe injury in an accident, being raped, winning a lottery, undergoing a Born Again conversion, or living at the time of the antiwar protests of the late 1960s. Some life events are associated with internal growth or aging factors like puberty or old age. Others are the consequences of group life, including wars, national economic crises, and revolutions. Still others derive from happenings in the physical world, including fires, hurricanes, floods, earthquakes, or avalanches. And some have a strong inner or psychological component, such as a profound religious experience, the decision to leave one's spouse, or the death of a parent.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

adulthood – юнацтво; повноліття
to advance – просуватися
avalanche [ˈævələːnʃ] – лавина (снігова)
to cohabit [kəvˈhæbit] – співмешкати, жити разом
to confront – протистояти
to designate [ˈdeziɡneɪt] – визначати, встановлювати
to discard – звільняти
to drift – не діяти, покладатися на волю випадку
fluid [ˈfluːɪd] – нестійкий
gravity [ˈɡrævɪti] – серйозність
hurricane [ˈhʌrɪkən] – ураган
injury [ˈɪndʒəri] – тілесне ушкодження
to loom – приймати перебільшені розміри
to perceive – розуміти, усвідомлювати
to precipitate [prɪˈsɪpɪteɪt] – прискорювати
profound – глибокий, ґрунтовний
to rape – вчинити насильство над жінкою
roughly [ˈrʌfli] – приблизно
sequential period – наступний період
to shift away – віддалятися
stairway – сходовий марш
to witness – свідчити

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What has lengthened the transition to adulthood? 2. What does our society appear to be evolving in some respects? 3. May youth in their late teens or early twenties choose a transitional institution such as the military or college in leaving home?

4. What is the age of individuals whose developmental tasks center on the two core tasks Sigmund Freud called love and work? 5. What are age norms? 6. Why is the life cycle becoming more fluid? 7. What has Bernice L. Neugarten called an “age-irrelevant society”? 8. How do some psychologists depict life? 9. What task does each stage pose? 10. When must the crisis be successfully resolved? 11. How many men have Daniel J. Levinson and his associates at Yale University studied? 12. When does each person formulate goals, work out means to achieve them and modify assumptions? 13. Is adult life the same thing for men and women and for rich and poor? 14. In which terms do people locate themselves across the life span? 15. What are some life events associated with?

Exercise 2. Give Ukrainian equivalents of the following.

The growth of service industries, the high educational demands, in some respects, to choose, a roughly equal balance, to achieve greater autonomy and responsibility, the center of gravity, to shift away, the developmental tasks, to experience a relationship, to cohabit, to lay the groundwork for a career, to drift aimlessly, to precipitate a crisis, in making one’s way through the early years of adulthood, to be influenced by age norms, to be appropriate for, to become a parent, age-linked events, a sequential period, the social clock, a chief concern, an authentic identity, unexpected events, retirement, to take smth. in one’s stride, in the course of their lives, aging factors, a profound religious experience, the core tasks.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Майже спокійна рівновага, в деяких стосунках, які стоять перед людьми, досвід роботи, закласти основу кар'єри, бути під впливом вікових норм, що стосується, свідчити, ділити на вісім основних стадій, легко впоратися з чим-небудь, отже, здаватися досить серйозним протягом двох або трьох років, несподівані події.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Do you agree with the following statement? Develop your ideas.

The interaction that occurs between an individual and society at each stage can change the course of personality in a positive or a negative direction.

Exercise 2. Imagine you have received the task to make an open lecture entitled “Young adults lay the ground work for a career”. What problems can you discuss in it?

Text 12

LATER ADULTHOOD

Like other periods of the life span, the time at which later adulthood begins is a matter of social definition. In preindustrial societies, life expectancy is typically short and the onset of old age is early. For instance, one observer reported that among the

Arawak of Guyana (South America), individuals seldom lived more than 50 years and between the thirtieth and fortieth years in the case of men, and even earlier in the case of women, "the body, except the stomach, shrinks, and fat disappears [and] the skin hangs in hideous folds". Literary evidence also reveals that during the European Renaissance, men were considered "old" in their forties. Currently, a new division is emerging in many Western nations between the "young-old" and the "old-old". The young-old are early retirees who enjoy physical vigor, new leisure time, and new opportunities for community service and self-fulfillment. The old-old include those who are of advanced age and suffer various infirmities.

Societies differ in the prestige and dignity they accord the aged. In many rural societies, including imperial China, elders enjoyed a prominent, esteemed, and honored position. Among the agricultural Palaung of North Burma, long life was deemed a privilege reserved for those who had lived virtuously in a previous incarnation. People showed their respect to older people by being careful not to step on their shadows. Young women cultivated an older appearance because women acquired honor and privilege in proportion to their years. In contrast to these cultural patterns, youth is the favored age in the United States. We have restricted the roles open to the elderly and accord them little prestige. Indeed, the older the elderly become, especially as they reach advanced age, the more likely Americans are to stereotype them unfavorably. They are depicted as troublesome, cranky, touchy, and sickly beings. In some respects, the very old have become the nation's lepers.

Despite the unfavorable stereotypes that persist regarding the elderly, the actual picture is substantially different. Only 12 persons out of 1,000 in the 65 to 74 age group live in nursing homes. The figure rises to 59 for those 75 to 84, and to 237 for those over 85. Overall, only one American in five who is over 65 will ever be relegated to a nursing home. Additionally, about 3 percent of the elderly who live at home are bedridden, 5 percent are seriously incapacitated, and another 11 to 16 percent are restricted in mobility. On the other hand, from one-half to three-fifths of the elderly function without any limitation (and 37 percent of those 85 and over report no incapacitating limitation on their activity).

Old age entails exiting from some social roles. One of the most important of these is retirement from a job. On the whole, Americans are now retiring at earlier ages than in previous generations. The proportion of men aged 65 and over who were gainfully employed dropped from 68 percent in 1890, to 48 percent in 1947, to only 16 percent today. About 8 percent of women over 65 hold jobs or are seeking work, down from 9.5 percent in 1971. Of equal social significance, employed men aged 55 to 64 declined from 89 percent in 1947 to 69 percent currently, a drop of 20 percentage points. In government, nearly two out of three civil servants retire before age 62.

Traditionally, retirement has been portrayed as having negative consequences for the elderly because occupational status is a master status – an anchoring point for adult identity. Much of postretirement life is seen as aimless, and giving structure to the long, shapeless day is believed to be the retired person's most urgent challenge. Further, sociologist Irving Rosow contends that in the United States people are not effectively socialized to old age. The social norms that define the expectations for old

age are few, weak, and nebulous. Complicating matters, the elderly have little motivation to conform to a "roleless role" – a socially devalued status. Even if there were definitive norms for guiding people's behavior in old age, Rosow says that few people would want to conform to role expectations that exclude them from equal opportunities for social participation and rewards.

In recent years the negative view of retirement has been challenged. For one thing, attitudes toward work and retirement seem to be changing. Moreover, research reveals that money is what is most missed in retirement, and that when people are assured an adequate income, they will retire early. One long-term survey of 5,000 men found that most men who retire for reasons other than health are "very happy" in retirement and would, if they had to do it over again, retire at the same age. Only about 13 percent of whites and 17 percent of blacks said they would choose to retire later if they could choose again. Overall, when people are healthy and their incomes are adequate, they express satisfaction with retirement.

Many elderly individuals also experience another role loss, that of being married. Although three out of four American men 65 and over are married and living with their wives, the same holds true for only one out of three women. This results from the fact that women typically outlive men by seven to eight years and from the tradition that women marry men older than themselves. Research by Helena Znaniecki Lopata reveals that the higher a woman's education and socioeconomic class, the more disorganized her self-identity and life become after her husband's death. However, once their "grief work" is accomplished, these women have more resources to form a new life style. Overall, negative long-term consequences of widowhood appear to derive more from socioeconomic deprivation than from widowhood itself. Of interest, Lopata found that about half of the widows in her study lived alone, and most of these said they much preferred to do so. Only 10 percent moved in with their married children. Those who lived alone cited their desire to remain independent as their chief reason.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

to be bedridden – бути прикутим до ліжка (хворобою)

to conform – пристосовувати (ся)

cranky [ˈkræŋki] – з примхами

the elderly – літня людина

to entail – обмежувати

esteemed – шановний, шанований

to exclude – не допускати

gainfully – вигідно

grief [ɡriːf] – горе, печаль

in hideous [ˈhɪdiəs] folds – огидними складками

infirmary – неміч, дряхлість

leisure [ˈleɪzə] – дозвілля

leper – хворий на проказу; прокажений

nebulous – смутний, неясний
onset – натиск; початок
to outlive – пережити (кого-небудь, що-небудь)
postretirement – після виходу у відставку або на пенсію
to relegate – відсилати
retiree [ˈrɪ,tʌɪəˈri:] – відставник
to shrink – стискуватися; всихати
touchy – образливий, дратівливий
troublesome – заподіюючий занепокоєння, скрутний
vigor – бадьорість
widowhood – удівство (жінки)

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. In pairs ask and answer questions with the following words:

- a. the onset of old age
- b. a new division
- c. the prestige and dignity
- d. retirement from a job
- e. little motivation to conform to
- f. an adequate income
- g. to form a new life style

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

Later adulthood, in preindustrial societies, the onset of old age, literary evidence, to reveal, physical vigor, self-fulfillment, to be of advanced age, to suffer, indeed, in some respects, nursing homes, to be bedridden, to incapacitate, negative consequences for, an anchoring point, to be the most urgent challenge, equal opportunities for social participation and rewards, overall, to outlive men by seven to eight years, socioeconomic deprivation, widowhood, to cite.

Exercise 3. Multiple choice:

One observer reported that among the Arawak of Guyana (South America),

- a) young women cultivated an older appearance.
- b) individuals seldom lived more than 50 years.
- c) complex relationship between heredity and environment existed.

Old age entails existing from

- a) the hospice movement.
- b) bad marriage.
- c) some social roles.

When people are healthy and their ... are adequate, they express satisfaction with retirement.

- a) incomes
- b) expectations
- c) cultural patterns

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. What do you think are advantages of later adulthood? And the disadvantages.

Exercise 2. Sum up your ideas of the text.

REVISION EXERCISES ON UNIT IV

Exercise 1. Translate the following sentences:

1. Соціалізація – це процес суспільної взаємодії, за допомогою якого люди набувають такої поведінки, яка є важливою для ефективної участі у суспільстві.
2. Як людина, так і суспільство є взаємозалежними від соціалізації.
3. Динамічний взаємозв'язок між людиною і навколишнім середовищем являє собою основу інтелекту людини, знань і культури.
4. Комунікація включає всі вербальні і невербальні процеси, за допомогою яких ми відправляємо і приймаємо повідомлення.
5. Коли люди здорові і мають адекватний дохід, вони зазвичай відчують задоволення від виходу на пенсію.
6. Розшарування означає встановлену нерівність у розподілі винагород.
7. Визначення ситуації – це наша інтерпретація безпосередніх обставин.
8. Сукупність властивостей людини - це процес, за допомогою якого ми розробляємо свої дії для того, щоб пристосувати їх до дій, що виходять від інших людей.

Exercise 2. Prepare a report on one of the issues of Unit IV.

Exercise 3. Read and translate the following glossary.

GLOSSARY

age norms Rules that define what is appropriate for people to be and to do at various ages.

anticipatory socialization People think about, experiment with, and try on the behaviors associated with a new role.

body language Physical motions and gestures that provide social signals.

communication The process by which people transmit information, ideas, attitudes, and mental states to one another.

definition of the situation The interpretation or meaning we give to our immediate circumstances.

dramaturgical approach The sociological perspective associated with Erving Goffman that views the performances staged in a theater as an analytical analogy and tool for depicting social life.

egocentric bias The tendency to place ourselves at the center of events, so that we overperceive ourselves as the victim or target of an action or event that, in reality, is not directed at us.

generalized other The term George Herbert Mead applied to the social unit that gives individuals their unity of self. The attitude of the generalized other is the attitude of the larger community.

hospice A program or mode of care that attempts to make the dying experience less painful and emotionally traumatic for patients and their families.

impression management The term Erving Goffman applied to the process whereby we present ourselves to others in ways that will lead them to view us in a favorable light.

language acquisition device The view associated with Noam Chomsky that human beings possess an inborn language-generating mechanism. The basic structure of language is seen as biologically channeled, forming a sort of prefabricated filing system to order the words and phrases that make up human languages.

life events Turning points at which people change some direction in the course of their lives.

looking-glass self The term that Charles Horton Cooley applied to the process by which we imaginatively assume the stance of other people and view ourselves as we believe they see us.

paralanguage Nonverbal cues surrounding speech – voice, pitch, volume, pacing of speech, silent pauses, and sighs – that provide a rich source of communicative information.

proxemics The way we employ social and personal space to transmit messages.

puberty rites Initiation ceremonies that symbolize the transition from childhood to adulthood;

self The set of concepts we use in defining who we are.

self-conception An overriding view of ourselves; a sense of self through time.

self-image A mental conception or picture we have of ourselves that is relatively temporary; it changes as we move from one context to another.

significant other The term George Herbert Mead applied to a social model, usually an important person in an individual's life.

social clock The personal "watch" individuals use to pace the major events of their lives and which is based on cultural age norms.

socialization A process of social interaction by which people acquire the knowledge, attitudes, values, and behaviors essential for effective participation in society.

Thomas theorem The notion that our definitions influence our construction of reality. It was stated by William I. Thomas and Dorothy S. Thomas: "If men [people] define situations as real, they are real in their consequences."

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

UNIT V. INTERACTIONS AMONG INDIVIDUALS

Text 1 IN-GROUPS AND OUT-GROUPS

It is not only the groups to which we immediately belong that have a powerful influence upon us. Often the same holds true for groups to which we do not belong. Accordingly, sociologists find it useful to distinguish between in-groups and out-groups. An **in-group** is a group with which we identify and to which we belong. An **out-group** is a group with which we do not identify and to which we do not belong. In daily conversation we recognize the distinction between in-groups and out-groups in our use of the personal pronouns "we" and "they". We can think of in-groups as "we-groups" and out-groups as "they-groups."

The concepts of in-group and out-group highlight the importance of *boundaries* – social demarcation lines that tell us where interaction begins and ends. Group boundaries are not physical barriers, but rather discontinuities in the flow of social interaction. To one degree or another, a group's boundaries "encapsulate" people in a social membrane so that the focus and flow of their actions are internally contained. Some boundaries are based on territorial location, such as neighborhoods, communities, and nation-states. Others rest on social distinctions, such as ethnic group or religious, political, occupational, language, kin, and socioeconomic class memberships. Whatever their source, social boundaries face in two directions. They prevent outsiders from entering a group's sphere, and they keep insiders within that sphere so they do not entertain rival possibilities for social interaction.

At times we experience feelings of indifference, disgust, competition, and even outright conflict when we think about or have dealings with out-group members. An experiment undertaken by Muzafer Sherif and his associates has shown how our awareness of in-group boundaries is heightened and antagonism toward out-groups is generated by competitive situations. The subjects were 11- and 12-year-old boys, all of whom were healthy, socially well-adjusted youngsters from stable, middle-class homes. The setting was a summer camp where the boys were divided into two groups.

During the first week at the camp the boys in each group got to know one another, evolved group norms, and arrived at an internal division of labor and leadership roles. During the second week, the experimenters brought the two groups into competitive contact through a tournament of baseball, touch football, tug-of-war, and treasure hunt games. Although the contest opened in a spirit of good sportsmanship, positive feelings quickly evaporated. During the third week, the "integration phase," Sherif brought the two groups of boys together for various events, including eating in the same mess hall, viewing movies, and shooting off firecrackers. But far from reducing conflict, these settings merely provided new opportunities for the two groups to challenge, berate, and harass one another. The experimenters then created a series of urgent and natural situations in which the two groups would have to work together to achieve their ends, such as the emergency repair of the conduit that delivered the camp's water supply. Whereas competition

had heightened awareness of group boundaries, the pursuit of common goals led to the lessening of out-group hostilities and the lowering of intergroup barriers to cooperation.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

awareness [ə'weənis] – обізнаність, інформованість, усвідомлюваність
to belong – належати
to berate – сварити, лаяти
boundaries – кордони
conduit – трубопровід
demarcation – [di:mɑ:'keɪ](ə)n] демаркація, встановлення меж, розмежування
discontinuity [ˌdɪs,kɒntɪ'nju(:)ɪti] – розрив безперервності; відсутність
закономірності
disgust – відраза
to encapsulate [ɪn'kæpsjuleɪt] – класти в капсулу
to evaporate [ɪ'væpəreɪt] – випаровуватися, зникати без сліду
firecracker – феєрверк
to harass [ˈhærəs] – турбувати, тривожити
to heighten [ˈhaɪtn] – підвищувати, посилювати
to highlight [ˈhaɪlaɪt] – надавати велике значення
hostility [hɒ'stɪlɪti] – ворожість
lessening – зменшуючи, збавляючи
mess hall – їдальня (наприклад, тимчасова)
occupational language – професійна мова
outright conflict – відкритий конфлікт
pursuit [pə'sju:t] – переслідування; пошуки
rival [ˈraɪv(ə)l] – суперник, конкурент
sportsmanship – спортивна майстерність, стійкість, захоплення спортом
tug-of-war – перетягування на канаті
tournament [ˈtuənmənt] – турнір

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Ask key questions to the text in writing.

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

To have a powerful influence upon smb., to hold true for, to belong to, to find smth. useful, in-groups and out-groups, to highlight the importance of boundaries, to one degree or another, a social membrane, to be internally contained, to face, to prevent outsiders from entering a group's sphere, social interaction, the subjects, to evolve group norms, to arrive at an internal division of labour, a spirit of good sportsmanship, to reduce the conflict, to challenge, urgent and natural situations, to

heighten the awareness of group boundaries, to lead to the lessening of hostility, to lower intergroup barriers.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Відповідно, у повсякденному спілкуванні, в процесі соціальної взаємодії, базуватися територіально, користуватися рівними можливостями, ґрунтуватися на соціальних відмінностях, виникати в результаті конкуренції, добре адаптовані соціально, змушувати групи конкурувати, дух здорової змагальності, надавати нові можливості, проходження спільної мети, зменшувати міжгрупові бар'єри.

Exercise 4. Agree or disagree with the following.

1. It is not only the groups to which we do not immediately belong that have a powerful influence upon us.
2. In daily conversation we do not recognize the distinction between in-groups and out-groups in our use of the personal pronouns "we" and "they."
3. The concepts of in-group and out-group narrows the importance of *boundaries* – social demarcation lines that tell us where interaction begins and ends.
4. Group boundaries are physical barriers.
5. All boundaries are based on territorial location.
6. Others rest on political distinctions.
7. Social boundaries face in various directions.
8. We always experience feelings of indifference, disgust, competition, and even outright conflict when we think about or have dealings with out-group members.
9. The pursuit of common goals didn't lead to the lessening of out-group hostilities and the lowering of intergroup barriers to cooperation.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. You are at the conference devoted to the concepts of in-group and out-group. What questions would you ask?

Exercise 2. Make the written analysis of the text. Present it to your classmates, discussing the key concepts of it.

Exercise 3. Read the following. What do you think? Discuss it with your classmates.

According to Merton reference groups are those groups which are the referring points of the individuals, towards which he is oriented and which influences his opinion, tendency and behaviour. The individual is surrounded by countless reference groups. Both the memberships and inner groups and non memberships and outer groups may be reference groups.

Exercise 4. Multiple choice:

1. Which relationships can primary group relationships sometimes evolve out of?
 - a. employees' relationships
 - b. socioeconomic relationships
 - c. secondary group relationships
 - d. gender relationships
2. Which one is not a characteristic of a group?
 - a. popularity
 - b. socio-economic status
 - c. size
 - d. gender
3. What exactly is a norm?
 - a. social ranking
 - b. beliefs about values
 - c. standards of behavior
 - d. groups
4. Which country has a 'National Respect Day for the Elderly?'
 - a. China
 - b. Ukraine
 - c. Chile
 - d. Japan
5. Which norm is the strongest one in a society?
 - a. folkways
 - b. more
 - c. taboo
 - d. sanction
6. A(n) _____ status is one that is earned
 - a. social
 - b. ascribed
 - c. achieved
 - d. sanctioned
7. Which one of these is not one of the 5 institutions of a society?
 - a. democracy
 - b. government
 - c. religion
 - d. economics

Text 2

PRIMARY GROUPS AND SECONDARY GROUPS

Sociologists have built ties on the distinction between expressive and instrumental ones to distinguish between two types of groups: primary and secondary. A primary group involves two or more people who enjoy a direct, intimate, cohesive relationship with one another. Expressive ties predominate in primary groups; we view the people – friends, family members, and lovers – as ends

in themselves and valuable in their own right. A secondary group entails two or more people who are involved in an impersonal relationship and have come together for a specific, practical purpose. Instrumental ties predominate in secondary groups; we perceive people as means to ends rather than as ends in their own right. Illustrations include our relationships with a clerk in a clothing store and a cashier at a service station. Sometimes primary group relationships evolve out of secondary group relationships. This happens in many work settings. People on the job often develop close relationships with coworkers as they come to share gripes, jokes, gossip, and satisfactions.

A number of conditions enhance the likelihood that primary groups will arise. First, group size is important. We find it difficult to get to know people personally when they are milling about and dispersed in large groups. In small groups we have a better chance to initiate contact and establish rapport with them. Second, face-to-face contact allows us to size up others. Seeing and talking with one another in close physical proximity makes possible a subtle exchange of ideas and feelings. And third, the probability that we will develop primary group bonds increases as we have frequent and continuous contact. Our ties with people often deepen as we interact with them across time and gradually evolve interlocking habits and interests.

We use the word "primary" in our daily conversations to refer to things that are essential and important. Clearly the term is appropriate for primary groups, since they are fundamental to us and to society. First, primary groups are critical to the socialization process. Within them, infants and children are introduced to the ways of their society. Such groups are the breeding grounds in which we acquire the norms and values that equip us for social life. Sociologists view primary groups as bridges between individuals and the larger society because they transmit, mediate, and interpret society's cultural patterns and provide the sense of oneness so critical for social solidarity.

Second, primary groups are fundamental because they provide the settings in which we meet most of our personal needs. Within them, we experience companionship, love, security, and an overall sense of well-being. Not surprisingly, sociologists find that the strength of a group's primary ties has implications for its functioning. For example, the stronger the primary group ties of troops fighting together, the better their combat record is. During World War II the success of German military units derived not from Nazi ideology, but from the ability of the German army to reproduce in the infantry company the intimacy and bonds found in civilian primary groups. What made the *Wehrmacht* so formidable was that, unlike the American army, German soldiers who trained together went into battle together. Additionally, American fighting units were kept up to strength through individual replacement, whereas German units were "fought down," then pulled back to be reconstituted as a new group. And the Israelis have found that combat units hastily thrown together without time to form close bonds perform more poorly in battle and experience higher rates of psychiatric casualties than do units with close bonds.

Third, primary groups are fundamental because they serve as powerful instruments for social control. Their members command and dispense many of the rewards that are so vital to us and that make our lives seem worthwhile. Should the

use of rewards fail, members can frequently win compliance by rejecting or threatening to ostracize those who deviate from its norms. For instance, some religious cults employ "shunning" (a person can remain in the community, but others are forbidden to interact with him or her) as a device to bring into line individuals whose behavior goes beyond that allowed by the group's teachings. Even more important, primary groups define social reality for us by "structuring" our experiences. By providing us with definitions of situations, they elicit from us behavior that conforms to group-devised meanings. Primary groups, then, serve both as carriers of social *norms and as enforcers* of them.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. *Sociology. The Core*)

Vocabulary list

bonds [ˈbɒndz] – зобов'язання, узи
breeding – виховання, освіта; хороші манери
cashier [ˈkæʃɪə] – касир
cohesive [kəʊˈhiːsɪv] – пов'язаний, зобов'язаний
combat unit – бойовий підрозділ
casualty [ˈkæʒuəlɪ] – втрати (на війні); людина, яка постраждала від нещасного випадку
companionship [kəmˈpæniənʃɪp] – товаристські стосунки, дружба, товаристське спілкування
compliance [kəmˈplaɪəns] – згода, відповідність, прийняття
to deviate [ˈdiːviət] – відхилитися, відступати, відійти від
to be dispersed – бути неуважним, розосередженим
to devise [diˈvaɪz] – придумувати, задумувати
to elicit [ɪˈlɪsɪt] – витягати, робити висновки
enforcer – той, хто примушує
to entail [ˈenteɪl] – накласти, спричинити за собою, включати в себе
Formidable [ˈfɔːmɪdəbl̩] брит. [ˈfɔːˈmɪdəbl̩] амер. – зд. страхітливий, важкопереборний
gossip – плітки, чутки
gripe [ɡraɪp] – роздратування, досада
infantry [ˈɪnfəntri] – піхота
interlocking – взаємозв'язок, поєднуючи
intimacy [ˈɪntɪməsi] – тісний зв'язок
implication [ˌɪmplɪˈkeɪʃ(ə)n] – причетність, щось мається на увазі, сенс
likelihood [ˈlaɪklihʊd] – багатообіцяюча майбутність, правдоподібність
mediate [ˈmiːdiət] – бути посередником, бути сполучною ланкою
to mill about – безладно рухатися
to ostracize [ˈɒstrəsaɪz] – піддавати остракізму; виганяти з суспільства
proximity [prɒkˈsɪmɪti] – близькість, сусідство
psychiatric(al) [ˌsaɪkɪˈætrɪk(ə)] – психіатричний
rapport – взаємовідносини; гармонія
to reconstitute – відтворювати, відтворювати
satisfaction [ˌsætɪsˈfækʃ(ə)n] – виконання зобов'язання, задоволеність

shunning – зд. вигнання із групи чи товариства, бойкот
subtle [ˈsʌtl] – невловимий, ледве помітний (розрізняється)
troops – війська
vital [ˈvaɪtl] – життєво важливий, вкрай необхідний
worthwhile [ˌwɜːθˈwaɪl] – вартий, корисний, результативний

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. Why have sociologists built ties on the distinction between expressive and instrumental ones? 2. What does a primary group involve? 3. What ties predominate in primary groups? 4. What does a secondary group entail? 5. What ties predominate in secondary groups? 6. Do primary group relationships sometimes evolve out of secondary group relationships? 7. What conditions enhance the likelihood that primary groups will arise? 8. When do our ties with people deepen? 9. Why is the term “primary” appropriate for primary groups? 10. Which groups are critical to the socialization process? 11. Which groups do we acquire the norms and values in? 12. Why are primary groups fundamental? 13. Where did the success of German military units derive from? 14. What have the Israelis found? 15. What does “shunning” mean? 16. How do primary groups define social reality for us?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

To build ties, the distinction between expressive and instrumental ties, to distinguish between; enjoy a direct, intimate, cohesive relationship with one another; to entail people involved in an impersonal relationship, to come together for a specific purpose, to evolve out of secondary group relationships, work settings, to share gripes, to enhance the likelihood, to have a better chance, to initiate a contact, to establish a rapport, to size up others, a close physical proximity, to evolve interlocking habits and interests, to refer to things, to be fundamental to the society, to be introduced to the ways of one's society, to be the breeding grounds, to be critical to the socialization process, to mediate a society's cultural patterns, to provide the sense of oneness, to meet most of our personal needs, to experience companionship, to provide the settings, to have implications for functioning, to reproduce the intimacy and bonds, to be kept up to strength through individual replacement, to experience higher rates of psychiatric casualties, to win compliance by rejecting or threatening, to be forbidden to interact, to conform to group-devised meanings.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Розвивати тісні стосунки зі співробітниками, розподілятися у великі групи, контакт обличчям до обличчя, ненав'язливий обмін ідеями і почуттями, мати постійний і тривалий контакт, бути придатним для, вбирати норми і цінності,

походити з, відтворюватися в якості нової групи, бути потужним інструментом соціального контролю, робити життя осмисленим, деякі релігійні культи, використовувати «бойкот», визначати соціальну реальність, виступати в ролі носіїв соціальних норм.

Exercise 4. Supply the missing words or word combinations choosing among those given below.

develop close relationships, establish rapport, deepen, fundamental, to distinguish between, involves, relationship, have come together for, entails, impersonal, critical to the socialization, have built ties on the distinction, gripes, interlocking, as bridges, provide the settings, across time, have a better chance, interpret society's cultural patterns.

1. Sociologists..... between expressive and instrumental ones..... two types of groups: primary and secondary.
2. A primary group two or more people who enjoy a direct, intimate, cohesive..... with one another.
3. A secondary group two or more people who are involved in an relationship and a specific, practical purpose.
4. People on the job often with coworkers as they come to share ..., jokes, gossip, and satisfactions.
5. In small groups we to initiate contact and with them.
6. Our ties with people often as we interact with them and gradually evolve habits and interests.
7. First, primary groups are..... process. Within them, infants and children are introduced to the ways of their society.
8. Sociologists view primary groups between individuals and the larger society because they transmit, mediate, and and provide the sense of oneness so critical for social solidarity.
9. Second, primary groups are because they in which we meet most of our personal needs.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Read some information about a famous sociologist Charles Horton Cooley. What other sociologists that contributed to the development of primary and secondary group notions do you know?

The American social psychologist, sociologist, and educator Charles Horton Cooley (1864-1929) showed that personality emerges from social influences and that the individual and the group are complementary aspects of human association. In his work *Social Organization* he formulated the crucial role of primary groups (family, play groups, and so on) as the source of one's morals, sentiments, and ideals. But the impact of the primary group is so great that individuals cling to primary ideals in more complex associations and even create new primary groupings within formal

organizations. Cooley viewed society as a constant experiment in enlarging social experience and in coordinating variety. He therefore analyzed the operation of such complex social forms as formal institutions and social class systems and the subtle controls of public opinion. He concluded that class differences reflect different contributions to society, as well as the phenomena of aggrandizement and exploitation.

(From BookRags.com)

Exercise 2. Comment on the following. Use your professional knowledge.

Peter Principle states that in a hierarchy competence employees tend to be promoted until they reach a level at which they are not competent to do the work, and then they remain there because they feel insecure about their shoddy work. They begin to concentrate on rules and regulations, reducing the quality of their work even more.

Exercise 3. Speak on the following topics.

- 1) Groups are products of social definitions – sets of shared ideals. What do you think about it?
- 2) Do you agree that we make groups real by treating them as if they are real?
- 3) How do small groups differ in structure, leadership, size and membership?
- 4) How do groups influence individual perception and behavior?
- 5) How is group decision- making different from individual decision-making?

Text 3

REFERENCE GROUPS

More than a century ago, American writer Henry Thoreau observed: "If a man does not keep pace with his companions, perhaps it is because he hears a different drummer." Thoreau's observation contains an important sociological insight. We evaluate ourselves and guide our behavior by standards embedded in a group context. But since people are dispersed among a good many different groups – each with a somewhat unique subculture or counterculture – the frames of reference we use in assessing and fashioning our behavior differ. In brief, we have different reference groups – social units we use for appraising and shaping attitudes, feelings, and actions.

A reference group may or may not be our membership group. We may think of a reference group as a base we use for viewing the world, a source of psychological identification. It helps to account for seemingly contradictory behavior: the upper-class revolutionary, the renegade Catholic, the reactionary union member, the shabby gentleman, the quisling who collaborates with the enemy, the assimilated immigrant, and the social-climbing chambermaid. These individuals have simply taken as their reference group people other than those from their membership group. The concept thus helps to illuminate such central sociological concerns as social networks, socialization, and social conformity.

Reference groups provide both *normative* and *comparative* functions. Since we would like to view ourselves as being members in good standing within a certain group – or we aspire to such membership – we take on the group's norms and values.

We cultivate its life styles, political attitudes, musical tastes, food preferences, sexual practices, and drug-using behaviors. Our behavior is group-anchored. We also use the standards of our reference group to appraise ourselves – a comparison point against which we judge and evaluate our physical attractiveness, intelligence, health, ranking, and standard of living. When our membership group does not match our reference group, we may experience feelings of **relative deprivation** – discontent associated with the gap between what we have (the circumstances of our membership group) and what we believe we should have (the circumstances of our reference group). Feelings of relative deprivation often contribute to social alienation and provide fertile conditions for collective behavior and revolutionary social movements. The reference group concept, then, contains clues to processes of social change.

However, not all reference groups are positive. We also make use of negative reference groups, social units with which we compare ourselves to emphasize the differences between ourselves and others. For Cuban-Americans in Miami, Florida, the Castro regime functions as a negative reference group. A good many of them fled their homeland after Castro came to power in the 1959 revolution. Militant opposition to the Castro regime helps the Cuban-Americans determine what they really believe in and decide who they really are. Of even greater significance, the negative reference group is a mechanism of social solidarity, an instrument by which the exile community binds itself together. It provides a common denominator for acceptance and ensures for members of the cause the benefits that accrue to true believers.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

to account for – пояснювати
 accrue [ə'kru:] – наростати, накопичуватися
 alienation [ˌeɪlɪə'neɪʃ(ə)n] – відчуження, охолодження
 to appraise [ə'preɪz] – оцінювати
 to aspire [ə'spaɪə] – прагнути
 conformity [kən'fɔ:mɪti] – відповідність
 contradictory [ˌkɒntrə'dɪkt(ə)rɪ] – суперечливий
 deprivation [ˌdeɪprɪ'veɪʃ(ə)n] – позбавлення; втрата
 to discontent – викликати невдоволення
 to disperse [dɪs'pɜ:s] – розосереджувати; розходитися
 drummer – барабанщик
 to flee (fled; fled) – бігти
 fled their homecountry – втекли з рідної країни
 to illuminate [ɪ'l(j)u:mɪneɪt] – висвітлювати, опромінювати
 group-anchored [gru:p'æŋkəd] – закріплений за групою
 quisling ['kwɪzln] – зрадник
 ranking – вищестоящий
 renegade ['renɪgeɪd] – ренегат, зрадник
 seemingly – на вигляд, мабуть
 shabby – зношений

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Make an outline of the text in the form of key questions and let your classmates answer them.

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

To keep pace with smb., an important sociological insight, to be dispersed among a good many different groups, to have different reference groups, to appraise and shape attitudes, a source of psychological identification, to illuminate central sociological concerns, social networks, social conformity, to provide smb. with, to judge and evaluate, to match reference group, to experience feelings of relative deprivation, the circumstances of the reference group, to contribute to social alienation, to contain a clue to processes of social change, a negative reference group, the exile community, to provide a common denominator.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Стандарти, характерні для поняття «група»; якась унікальна «субкультура», сприймати світ, культивувати певні життєві стилі, забезпечувати сприятливі умови, підкреслювати відмінності, механізм соціальної солідарності; люди, які живуть на засланні.

Exercise 4. Multiple choice:

We evaluate ... and guide our behavior by standards embedded in a group context.

- a) personal troubles
- b) ourselves
- c) personal difficulties

We may think of a reference group as a base we use for ... , a source of psychological identification.

- a) viewing the world
- b) collective behavior
- c) practicing the customs

... often contribute to social alienation and provide fertile conditions for collective behavior and revolutionary social movements.

- a) Social units
- b) Norms and values
- c) Feelings of relative deprivation

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Reproduce the text in your own words using new words and word combinations you have already learnt.

Exercise 2. Think of the answers for the following questions. Share in groups and discuss. Choose a speaker to present your answers to the other group. Discuss, prove your points of view illustrating by your own examples.

- *What does a social group consist of?*
- *What should the definition of a social group include?*
- *Frequent interaction leads people to share values and beliefs, doesn't it?*
- *What stimulates more frequent and intense interaction?*
- *Does each group maintain solidarity with all other groups and other types of social systems?*
- *Are groups important both to their members and to the society at large?*
- *What does the society rest on?*
- *Are social groups different from quasi-groups?*
- *Is it true that social classes give rise to political parties?*

Text 4 **GROUP SIZE**

The size of a group is important because, even though it is a structural component, it influences the nature of interaction. The smaller the group, the more opportunities we have to get to know other people well and to establish close ties with them. The popular adage "Two's company, three's a crowd" captures an important difference between two-person and three-person groups. Two-person groups – dyads – are the setting for many of our most intense and influential relationships, including that between parent and child and between husband and wife. Indeed, most of our social interactions take place on a one-to-one basis.

Sociologist John James and his students observed 7,405 informal interactions of pedestrians, playground users, swimmers, and shoppers, and 1,458 people in a variety of work situations. They found that 71 percent of both the informal and work interactions consisted of two people; 21 percent involved three people; 6 percent included four people; and only 2 percent entailed five or more people. Emotions and feelings tend to play a greater part in dyads than they do in larger groups (Hare, 1976). But this factor also contributes to their relatively fragile nature: A delicate balance exists between the parties, so if one of them becomes disenchanted, the relationship collapses. And contrary to what you might expect, two-person relationships tend to be more emotionally strained and less overtly aggressive than are other relationships.

The addition of a third member to a group – forming a **triad** – fundamentally alters a social situation. Coalitions become possible, with two members joining forces against a third member. With this arrangement, one person may be placed in the role

of an "intruder" or "outsider." However, under some circumstances, the third person may assume the role of a "mediator," and function as a peacemaker.

One recurring question that has attracted the interest of sociologists is this: What is the optimum group size for problem solving? For instance, if you want to appoint a committee to make a recommendation, what would be the ideal size for the group? Small-group research suggests that five is usually the best size. With five members, a strict deadlock is not possible because there is an odd number of members. Further, since groups tend to split into a majority of three and a minority of two, being a minority does not result in the isolation of one person, as it does in the triad. The group is sufficiently large for the members to shift roles easily and for a person to withdraw from an awkward position without necessarily having to resolve the issue formally. Finally, five-person groups are large enough so that people feel they can express their emotions freely and even risk antagonizing one another, yet they are small enough so that the members show regard for one another's feelings and needs. As groups become larger, they become less manageable. People no longer carry on a "conversation" with the other members, but "address" them with formal vocabulary and grammar.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

adage [ˈædɪdʒ] – (старовинна) приказка
to appoint – призначати, стверджувати
close ties – тісні зв'язки
to collapse [kəˈlæps] – валитися
crowd – натовп
deadlock – глухий кут, безвихідне становище
disenchanted [ˌdɪsɪnˈtʃɑːntɪd] – звільнений від чар
dyad [ˈdaɪəd] – пара
to entail – обмежувати; тягти за собою
fragile [ˈfrædʒaɪl] – крихкий, нетривкий
intruder – настирливий чоловік
mediator [ˈmiːdiətə] – посередник, примиритель
odd – непарний
pedestrian [pɪˈdestriən] – пішохід
recurring [rɪˈkɜːrɪŋ] – поточний
to split into – розділитися на; розпадатися на
to be strained – бути неприродним, спотвореним
triad [ˈtraɪəd] – група з трьох чоловік
to withdraw [wɪðˈdrɔː] – віднімати; забирати

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. Why is the size of a group important? 2. What does the popular adage capture? 3. How do we usually call two-person groups? 4. What can you say about dyads? 5. How many informal interactions did sociologist John James and his students observe? 6. What did they find? 7. What tends to play a greater part in dyads? 8. What happens if one of the parties becomes disenchanted? 9. What is a triad? 10. Against whom do coalitions become possible? 11. When may the third person assume the role of a "mediator"? 12. Which recurring question has attracted the interest of sociologists? 13. When isn't a strict deadlock possible? Why? 14. Why doesn't a minority in a five-person group result in the isolation? 15. Can people express their emotions freely in five-person groups? 16. When do groups become less manageable?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

To influence the nature of interaction, to get to know other people, to establish close ties, the popular adage, to capture an important difference, to take place on a one-to-one basis, intense and influential relationships, to observe informal interactions, a variety of work situations, to contribute to, relatively fragile nature, a delicate balance, to alter a social situation, under the circumstances, to assume the role of a "mediator," to function as a peacemaker, recurring question, to appoint a committee, a strict deadlock, to shift roles easily, to express emotions freely, to become less manageable, to carry on, formal vocabulary and grammar.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Discuss the message of the text.

Exercise 2. Read the article. What do you think of the hypothesis?

A new study has found that groups of three to five people perform better than individuals when solving complex problems. The study in the issue of the *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, suggests that groups of three people are able to solve difficult problems better than even the best individuals working alone.

Researchers had 760 student participants from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign solve letters-to-numbers code problems, working either individually or as part of a group. The study notes that there is a surprisingly small amount of research on the effect of group size on problem solving. Earlier studies suggested that groups perform better than individuals on problems of average difficulty. The current study assessed performance by comparing the number of trials needed to solve the problem as well as the number of errors made. The results demonstrated that groups of sizes three, four, and five performed better than individuals at solving the problems.

This study has a number of implications in academics, science, medicine, and business. The results indicate that groups of three are more efficient and more accurate at solving moderately difficult problems that require the use of logic, verbal, and qualitative understanding. The authors of the current study suggest further research is necessary to determine if three-person groups are more effective at solving other types of problems and whether effective problem-solving within a group then transfers to individual problem solving.

(Laughlin, P., Hatch, E., Silver, J., & Boh, L.)

Exercise 4. Read and comment the following. Find out how a group size affects leadership. Use sociological sites to find more information.

Leadership is the process where one person influences the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task. Of the many factors that has an impact on leadership style and effectiveness, group size plays an important role.

**Text 5
LEADERSHIP**

Imagine a football team without a quarterback; an army without officers; corporations without executives; universities without deans; orchestras without conductors; and youth gangs without chiefs. Without overall direction, people typically have difficulty coordinating their activities. Consequently, in group settings some members usually exert more influence than others. We call these individuals *leaders*. Small groups may be able to get along without a leader, but in larger groups a lack of leadership leads to chaos.

Two types of leadership roles tend to evolve in small groups. One, a **task specialist**, is devoted to appraising the problem at hand and organizing people's activity to deal with it. The other, a **social-emotional specialist**, focuses on overcoming interpersonal problems in the group, defusing tensions, and promoting solidarity. The former type of leadership is *instrumental*, directed toward the achievement of group goals; the latter is *expressive*, oriented toward the creation of harmony and unity. In some cases, one person assumes both roles, but usually each role is played by a different person. Neither role is necessarily more important than the other, and the situation does much to dictate the relative importance of each.

Leaders differ in their styles for exercising influence. Through the years, the classic experiments in leadership by Kurt Lewin and his associates have generated considerable interest. In these pioneering investigations, adult leaders working with groups of 11-year-old boys followed one of three leadership styles. In the *authoritarian* style, the leader determined the group's policies, gave step-by-step directions so that the boys were certain about their future tasks, assigned work partners, provided subjective praise and criticism, and remained aloof from group participation. In contrast, in the *democratic* style, the leader allowed the boys to participate in decision-making processes, outlined only general goals, suggested alternative procedures, permitted the members to work with whomever they wished, evaluated the boys objectively, and participated in group activities. Finally, in the

laissez-faire style, the leader adopted a passive, uninvolved stance; provided materials, suggestions, and help only when requested; and refrained from commenting on the boys' work.

The researchers found that authoritarian leadership produces high levels of frustration and hostile feelings toward the leader. Productivity remains high so long as the leader is present, but it slackens appreciably in the leader's absence. Under democratic leadership members are happier, feel more group-minded and friendlier, display independence (especially in the leader's absence), and exhibit low levels of interpersonal aggression. Laissez-faire leadership resulted in low group productivity and high levels of interpersonal aggression. However, it should be emphasized that the study was carried out with American youngsters accustomed to democratic procedures. Under other circumstances and in different cultural settings, an authoritarian leader may be preferred. The frequency of authoritarian leaders in developing nations has suggested to some sociologists that people may prefer a directed leadership style under highly stressful conditions. However, an equally plausible explanation is that it is easier for authoritarian leaders to seize and maintain leadership under these circumstances.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. *Sociology. The Core*)

Vocabulary list

accustomed – звиклий
aloof [ə'lu:f] – на віддалі, в стороні
appreciably [ə'pri:ʃəblɪ] – відчутно, істотно
conductor [kən'dʌktə] – гід, керівник
frustration – крах
hostile ['hɒstail] – ворожий
lack – недолік
laissez-faire-style ['leiseɪ' feə 'stail] – *фр.* стиль невтручання
to outline – намалювати, змалювати
plausible ['plɔ:zəb(ə)l] – правдоподібний
praise – похвала
problem at hand – доступна (близька) проблема
quarterback – захисник (футбол)
to refrain – утримуватися, стримуватися
to seize [si:z] – захопитися за
to slacken – сповільнювати
stance [sta:ns] – положення, позиція
step-by-step – поступово

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Ask problem questions to the text.

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

Overall direction, to have difficulty coordinating activities, a lack of leadership, to lead to chaos, to appraise the problem, to focus on overcoming interpersonal problems in the group, to be directed toward the achievement of group goals, to assume both roles, to dictate the relative importance, to generate considerable interest, to give step-by-step directions, to be certain about future tasks, to provide subjective praise and criticism, to suggest alternative procedures, to participate in group activities, to adopt a passive stance, a high level of frustration, to slacken appreciably, interpersonal aggression, to result in low-group productivity, to be accustomed to democratic procedures, to prefer a directed leadership style, an equally plausible explanation.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Обходитися без лідера, виникати в невеликих групах, орієнтуватися на, застосовувати вплив, відхилятися від групової участі, брати участь в процесі прийняття рішень, об'єктивно оцінювати, утримуватися від коментарів, відчувати вороже ставлення по відношенню до лідера, виявляти незалежність, проводити дослідження, різні культурні установки, у винятково стресових ситуаціях, утримувати лідерство.

Exercise 4. Agree or disagree.

- 1) In group settings some members usually exert more influence than others.
- 2) A task specialist isn't devoted to appraising the problem at hand.
- 3) Leaders differ in their possibilities for social interaction.
- 4) In the authoritarian style, the leader didn't determine the group's policies.
- 5) Authoritarian leadership produces high levels of frustration and hostile feelings toward the leader.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Discuss the effect of a leader on a group.

Exercise 2. Is selecting leaders art or technology? Search for the information on the issue. Make a report. Present it orally in class.

Exercise 3. Read the following article that gives some examples of a definition of a "leadership" notion. Is there a definition that you agree with? Try to define the notion by yourself. Compare it with your classmates.

Some view leadership as a series of specific *traits or characteristics*. Others see it as comprised of certain *skills and knowledge*. And some think of leadership as a *process*. This view of leadership, as a process, places an emphasis on social interaction and relationship. This is the idea that leadership is a type of relationship, one that typically includes influencing others in a certain direction. This leads to my

current working definition of leadership: *Leadership is a relationship that involves the mobilizing, influencing, and guiding of others toward desired goals.* This definition does not assume that the *goals* are shared or even explicit. The word *desire* simply means that someone in the relationship, perhaps just the person in a leadership role, wants a particular outcome. The following are some definitions that have a bias toward leadership as a *process*:

- “Leadership is a process of giving purpose (meaningful direction) to collective effort, and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose.” (Jacobs & Jaques)
- “Leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation.” (Hersey & Blanchard)
- “Leadership is an attempt at influencing the activities of followers through the communication process and toward the attainment of some goal or goals.” (Donnelly)
- “Leadership is defined as the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal achievement.” (Rauch & Behling)
- “Leadership is interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation, and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals.” (Tannenbaum, et al.)

(From www.managementhelp.org)

Text 6

THE CONFLICT PERSPECTIVE

Conflict theorists, like functionalists, focus their attention on society as a whole, studying its institutions and structural arrangements. Yet the two perspectives are at odds on a good many matters. Where functionalists depict society in relatively static terms, conflict theorists emphasize the processes of change that continually transform social life. Where functionalists stress the order and stability to be found in society, conflict theorists emphasize disorder and instability. Where functionalists see the common interests shared by the members of a society, conflict theorists focus upon the interests that divide. Where functionalists view consensus as the basis of social unity, conflict theorists insist that social unity is an illusion resting on coercion. And where functionalists often view existing social arrangements as necessary and justified by the requirements of group life, conflict theorists see many of the arrangements as neither necessary nor justified.

Diversity of Approaches. Although conflict theory derives much of its inspiration from the work of Karl Marx, the conflict framework is not necessarily Marxian. Indeed, it draws on many diverse currents, including the work of such sociologists as Georg Simmel, Lewis Coser, and Randall Collins. Moreover, because Marx's theory is so encyclopedic, a great many theorists have claimed to be working within the guidelines set down by his work, even though irreconcilable differences set them apart in warring camps. Further, although class conflict is the core of Marxian theory, many contemporary sociologists view conflict as occurring among many

groups and interests – religion versus religion, race versus race, consumers versus producers, taxpayers versus welfare recipients, sunbelt versus snowbelt states, central city residents versus suburbanites, the young versus the elderly, and so on.

Sources of Conflict. While the conflict perspective encompasses a variety of approaches, most of them assume that human societies operate under conditions of perpetual scarcity for many of the resources people require. Wealth, prestige, and power are always in limited supply, so gains for one individual or group are often associated with losses for others. The question then becomes: Which party will win and which party will lose? Power – the ability to control the behavior of others, even against their will – provides the answer. Power determines the outcome of the *distributive question* of who will get what, when, and how. And power also answers the question of which group will be able to translate its preferences for behavior (its values) into the operating rules for others – for instance, who will define whom as deviant and make their definitions of deviance stick. Conflict theorists ask how some groups acquire power, dominate other groups, and effect their will in human affairs. In so doing, they look at who benefits and who loses from the way society is organized.

How Society Is Possible. If social life is fractured and fragmented by confrontations between individuals or groups, how is a society possible? We pointed out how functionalists say that society is held together primarily by a consensus among its members regarding core values and norms. Conflict theorists reject this view; they maintain that society is often held together in the face of conflicting interests in one of two ways. Under one arrangement, one group enjoys sufficient power to make and enforce rules and shape institutional life so that its interests are served. Many conflict theorists regard the state – government and the rules it promulgates – as an instrument of oppression employed by ruling elites for their own benefit (functionalists tend to view the state as an organ of the total society, functioning to promote social control and stability). Under another arrangement, there are so many overlapping and divided interest groups that people can win or lose jointly, depending on their willingness to cooperate and compromise. Thus rewards can often be maximized and losses minimized by entering into alliances against outsiders.

Evaluation of the Conflict Perspective. The conflict perspective provides a welcome balance to functionalist theory. Indeed, since the strengths of the one perspective tend to be the weaknesses of the other, the two approaches complement one another in many ways. Where the functionalist approach has difficulty dealing with history and social change, the conflict approach makes these matters its strength. And where the conflict approach has difficulty dealing with some aspects of consensus, integration, and stability, the functionalist approach affords penetrating insights.

Admittedly, some proponents of the functionalist and conflict schools find their differences so great that they see no basis for reconciliation. Even so, any number of sociologists have taken on the task. For instance, Ralf Dahrendorf (1959) and Gerhard E. Lenski (1966) view society as basically "Janus-headed," and contend that the functionalists and conflict theorists are simply studying two aspects of the same

reality. They note that both consensus and conflict are central features of social life. Additionally, both approaches have traditionally taken a holistic view of social life, portraying societies as systems of interrelated parts.

Other sociologists such as Lewis Coser and Joseph Himes, drawing upon the seminal work done by Georg Simmel, suggest that under some circumstances conflict is *functional* for society. It quickens group allegiances and loyalties and thus is a social glue that binds people together. For example, the Black Power movement of the 1960s and early 1970s provided blacks with a sense of dignity, belonging, self-worth, and pride. And conflict may also prevent social systems from ossifying by exerting pressure for change and innovation. The civil rights movement, although challenging established interests and racist patterns, may have contributed to the long-term stability of American institutions by bringing blacks into the "system." However, it is clear that conflict can be disfunctional for a system, a fact highlighted by contemporary Lebanon, where the number of people who think of themselves as "Lebanese" – as opposed to being Maronite Christians, Shiite Muslims, Sunni Muslims, or Druse – is becoming smaller and smaller.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. *Sociology. The Core*)

Vocabulary list

admittedly – за загальним визнанням

allegiance [ə'li:dʒ(ə)ns] – лояльність, відданість

to claim – вимагати; пред'являти претензію

coercion [kəv'z:(ə)n] – стримування (силою)

depict – зображувати

dignity ['digniti] – гідність

to fracture ['fræktʃə] – ламати, розбивати, порушувати

holistic [həv'listik] – всеосяжний, цілісний, холистичний

inspiration [ˌɪnsprɪ'geɪʃ(ə)n] – натхнення, стимулювання

irreconcilable [ˌɪrɪkən'saɪləb(ə)l] – непримиренний

to justify – виправдати; підтверджувати

oppression – пригнічення; пригніченість

ossify ['ɒsɪfaɪ] – стати консервативним

overlapping – частково збігається

perpetual [pə'petʃʊəl] – вічний, нескінченний

pride – гордість

to promulgate ['prɒm(ə)lgeɪt] – оприлюднити, поширювати

proponent – висуває теорію

reconciliation [ˌrɪkən'sɪlɪ'eɪʃ(ə)n] – примирення; врегулювання

reward – винагорода

scarcity ['skeəsɪti] – недолік, нестача

suburbanite – житель передмістя

sunbelt – "Сонячний пояс"; кільцева територія з великим числом сонячних днів, сонячний край, крайній південь США

warring camp – непримиренний табір

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What do conflict theorists focus their attention on? 2. What is the difference between functionalists and conflict theorists? 3. Whose work does the conflict approach draw much of its inspiration from? 4. How do many contemporary sociologists view conflict? 5. What does power determine? 6. What do conflict theorists deal with? 7. Why do conflict theorists reject the view of functionalists about society? 8. What does the conflict perspective provide? 9. Why do proponents of the functionalist and conflict schools see no basis for reconciliation? 10. When is conflict functional for society? 11. What may conflict prevent social systems from?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

To study structural arrangements, to be at odds, to depict society, to emphasize disorder and instability, to view consensus, encyclopedic, irreconcilable differences, to set smb. apart, central city residents, to encompass a variety of approaches, to be in limited supply, to determine the outcome, preferences for behavior, to be fractured and fragmented by confrontations, to win or lose jointly, to welcome balance, to see basis for reconciliation, to be central features of social life, under some circumstances, a sense of dignity, to be opposed to.

Exercise 3. Multiple choice:

Conflict theorists focus their attention on society as a whole, studying

- a) personal difficulties
- b) its institutions and structural arrangements
- c) political self-determination for one nationality

So gains for one individual or group are often associated with ... for others.

- a) benefits
- b) perpetual scarcity
- c) losses

Both approaches have traditionally taken a holistic view of social life, portraying societies as

- a) an instrument of oppression
- b) systems of interrelated parts
- c) a political entity

DEVELOPING LANGUAGE SKILLS

Exercise 1. Translate the following sentences. Use a dictionary if necessary.

1. Життя людей проходить у спілкуванні один з одним, тому їм необхідно об'єднувати і координувати свої дії.
2. Будь-яку потребу людина може задовольнити лише через інших людей шляхом взаємодії з ними, займаючи певне положення в складних і

організованих групах і інститутах – в сім'ї, школі, колективі підприємстві, політичній партії, спортивній команді.

3. Світ існує виключно тому, що дії величезного числа людей погоджуються.

4. Першою умовою організованого соціального життя є наявність між людьми якихось угод, які набувають форми соціальних очікувань, які передаються (відображаються) в нормах.

5. У сучасному суспільстві держава виконує роль механізму реалізації значної кількості норм-законів.

6. Закони відображають інтереси певної групи і втілюють їх основні цінності.

Exercise 2. Insert the correct prepositions. Choose from the box. You can use some of them more than once.

from, in, at, for, within, of, into, by, against, to, upon, during

Useful Functions of Conflict

The explosiveness, the outward costs, and the divisiveness ... conflict are so great that it is often difficult to see the ways ... which conflict fulfils socially useful functions. Yet it does ... least the following three things. First, it promotes loyalty within the group. Second, it signals the needs ... and helps promote short-run social change. And third, it appears intimately involved ... moving societies towards new levels ... social integration.

If conflict pits groups and organizations against one another, it also tends to promote unity within each ... the conflicting groups. The necessity to work together against a common foe submerges rivalries ... the group and people, who otherwise are competitors, to work together ... harmony. Competing football halfbacks flock ... each other, rival student leaders work together to win concessions ... the administration, and union leaders join forces ... management. Nations that are torn ... dissent ... peacetime rally together when they are attacked ... other countries. Thus, conflict is not simply divisive, it works to unify groups.

A second positive function of conflict is that it serves to notify the society that serious problems exist that is not being handled ... the traditional social organization. It forces the recognition ... those problems and encourages the development ... new solutions to them.

The third general positive function ... conflict is closely related ... the second. And it is much more problematic. One view ... human history tends to focus ... conflict particularly ... war - as a primary mechanism through which nations have developed. ... other words, war was the mechanism that permitted the consolidation ... scattered, weak societies ... large, powerful ones. Similar arguments have been advanced that war was necessary ... the early modern period ... Europe to permit the formation ... nations as we know them.

(From www.sociologyguide.com)

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Be ready to speak about harmful and positive effects of the conflict.

Text 7

SOCIAL LOAFING

An old saying has it that "many hands make light the work." Yet the proverb falls short of the truth. For example, we might expect that three individuals can pull three times as much as can one person and that eight can pull eight times as much. But research reveals that whereas persons individually average 130 pounds of pressure when tugging on a rope, in groups of three they average 117 pounds each, and in groups of eight only 60 pounds each. One explanation is that faulty coordination produces group inefficiency. However, when subjects are blindfolded and *believe* they are pulling with others, they also slacken their effort. Apparently when individuals work in groups, they work less hard than they do when working individually – a process called social loafing.

When undergraduate men are asked to make as much noise as possible by shouting or clapping along with others, they produce only twice as much noise in groups of four and 2.4 times as much in groups of six as when alone. Presumably people slack off in groups because they feel they are not receiving their fair share of credit or because they think that in a crowd they can get away with less work. In comparable circumstances, Soviet peasants produced less when they worked on collective farms than when they cultivated a small plot of land for their own use. (Although the private plots occupied less than 1 percent of Soviet agricultural lands, some 27 percent of the total value of the nation's farm output was produced on them.) We should not conclude from these findings that we can do away with work groups. Groups are essential to social life and they can accomplish many things that individuals cannot. For instance, Alcoholics Anonymous, Parents Without Partners, Weight Watchers, and other self-help groups testify to the desirable influences and outcomes that can be associated with groups.

The social loafing effect suggests that there is an inverse relationship between group size and individual motivation. A closely related phenomenon is termed a **social dilemma** – a situation in which members of a group are faced with a conflict between maximizing their personal interests and maximizing the collective welfare. "Tragedy of the commons" is one type of social dilemma in which the long-run consequence of self-interested individual choice results in social disaster.

Social dilemmas are encountered in many other spheres of life as well. Consider the choice confronting a soldier in a foxhole at the outset of a battle. The rational choice for each soldier would be to remain in the foxhole to avoid being killed, but if every soldier makes this choice, the battle will most certainly be lost and everyone in the unit will be killed. In many social dilemmas there is a possibility that some other member of the group can and will provide the public good, making one's own contribution unnecessary – that is termed the "free-rider mechanism".

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

blindfolded – із зав'язаними очима; наосліп, нерозважливо
to clap – плескати
disaster – лихо, нещастя
to fall short of – потерпіти невдачу; не вистачати
foxhole – одиночний окоп
outcome – результат, наслідок
presumably [prɪ'zju:məbli] – можливо
share of credit – роль довіри
to slack off – послаблювати
social loafing – соціальне байдкування
to tug – тягнути
welfare ['welfeə] – добробут, благополуччя

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Ask key questions to the text.

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

An old saying, to fall short of the truth, to tug on a rope, faulty coordination, inefficiency, to be blindfolded, to slack one's efforts, social loafing, undergraduate, to clap, a fair share of credit, in comparable circumstances, to cultivate a small plot of land, self-help groups, an inverse relationship, a closely related phenomenon, a social dilemma, to face a conflict, to maximize the collective welfare, long-run consequence, tragedy of the commons, a self-interested individual, to result in social disaster, a foxhole, at the outset of a battle, to provide the public good, a free-rider mechanism.

Exercise 3. Disagree with the statements avoiding a simple negation.

- 1) One explanation is that faulty coordination produces group efficiency.
- 2) Apparently when individuals work in groups, they work more hard than they do when working individually.
- 3) Groups aren't essential to social life.
- 4) The social loafing effect suggests that there is a proportional relationship between group size and individual motivation.
- 5) If every soldier makes the choice to remain in the foxhole, the battle will be won.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Read the following text. Outline the main ideas of the text and ask questions. Write a summary. Present it orally in class, share your key points with your class mates.

Talcott Parsons' concept of pattern variables bridges the gap between social action and social system. He defines these as the fundamental dilemmas that face

actors in any situation. Social system may be characterized by the combination of solutions offered to these dilemmas.

Particularism vs universalism

Performance vs quality

Affective neutrality vs affectivity

Specificity vs diffuseness

These pattern variables structure any system of interaction. Such systems however also have certain needs of their own which have to be met as required both by relationship between the social system and its environment and by the internal workings of the system. There are four such functional needs functional needs known as AGIL-adaption, the need to relate to the environment by taking resources from it; goal attainment the setting of goals for the system; integration, the maintenance of internal order; latency or pattern maintenance, the generation of sufficient motivation to perform tasks. In order to meet each of these functional needs, groups of actions or subsystems of action develop. At the most general level the cultural subsystem performs the latency function and the social subsystem the function of integration. Each of these sub-systems is also faced by the same four functional needs and consequently each sub-system can be divided into 4 subsystems. In the social system as a whole, the economy performs the function of adaptation.

Exercise 2. Visit some web-sites in the Internet. Find some updated information on the social dilemmas issues. Share the Internet resources information with your classmates. Debate.

Economic crisis versus welfare, environmental risks versus opportunities, peace versus friction between nations, separation versus happy relationships.

- Do social dilemmas matter?
- Are people good or bad?
- What are the basics of trust, fairness, or human cooperation?
- And ultimately, how can people be promoted to act in ways that serve all of us, now and in the future?

(From www.socialdilemma.com)

Text 8

BUREAUCRACY

So long as organizations are relatively small, they can often function reasonably well on the basis of face-to-face interaction. But if larger organizations are to attain their goals, they must establish formal operating and administrative procedures. Only as they standardize and routinize many of their operations they can function effectively. This requirement is met by a **bureaucracy**, a social structure made up of a hierarchy of statuses and roles that is prescribed by explicit rules and procedures and based on a division of functions and authority. Sociologists use the concept in a way that differs sharply from the negative connotations "bureaucracy" has in popular usage. For instance, in everyday life we often employ the term to refer to

organizational inefficiency. The bureaucrat is stereotyped as an officious, rule-conscious, responsibility-dodging clerk entangled in red tape and preoccupied with busywork.

Bureaucracy has developed over many centuries in the Western world. It grew slowly and erratically during the Middle Ages and after. Only in the twentieth century it has fully flowered in response to the dictates of industrial society. As contemporary organizations have increased in size and complexity, more structural units and divisions have been required. In turn, some mechanism is needed for synchronizing and integrating the various activities. By providing for the performance of tasks on a regular and orderly basis, bureaucracies permit the planning and coordination of these activities in an efficient manner. Additionally, they aim to eliminate all unrelated influences on the behavior of their members so that people act primarily in the organization's interests.

German sociologist Max Weber was impressed by the ability of bureaucracies to rationalize and control the process by which people collectively pursue their goals. Although he was concerned about some of the negative consequences of bureaucracy, Weber contended that the needs of mass administration made bureaucracy an essential feature of modern organizational life. Weber dealt with bureaucracy as an *ideal type*. An ideal type is a concept constructed by sociologists to portray the principal characteristics of a phenomenon. For example, sociologists can abstract common elements from a government agency, the Roman Catholic Church, the teamsters' union, IBM, and Yale University and arrive at a model for describing and analyzing organizational arrangements. But the model should not be mistaken for a realistic depiction of how real bureaucracies actually operate in the contemporary world.

The following are the major components of Weber's ideal bureaucracy – a sketch of a completely *rationalized* organization centered on the selection of the most appropriate means available for the achievement of a given goal:

1. Each office or position has clearly defined duties and responsibilities. In this manner, the regular activities of the organization are arranged within a clear-cut division of labor.

2. All offices are organized in a hierarchy of authority that takes the shape of a pyramid. Officials are held accountable to their superiors for subordinates' actions and decisions in addition to their own.

3. All activities are governed by a consistent system of abstract rules and regulations. These rules and regulations define the responsibilities of the various offices and the relationships among them. They ensure the coordination of essential tasks and uniformity in performance regardless of changes in personnel.

4. All offices carry with them qualifications and are filled on the basis of technical competence, not personal considerations. Presumably trained individuals do better jobs than those who gain an office on the basis of family ties, personal friendship, or political favor. Competence is established by certification (for instance, college degrees) or examination (for example, civil service tests).

5. Incumbents do not "own" their offices. Positions remain the property of the organization, and officeholders are supplied with the items they require to perform their work.

6. Employment by the organization is defined as a career. Promotion is based on seniority or merit, or both. After a probationary period, individuals gain the security of tenure and are protected against arbitrary dismissal. In principle, this feature makes officials less susceptible to outside pressures.

7. Administrative decisions, rules, procedures, and activities are recorded in written documents preserved in permanent files.

Weber believed that bureaucracy is an inherent feature of modern capitalism. Yet he was equally insistent that a socialist society could not dispense with the arrangement. Indeed, Weber thought that socialism would see an increase, not a decrease, in bureaucratic structures. While recognizing the limitations of capitalism, he nonetheless felt it presented the best chances for the preservation of individual freedom and creative leadership in a world dominated by formal organizations. Some sociologists are not this optimistic. They have expressed concern that bureaucracies may pose an inherent challenge to human liberty by turning free people into "cogs" in organizational machines.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

bureaucracy [ˌbjʊ(ə)ˈrɒkrəsi] – бюрократія; бюрократизм

cog – дрібнота (перен.)

connotation – побічний відтінок значення

conscious [ˈkɒnʃəs] – свідомий, що розуміє

to den – приховувати (ся)

depiction – опис, зображення

dismissal – звільнення, звільнення від роботи

to dispense – розподіляти, роздавати

dodging [ˈdɒdʒɪŋ] – ухиляючись

entangled [ɪnˈtæŋɡld] in – заплутавшись у

erratically – нестійка; безладно

explicit [ɪkˈsplɪsɪt] – точний, докладний

facial – поверхневий

favor – прихильність, розташування

to flower – цвісти, перебувати у розквіті

incumbent [ɪnˈkʌmbənt] – той, на кого покладені обов'язки

insistent – наполегливий

preservation – збереження

to pursue – переслідувати

red (-) tape – тяганина; канцелярське зволікання

seniority [ˌsiːniˈɒrɪti] – старшинство

superior – начальник; старший

susceptible [səˈseptəb(ə)l] – сприйнятливий

tenure ['tenj(ʊ)ə] – володіння, власність
uniformity – однаковість

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Відносно, функціонувати (діяти) на основі, досягати цілей, відноситися до структурної неефективності; службовець, служащий, який ухиляється від відповідальності, у відповідь на, ефективним чином, виключити те, що не має відношення, впливи, діяти в інтересах організації, негативні наслідки, заплутатися в канцелярських проволочках, ідеальний тип, основна характеристика явища, найбільш придатний засіб, чітко визначений розподіл праці, набувати форми, піраміди, керуватися узгодженою системою абстрактних правил та інструкцій, виконувати роботу, зайнятість (робітничої сили), просування по службі, звільнення, адміністративні рішення, зберігати у постійних папках; особливість, притаманне сучасному капіталізму; зберігання особистої свободи, творче лідерство.

Exercise 2. You are a journalist. You are going to interview a well-known sociologist. Ask him questions related to the modern state bureaucracy.

Exercise 3. Complete the sentences.

1. This requirement is met by , a social structure made up of hierarchy of statuses and roles.
2. By providing for the performance of tasks , bureaucracies permit the planning and coordination of these activities in an efficient manner.
3. German sociologist Max Weber was concerned about some
4. An ideal type is a concept constructed by sociologists to portray
5. The regular activities of an organization are arranged within
6. These rules and regulations ensure the coordination of regardless of changes in personnel.
7. do better jobs than those who gain an office on the basis of family ties, personal friendship, or political favor.
8. believed that bureaucracy is an inherent feature of modern capitalism.

Exercise 4. Explain in English the meaning of the following.

Bureaucracy, an ideal type, competence, a career, leadership.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Speak on Weber's analysis of bureaucracies.

Exercise 2. Discuss the problems of present-day bureaucracy.

Text 9

DISADVANTAGES OF BUREAUCRACY

Weber's ideal form of bureaucracy is not realized in practice for a number of reasons. First, human beings do not exist just for organizations. People track all sorts of mud from the rest of their lives with them into bureaucratic arrangements, and they have a great many interests that are independent of the organization. Second, bureaucracies are not immune to social change. When such changes are frequent and rapid, the pat answers supplied by bureaucratic regulations and rules interfere with rational operation. And third, bureaucracies are designed for the "average" person. However, in real life people differ in intelligence, energy, zeal, and dedication, so that they are not in fact interchangeable in the day-to-day functioning of organizations. It may have occurred to you that Weber's approach to bureaucracy has a functionalist emphasis. He views the various components of his ideal type as a functional response to the requirements of large-scale organization. These properties permit a formal organization to achieve its goals in the fastest, most efficient, and most rational manner. Other sociologists have also pointed out that bureaucracies have disadvantages, or *dysfunctions*.

Trained Incapacity. Social critic Thorstein Veblen pointed out that bureaucracies encourage their members to rely on established rules and regulations and to apply them in an unimaginative and mechanical fashion – a pattern he called trained incapacity. As a result of the socialization provided by organizations, individuals often develop a tunnel vision that limits their ability to respond in new ways when situations change. Because of trained incapacity, bureaucracies are often inflexible and inefficient in times of rapid change. For example, for more than a decade the American automobile industry was unresponsive and uncreative in meeting the changing tastes of the American public and in confronting the inroads of foreign competitors in the American market. Its managers continued to build the same large and fuel-inefficient cars by the same manufacturing techniques, despite the superior quality and appeal of the Japanese products. Put another way, in real life bureaucracies lack effective performance appraisal even when people are inadequate or inefficient, contributing to a self-perpetuating organizational mediocrity.

The way many bureaucracies respond to crises complicates such problems. Officials often take whatever measure will quickly erase the most visible part of the problem while letting someone else worry about the rest later.

Parkinson's Law. Weber viewed bureaucracy as a mechanism for achieving organizational efficiency. We gain a quite different picture from C. Northcote Parkinson (1962), who has gained renown as the author of Parkinson's law: "Work expands so as to fill the time available for its completion." Despite the tongue-in-cheek tone of his writing, Parkinson undertakes to show that "the number of the officials and the quantity of the work are not related to each other." He contends that bureaucracy expands not because of an increasing workload, but because officials seek to have additional subordinates hired in order to multiply the number of people under them in the hierarchy. These subordinates in turn create work for one another, while the coordination of their work requires still more officials.

Oligarchy. Organizations, like all other groups, enjoy a formidable capacity for eliciting conformity. Groups do not just control and dispense rewards and punishments. They also define social reality by structuring our experiences. Given the predominant role organizations have in contemporary life, some observers have expressed concern for the future of democratic institutions. They point out that all too often the needs of organizations take priority over those of individuals. Complicating matters, Robert Michels, a sociologist and friend of Weber, argued that bureaucracies contain a fundamental flaw that makes them undemocratic social arrangements: They invariably lead to oligarchy – the concentration of power in the hands of a few individuals, who use their offices to advance their own fortunes and self-interests. He called this tendency the iron law of oligarchy – "Whoever says organization, says oligarchy".

Michels cites a variety of reasons for the oligarchical tendencies found in formal organizations. First, they have hierarchical structures with authority exercised downward from the top. Even when final authority is vested in the membership, the requirements of leadership and the dictates of overall administration make popular voting and related procedures inconsequential rituals. Second, officials have a great many advantages over their members. They have access to information that is unavailable to others, and they usually possess superior political skills and experience. Additionally, they control a variety of administrative resources, including communication networks, offices, and a treasury that can be used to carry out their official tasks or to ward off challengers. Moreover, they can use the rewards they control to coopt dissidents and rivals. And third, ordinary members tend to be uninterested in assuming leadership responsibilities and are apathetic toward the problems of the organization.

So although the complexity of modern life requires large-scale formal organization, bureaucratic structures have their disadvantages and problems. There are limits to what large hierarchical organizations can accomplish.

Hence, some problems cannot be solved, and some organizational and governmental functions cannot be performed well.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core.)

Vocabulary list

completion – завершення, закінчення

to coopt [ˌkəʊˈɒpt] – поглинати; асимілювати

dedication – відданість (ідеї і т.п.); захопленість (роботою)

to encourage [ɪnˈkʌrɪdʒ] – заохочувати, підтримувати

to erase – стирати, прати

flaw – вада, недолік, порок

formidable – дуже важкий; значний

immune – сприйнятливий

incapacity – нездатність; неспроможність; непрацездатність

inconsequential [ɪnˌkɒnsɪˈkwɛnʃ(ə)l] – непослідовний, нелогічний

to interfere with – заважати; служити перешкодою чого-небудь

large-scale – великомасштабний
mediocrity [ˌmiːdiˈɒkrɪti] – посередність, помірність
mud – бруд, наклеп
rival – суперник; суперечливий
self-perpetuating – увіковічнювати
to track – простежувати
trained – навчений
tongue-in-cheek tone – нещирий тон
unimaginative – позбавлений уяви
unresponsive – не реагує (на що-небудь)
to vest – наділяти, приділяти
voting – голосування
to ward off – відбивати; відвертати

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Make an outline of the text in the form of key questions.

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

For a number of reasons, mud, to be immune to the social change, the pat answers, to interfere, the “average” person, zeal, as a response to the requirements, to achieve goals, the most rational manner, trained incapacity, to be inflexible and inefficient, the changing tastes, competitors, to lack effective performance appraisal, mediocrity, the tongue –in – cheek tone, an increasing workload, to dispense rewards and punishments, a fundamental flaw, the concentration of power, to have access to information, to ward off challengers, a rival.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Ідеальна форма бюрократії, доречні відповіді, служити перешкодою, розрізнятися за інтелектом і старанністю, великомасштабна організація, властивості, недоліки, під час швидкої зміни, на ринку, посередність, якість та принадність, реагувати на кризи, видаляти найбільш видиму частину проблеми, турбуватися про, незважаючи на нещирий тон, створювати роботу один для одного, визначити соціальну реальність шляхом структурування свого досвіду, користуватися пріоритетом над чим-небудь, у сучасному житті, в руках кількох людей, олігархічні тенденції, мати переваги, крім того, відобразити претендентів.

Exercise 4. Explain in English the meaning of:

disadvantages, mud, the “average” person, goals, zeal, workload, a variety of, leadership.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Speak on: Bureaucracies have disadvantages and limitations.

Exercise 2. Are you for or against Michels's view of oligarchy. Think of more arguments.

Text 10

FORMAL ORGANIZATIONS

As modern societies have become increasingly complex, so have the requirements of group life. The social organization of traditional societies revolves primarily around kin relations. The division of labor is simple; the people are culturally homogeneous; and there is no formal law. But contemporary societies composed of millions of people can no longer rely entirely on primary group arrangements to accomplish the tasks of social life. Food has to be produced, preserved, and transported over considerable distances to support large urban populations. The residents of large, anonymous communities can no longer count on family members and neighbors to enforce group norms and standards. Children can no longer be educated by the same "natural processes" by which parents teach them to walk and talk. And medical science in alliance with sophisticated technologies provides more effective treatments for illness than do folk remedies. For these and many other tasks, people require groups they can deliberately create for the achievement of specific objectives. Such groups are **formal organizations**.

Modern society is emerging as a web of formal organizations that appear, disappear, change, merge, and enter into countless relationships with one another. Although formal organizations have existed for thousands of years, dating back to ancient Mesopotamia, Egypt, and China, only in recent times have their scope and centrality become so pronounced. Not surprisingly, sociologist Robert Prethus calls modern society "the organizational society."

People enter formal organizations for a variety of reasons. Sociologist Amitai Etzioni classifies organizations on the basis of these reasons, identifying three major types: voluntary, coercive, and utilitarian. **Voluntary organizations** are associations that members enter and leave freely. Examples include a coin collectors' club, the League of Women Voters, the Girl Scouts, the local chapter of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, the auxiliary of a neighborhood church, and a bowlers league. Members are not paid for participation. Individuals join voluntary organizations to fill their leisure time, to enjoy the company of like-minded people, to perform some social service, to advance some cause, or to seek self-help through organizations such as Alcoholics Anonymous.

When voluntary organizations complete their goals, Americans often refashion them, finding new purposes to validate an enterprise. For example, once vaccines eliminated infantile paralysis, the March of Dimes organization reformulated its goals to embrace new health missions. In some cases program failure is essential because

the effective solution of the problems the organizations address would eliminate the need for their existence.

People also become members of some organizations – **coercive organizations** – against their **will**. They may be committed to a mental hospital, sentenced to prison, or drafted into the armed forces. Sociologist Erving Goffman has studied life in what he calls *total institutions* – places of residence where individuals are isolated from the rest of society for an appreciable period of time and where behavior is tightly regimented. In these environments the “inmates” or “recruits” are exposed to resocialization experiences that systematically seek to strip away their old roles and identities and fashion new ones. The induction process often includes **mortification**. Individuals are separated from families and friends who provide networks of support for old ways. They are made vulnerable to institutional control and discipline by being deprived of personal items, clothing, and accessories, and provided haircuts, uniforms, and standardized articles that establish an institutional identity. Often the new members are humiliated by being forced to assume demeaning postures, to engage in self-effacing tasks, and to endure insulting epithets (what sociologists term a *degradation ceremony*). These procedures leave individuals psychologically and emotionally receptive to the roles and identities demanded of them by the total institution.

Individuals also enter formal organizations formed for practical reasons – **utilitarian organizations**. Universities, corporations, farm organizations, unions, and government bureaus and agencies are among the organizations people form to accomplish vital everyday tasks. Utilitarian organizations fall between voluntary and coercive organizations: Membership in them is not entirely voluntary nor entirely compulsory. For example, we may not be compelled to secure employment with a corporation, but if we wish to support ourselves, doing so is an essential element of life.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

bowler [ˈbəʊlə] – гравець в кулі
coercive [kəʊˈzɜːsɪv] – примусовий
to commit – здійснювати
to compel – примушувати
compulsory [kəmˈpʌls(ə)rɪ] – обов'язковий
deliberately [dɪˈlɪb(ə)rətli] – навмисне
folk remedy – народний лікувальний засіб
to humiliate – принижувати
in alliance with – у союзі з
inmate – мешканець (монастиря, притулку)
kin relations – родинні стосунки
law – закон
like-minded – згоден, однодумець
mortification – придушення; приниження, почуття сорому

paralysis [pəˈtælɪsɪs] – параліч
receptive – сприйнятливий
to regiment [ˈredʒɪment] – розподіляти по групах
self-effacing [ˌselfɪˈfeɪsɪŋ] – тримається в тіні
utilitarian [juːˌtɪlɪˈteɪ(ə)ɡɪən] – утилітаристи; утилітарний
vaccine [ˈvæksɪːn] – вакцина
vulnerable [ˈvʌln(ə)ɡəb(ə)l] – уразливий

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. Where does the social organization of traditional societies revolve? 2. Can contemporary societies rely entirely on primary group arrangements to accomplish the tasks of social life? 3. Which groups are called formal organizations? 4. Have formal organizations existed for thousands of years? 5. How many major types of formal organizations are there? 6. What can you say about voluntary organizations? 7. Which organizations are called coercive organizations? 8. What are the “inmates” and “recruits” in these organizations exposed to? 9. What do utilitarian organizations deal with?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

Voluntary organizations, to become increasingly complex, kin relations, coercive organizations, the division of labor, homogeneous, to rely on, to accomplish the tasks, anonymous communities, to count on family members, to create, to date back to, for a variety of reasons, a neighborhood church, like-minded people, to validate an enterprise, to eliminate the need for one's existence, insulting epithets, to become members of some organizations, against one's will, for an appreciable period of time, mortification, to be separated from, entirely, to strip away one's old roles.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Вимоги, родинні стосунки, однорідний в культурному відношенні, закон, на значну відстань, анонімні суспільства, нав'язувати норми і стандарти, народні лікувальні засоби, розвивати спільну справу, для досягнення спеціальних завдань, зникати, хоча, місцева низова організація, невдача (провал) програми, ефективно вирішення проблем, бути засудженим до тюремного ув'язнення, встановлювати елементарну ідентичність, психологічно сприйнятливий до ролей.

Exercise 4. Multiple choice:

People enter formal organizations

- a) at very early ages.
- b) for a variety of reasons.
- c) for the maintenance of the social order.

Individuals join to fill their leisure time, to enjoy the company of like-minded people or to perform some social service.

- a) local municipal organizations
- b) modern communist movements
- c) voluntary organizations

Sociologist has studied life in what he calls total institutions.

- a) Erving Goffman
- b) John James
- c) George Herbert Mead

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Points for discussion.

- 1) People enter formal organizations for a good many reasons. Do you agree?
- 2) Speak about different types of formal organizations.

Exercise 2. Describe life of individuals in places of residence where they are isolated from the rest of society for an appreciable period of time.

Text 11

INFORMAL ORGANIZATION

The rules, regulations, procedures, and impersonal relationships prescribed by a bureaucracy only rarely correspond with the realities of organizational life for another reason. Formal organization breeds **informal organization** – interpersonal networks and ties that arise in a formal organization but are not defined or prescribed by it. Based on their common interests and relationships, individuals form primary groups. These informal structures provide means by which people bend and break rules, share "common knowledge," engage in secret behaviors, handle problems, and "cut corners." So work relationships are much more than the lifeless abstractions contained on an organizational chart that outlines the official lines of communication and authority.

The roots of informal organization are embedded within formal organization and are nurtured by the formality of its arrangements. Official rules and regulations must be sufficiently general to cover a great many situations. In applying general rules to a particular situation, people must use their judgment, and so they evolve informal guidelines that provide them with workable solutions. Additionally, in order to avoid bureaucratic "red tape," employees often arrive at informal understandings with one another. Indeed, if formal organization is to operate smoothly, it requires informal organization for interpreting, translating, and supporting its goals and practices. Thus people are tied to the larger group by their membership in primary groups that mediate between them and the formal organization. Further, the impersonality of bureaucratic arrangements distresses many people, and they search for warmth, rapport, and companionship in the work setting through informal relationships.

Factory workers typically evolve their own norms regarding what constitutes a "reasonable" amount of work, and these norms often do not conform with those of management. Sociologist Michael Burawoy studied informal organization among shop workers while working for a year as a machine operator at a large Chicago-area plant. He found that relations on the shop floor were dominated by "making out" – a competitive game the machine operators played by manipulating the rules and regulations governing their work. The workers did not passively conform to the dictates of management or to the technological aspects of their work, but actively connived to put in place their own "shop-floor culture." A central theme of the culture revolved about maximizing their payoff from the firm's piecework bonus system, while simultaneously holding up high rates through restriction of output.

Research has also shown the strong influence of the work group in regulating deviance and theft among individual workers. For instance, Donald Horning studied blue-collar theft in a manufacturing plant and concluded that informal norms regulate both the type and the amount of property taken. Employee pilferage was a group-supported activity, even though the actual taking of property took place alone or in secret. And Gerald Mars reported in his study of dock-workers that materials in shipment were stolen according to the group-defined "value of the boat." In order for theft to go undetected by dock authorities, all members of a work group had to approve of and cooperate in the activity. Studies of "time theft" – on-the-job visiting, daydreaming, reading novels and magazines, and "goofing off" – reveal that the average worker in the United States "steals" an average of 4 hours and 29 minutes a week, or 6 weeks a year (adding up to \$170 billion worth of employers' time per year). In brief, formal organizations do not work strictly by the book.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

to approve – схвалювати, вважати правильним
to arise (arose; arisen) – виникати, з'являтися
to bend (bent) – підкоряти (ся)
bluecollar worker – розмов. робочий
to breed – породжувати
to conform – узгодити
to connive [kə'naɪv] – потурати
"Cut corners" – зрізати кути (тобто йти прямо)
to distress – заподіювати страждання
to engage in – займатися (чим-небудь)
holding up – підтримуючи
impersonal – неупереджений, безликий
to nurture ['nɜ:tʃə] – виховувати, навчати; плекати; виношувати (план і т.д.)
payoff – винагорода; розплата
pilferage ['pɪlf(ə)rɪdʒ] – дрібна крадіжка
rapport [ræ'pɔ:] – фр. зв'язок, взаємовідношення
to reveal – показувати, виявляти

shop-floor culture – культура в цеху (серед робітників)
smoothly – гладко, рівно

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What is an informal organization? 2. What are primary groups based on? 3. What are roots of an informal organization embedded within? 4. Why must official rules and regulations be sufficiently general? 5. What do guidelines provide people with? 6. What does a formal organization require to operate smoothly? 7. How are people tied to the larger group? 8. Why do many people search for warmth, rapport and companionship? 9. Who studied an informal organization among shop workers? 10. What capacity did Michael Burawoy work in at a large Chicago-area plant? 11. What did he find? 12. What did a central theme of the culture revolve about? 13. What else has research shown? 14. What did Donald Horning study? 15. What is the main conclusion of his observation? 16. What problems did Gerald Mars face with while he was studying dockworkers?

Exercise 2. Check how well you understand the following words and word combinations. Make up your own sentences with them.

Impersonal relationships, to correspond with, to form primary groups, to bend and break rules, to share “common knowledge”, authority, to be nurtured by the formality, sufficiently, to apply rules to a particular situation, judgment, to avoid bureaucratic “red tape”, to be tied to the larger group, to mediate between, to search for, the bonus system, through restriction of output, theft, in brief.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Запропонований бюрократією, з іншої причини, з'явитися в офіційному об'єднанні (організації), загальні інтереси, йти безпосередньо (перен.), директиви, бути сполучною ланкою між, заподіювати страждання багатьом людям, кількість роботи, сильний вплив, власність; діяльність, підтримувана групою; дрібна крадіжка, «валяти дурня».

Exercise 4. Agree or disagree.

- 1) The rules, procedures, and impersonal relationships often correspond with the realities of organizational life.
- 2) Interpersonal networks and ties are defined by a formal organization.
- 3) In applying general rules to a particular situation it is very important to use an own judgment.
- 4) People are tied to the smaller group by their membership in primary groups.
- 5) The workers of a plant actively connived to put in place their own “shop-floor culture”.
- 6) Donald Horning studied blue-collar theft in a textile factory.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Sum up your ideas of the text.

Exercise 2. Explain and expand on the following:

In the past, sociological research focused on the organization of complex, industrial societies and their influence on individuals. Today, sociologists study a broad range of topics. For instance, some sociologists research macro-structures, such as race, ethnicity, social class, gender roles, the family. Other sociologists study social processes, that represent the breakdown of macro-structures, including deviance, crime, and divorce.

Text 12

ALTERNATIVE PERSPECTIVES

Until the past decade or so, Weber's approach to bureaucracy dominated American sociology. In large measure sociologists focused their attention on organizations as abstract social structures, while often neglecting the behavior of the individuals who comprise them.

Many sociologists studied formal organizations without noticing the processes by which social structures are produced and reproduced in the course of people's daily interactions. But much has changed in recent years as sociologists from differing perspectives have looked at the ways in which organizational reality is generated through the actions of people and groups of people. Let us consider three of these approaches: the conflict, the symbolic interactionist, and the ethno-methodological.

The Conflict Perspective. Conflict theorists contend that organizational goals reflect the priorities of those who occupy the top positions. Viewed in this manner, organizations are not neutral social structures, but arenas for conflicting interests in which the social issues and power relations of society are played out. Marxist social scientists have followed in the tradition of Karl Marx, who saw bureaucracy as a manifestation of the centralizing tendencies of capitalism and an instrument of class domination. They analyze organizations within the context of the broader inequalities that operate within society and find that the distribution of power and the allocation of rewards within them mirror the larger society's class structure.

More recent studies by Marxist social scientists suggest that bureaucratic mechanisms arose as much from the need of capitalists to impose labor discipline as from abstract notions of efficiency and rationality. Stephen Marglin shows that nineteenth-century British entrepreneurs established the hierarchical arrangement to guarantee themselves a central role in the production process. Katherine Stone also finds that turn-of-the-century steel magnates established top-to-bottom chains of command and job ladders to isolate individual workers, break the power of skilled artisans, and combat growing labor militancy. Marx thought that the bureaucratic structures inherited from capitalism would have to be altered and even eliminated by a revolutionary working class. Instead, the workers would have to create a

transitional bureaucracy that was representative of and responsive to their needs and goals. By establishing the conditions for the direct participation of workers in decision-making processes, the commune democratized the bureaucracy.

The Symbolic-Interactionist Perspective. Critics of the structural or Weberian approach to organizations point out that people, not organizations, have motivations and goals. An organization's officers and managers can only offer incentives they believe will motivate employees to conform to goals that they define as paramount. Thus critics, particularly symbolic interactionists, contend that human beings are not spongelike, malleable organisms who passively absorb and adapt to their environments. Instead, they portray people as active agents who shape and mold their destinies and continually fashion new joint actions based on their definitions of the situation. Organizational constraints only provide the framework within which people forge their actions as they appraise, choose, and decide on alternatives. In sum, symbolic interactionists portray organizational behavior as generated out of individual meanings that people translate into social realities.

Whether or not the negotiated order model of organizations is applicable to other kinds of settings is a matter of research. But negotiations apparently do occur in many kinds of organizations, including factories, symphony orchestras, and political organizations.

The Ethnomethodological Perspective. Since the 1940s, sociologist Harold Garfinkel and a number of his colleagues and students have undertaken to illuminate the commonplace, taken-for-granted activities that constitute our daily experience by an approach they call **ethnomethodology**. *Ethno*, borrowed from the Greek, means "people" or "folk," while *methodology* refers to procedures by which something is done or analyzed. Thus in its most literal sense "ethnomethodology" refers to the procedures – the rules and activities – that people employ in making social life and society intelligible to themselves and others. Ethnomethodologists study the background understandings that constitute the "stuff" out of which stable social interaction emerges. And they investigate how people go about creating and sustaining for one another the *presumption* that there is an external social reality and order.

Sociologist Don H. Zimmerman applied the ethnomethodological perspective in examining the day-by-day operations of a large-scale organization, a public welfare agency. He studied how the receptionists went about processing applicants for public assistance and apportioning them among caseworkers. A cursory inspection suggested that the receptionists were governed by the "first-come, first-served" rule. But a deeper inspection revealed that they were also concerned with giving the *appearance* that applicants moved through the system in a sequential and orderly manner.

In order to do this, the receptionists had to deviate from the first-come, first-served rule. They did so on the basis of tacit understandings regarding the requirements of their work – certain assumptions regarding "what everyone who works here knows." For instance, receptionists would suspend the rule and switch the order of applicants when clients said they had a doctor's appointment or had to attend to some other urgent matter. Likewise, they would allow some applicants to request a

particular social worker. And they routinely assigned "difficult" and "troublesome" applicants to a caseworker known to be good at handling "special problems."

Zimmerman concludes that as we go about our activities, we continually develop and interpret what a rule means. We do not mechanically follow rules like programmed robots. Instead, we invoke rationalizations that satisfy us and others that what we are doing constitutes "reasonable" compliance with a rule. In this sense, bureaucratic rules and regulations serve as a commonsense method by which we account for our behavior. We see and report patterning and stability in our lives because we go about "structuring" structure, collaboratively creating meanings and understandings of one another's activities. In grasping bureaucratic behavior, then, the relevant question is not "What is the rule?" but "What has to be done?" In practice, a rule may be employed or ignored depending on the context. But more importantly, it affords the members of an organization a convenient means to portray, explain, and justify their actions.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

artisan [ˌɑːtɪˈzæn] – майстровий, ремісник
commonplace – звичайні речі
compliance [kəmˈplaɪəns] – згода
constraint – примус
cursory – поверхневий, швидкий
destiny [ˈdestɪni] – доля, хист
to deviate [diˈviəɪt] – відхилятися, ухилятися
to forge – повільно просуватися вперед
incentive [ɪnˈsentɪv] – спонукальний мотив, стимул
to invoke – закликати
job ladder – службові сходи (перен.)
malleable [ˈmælɪəb(ə)l] – поступливий; піддаватися
to mold – формувати, створювати
to neglect – нехтувати
negotiated order – заведений порядок
paramount [ˈpærəməʊnt] – першочерговий
to suspend [səˈspend] – припиняти; (тимчасово) класти край
to sustain [səˈsteɪn] – підтримувати
tacit [ˈtæsɪt] – мається на увазі

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Put down problem questions to the text. Ask each other in class to get the true answers.

Exercise 2. Give Ukrainian equivalents of the following.

An approach to, to neglect the behavior of the individuals, without noticing the processes, to be generated through the actions of people, to contend, to reflect the priorities, conflicting interests, power relations, manifestation, the broader inequalities, the distribution of power and allocation of rewards, the hierarchical arrangement, top-to-bottom chains, skilled artisans, the direct participation, to offer incentives, malleable organisms, to portray, to provide the framework, symbolic interactionists, to be borrowed from, the background understanding, an applicant, a deeper inspection, to deviate, certain assumptions, a doctor's appointment, to conclude, to satisfy, to account for, the relevant question.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

В останні роки, бути викликаним вчинками людей, займати високі посади, класове домінування, наводити (на думку), службові сходи, успадкований від капіталізму, процеси прийняття рішень, надати спонукальні мотиви (стимули), першорядний, формувати свою долю, заведений порядок, витлумачити звичайні речі, застосовувати, поверхневий огляд, домислюваний, за усталеною практикою (порядком), бути здатним, пояснювати свою поведінку.

Exercise 4. Explain in English what the following words and word combinations mean.

The behavior, the conflict perspective, neutral, paramount, a job ladder, an inspection, routinely, a rule.

Exercise 5. Complete the sentences.

1. Conflict theorists contend that organizational goals reflect the priorities of those
2. Marxist social scientists find that the distribution of power and the allocation of rewards within them mirror
3. Organizational constraints only provide the framework within which people
4. Ethno, borrowed from the Greek, means "people" or "folk", while methodology refers to
5. Ethnomethodologists study the background understandings that constitute the "stuff" out of which
6. We do not mechanically follow rules like
7. Bureaucratic rules and regulations serve as a commonsense method by which we

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Retell the text.

Exercise 2. Arrange a short debate on the following statement.

Sociologists from differing perspectives have to look at the ways in which organizational reality is generated through the actions of people and groups of people.

Text 13

EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION

About the same time that Japanese manufacturers vigorously entered American markets, American academicians became intrigued by Japanese management methods. They particularly touted "quality circles" – also called "participative management" and "working smarter" – an arrangement where a group of up to a dozen workers and one or two managers from the same department meet together on a regular basis to figure out ways of getting along better with each other, making work easier, raising output, and improving the quality of their products. Some 6,000 American companies, including General Motors, International Business Machines Corporation, and American Telephone and Telegraph, have instituted at one time or another work reform programs. In some cases workers are participating in high-level decisions dealing with how work should be organized, work hours, quality standards, and the hiring of subcontractors.

Although a good many companies have adopted employee participation programs, not all firms like them. A University of Michigan survey found that about 75 percent of the programs begun in the early 1980s failed. Many of the programs were established for their publicity value or because managers wanted their employees to believe they were being consulted even though no real sharing of decision-making power actually occurred. Moreover, few workers participated in their companies' most important decisions, such as product choice, plant location, and investment; the concept of participative management was confined to the shop floor and was not permitted to creep higher. Conflict theorists contend that workers win gains only through aggressiveness and that the relationship between management and labor is inherently adversarial. They claim that worker participation programs are simply cosmetic efforts that mask corporate attempts to scrap collective bargaining obligations. And union officials have been distrustful of quality circles because they fear that the circles will assume some of their functions as workers' representatives.

Proponents of the programs say that where management and workers are committed to them, absenteeism, tardiness, grievances, strikes, and labor costs are reduced. Moreover, product quality improves and pilferage lessens. For instance, General Motors plants that have the most intensive programs have better performance than do automotive plants that lack the programs.

Overall, new management strategies in the 1980s have been emphasizing a lessening of hierarchy and authoritarianism. They mark a departure from the theories of Frederick Winslow Taylor, which had dominated management philosophies since the 1920s. Taylor's system of "scientific management" held that production could be improved by rational, technology-centered organization and that workers could be pacified by providing them with adequate training and pay. But the changes should

not be overestimated. When managers must make a tough decision, they typically revert to the direct, authoritarian mode.

Some corporate officials say that small working groups are more productive for Americans than attempting to adopt Japanese management styles that depend on the Japanese worker's intense company loyalty. The approach appears highly adaptable within the computer industry, where small groups, given great freedom, can react quickly to abrupt technological change. Unlike other industries, where change is gradual, computer firms must regularly come up with new products or enhancements of the old, and at constantly lower prices.

Apple Computer turned to small groups to develop its Lisa and Macintosh computers. And even giant IBM has recognized the need for small groups; it formed fourteen "independent" business units to capture the entrepreneurial spirit for a number of projects, including the development of factory robotic systems. IBM found that centralized organization interfered with innovation. One virtue of the small-group approach is that responsibility is lodged with the employees doing the actual work. And small groups can focus their energies on a single goal, foster creativity, and reward employees commensurate with their contributions.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

Vocabulary list

abrupt – раптовий, несподіваний
absenteeism [ˌæbs(ə)n'ti:iz(ə)m] – невихід на роботу, прогул
adversarial – конфліктний, що змагається
aggressiveness – агресивність
bargaining – торгуючись, домовляючись (про умови)
to confine – обмежувати
to creep – повзти
distrustful – недовірливий, повний сумнівів
to figure out – обчислювати; осягати
to get along – ладнати; бути в будь-яких відносинах
grievance [ˈɡri:v(ə)ns] – невдоволення
intrigued [ɪn'tri:gd] – заінтригований
to lessen – зменшувати, знижувати
to lodge with – наділяти кого-небудь
to pacify – заспокоювати (ся)
to pilferage [ˈpɪlf(ə)rɪdʒ] – здійснювати дрібне злодійство
proponent – людина, що вносить пропозицію
publicity – гласність, публічність
"quality circle" – амер. «гурток якості» (на підприємстві)
to revert – повертатися (у колишній стан)
to scrap – відмовитися від
smart – сильний; суворий
survey – огляд
tardiness [ˈtɑ:dɪnɪs] – запізнення; повільність

to tout [taut] – посилено розбирати
vigorously – сильно, рішуче

VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION CHECK EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. When did American academicians become intrigued by Japanese management methods? 2. How are “quality circles” also called? 3. How many American companies have instituted work reform programs? 4. What do worker decisions deal with? 5. Have a good many companies adopted employee participation programs? 6. Did few workers participate in their companies’ most important decisions such as product choice, plant location and investment? 7. What can you say about the concept of participative management? 8. Why have union officials been distrustful of quality circles? 9. What do proponents of the programs say? 10. What do managers typically revert to when they must make a tough decision? 11. Whose working groups are more productive? 12. Did Apple Computer turn to small or large groups? 13. What can small groups focus their energies on?

Exercise 2. Give Ukrainian equivalents of the following.

To enter the market, “quality circles”, to get along with each other, in some cases, high-level decisions, an employee, to fail, participative management, to win gains, to be confined to the shop floor, to be inherently adversarial, to claim, to scrap collective bargaining obligations, tardiness, to lack the programs, a departure from, to provide smb. with adequate training and pay, a tough decision, to revert to the authoritarian mode, an abrupt technological change, to capture the entrepreneurial spirit, to lodge the responsibility with, to reward employees commensurate with their contributions.

Exercise 3. Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations in the text.

Методи управління, амер. кружок якості (на підприємстві), способи краще ладнати один з одним, рішення високого рівня, брати участь в, відмовитися від договірних зобов'язань, косметичні зусилля, представники робітників, зменшити дрібні крадіжки, забезпечити кого-небудь адекватною підготовкою та оплатою, швидко реагувати на несподівану технологічну зміну, розмірний.

Exercise 4. Multiple choice:

1. , American academicians became intrigued by Japanese management methods.
- a) At the turn of this century
 - b) According to Mead
 - c) About the same time that Japanese manufacturers vigorously entered American markets
2. A University of survey found about 75 percent of the programs begun in the early 1980s failed.

- a) Chicago
 - b) Michigan
 - c) California
3. Proponents of the programs say that where management and workers are committed to them, absenteeism, tardiness, grievances, strikes, labor costs
- a) are reduced
 - b) are increased
 - c) are unpredictable
4. The theories of Frederick Winslow Taylor had dominated management philosophies.....
- a) during the 1940s and until the mid-1960s
 - b) since the 1920s
 - c) in the early 1970s

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Exercise 1. Comment upon the following statement. Share opinions.

Since large organizations play such an important role in our lives, we might ask how they can be made more humane.

Exercise 2. Speak on employee participation programs.

REVISION EXERCISES ON UNIT V

Exercise 1. Translate the following sentences.

1. A primary group involves two or more people who enjoy a direct, intimate, cohesive relationship with one another.
2. A secondary group entails two or more people who are involved in an impersonal relationship and have come together for a specific, practical purpose.
3. Our ties with people often deepen as we interact with them across time and gradually evolve interlocking habits and interests.
4. The concepts of in-group and out-group highlight the importance of boundaries – social demarcations lines that tell us where interaction begins and ends.
5. We use the standards of our reference group to appraise ourselves.
6. The size of a group is important because it influences the nature of interaction.
7. As groups become larger, they become less manageable.
8. Small groups may be able to get along without a leader, but in larger groups a lack of leadership leads to chaos.
9. Leaders differ in their styles of exercising influence.
10. Authoritarian leadership produces high levels of frustration and hostile feelings toward the leader.
11. The social loafing effect suggests that there is an inverse relationship between group size and individual motivation.
12. Voluntary organizations are associations that members enter and leave freely.
13. People become members of coercive organizations against their will. They are

made vulnerable to institutional control and discipline by being deprived of personal items, clothing, and provided haircuts, uniforms, and standardized articles that establish an institutional identity.

14. Bureaucracy has developed over many centuries in the Western world.
15. Bureaucracy is a social structure made up of hierarchy of statuses and roles that is prescribed by explicit rules and procedures and based on a division of functions and authority.
16. Because of trained incapacity, bureaucracies are often inflexible and inefficient in times of rapid change.
17. In order to avoid bureaucratic “red tape”, employees often arrive at informal understandings with one another.
18. Employee pilferage was a group-supported activity, even though the actual taking of property took place alone in secret.
19. Symbolic interactionists portray organizational behavior as generated out of individual meanings that people translate into social realities.
20. When managers must make a tough decision, they typically revert to the direct, authoritarian mode.

Exercise 2. Prepare a report on one of the issues of Unit V.

Exercise 3. Read and translate the following glossary.

GLOSSARY

bureaucracy A social structure made up of a hierarchy of statuses and roles that is prescribed by explicit rules and procedures and based on a division of functions and authority.

coercive organization A formal organization that people become members of against their will.

dyad A two-member group.

ethnomethodology Procedures – the rules and activities – that people employ in making social life and society intelligible to themselves and others.

expressive ties Social links formed when we emotionally invest ourselves in and commit ourselves to other people.

formal organization A group people deliberately form for the achievement of specific objectives.

group Two or more people who share a feeling of unity and who are bound together in relatively stable patterns of social interaction.

groupthink A decision-making process found in highly cohesive groups in which the members become so preoccupied with maintaining group consensus that their critical faculties are impaired.

informal organization Interpersonal networks and ties that arise in a formal organization but are not defined or prescribed by it.

in-group Group with which we identify and to which we belong.

instrumental ties Social links formed when we cooperate with other people to achieve some goal.

iron law of oligarchy The principle that says that bureaucracies invariably lead to the concentration of power in the hands of a few individuals who use their offices to advance their own fortunes and self-interests.

mortification Rituals employed by coercive organizations that render individuals vulnerable to institutional control, discipline, and resocialization.

negotiated order The fluid, ongoing understandings and agreements people reach as they go about their daily activities.

out-group Group with which we do not identify and to which we do not belong.

Parkinson's law Work expands so as to fill the time available for its completion.

primary group Two or more people who enjoy a direct, intimate, cohesive relationship with one another.

reference group A social unit we use for appraising and shaping our attitudes, feelings, and actions.

relationship An association that lasts long enough for two people to become linked together by a relatively stable set of expectations.

relative deprivation Discontent associated with the gap between what we have and what we believe we should have.

secondary group Two or more people who are involved in an impersonal relationship and have come together for a specific, practical purpose.

social-emotional specialist A leadership role that focuses on overcoming interpersonal problems in a group, defusing tension, and promoting solidarity.

social dilemma A situation in which members of a group are faced with a conflict between maximizing their personal interests and maximizing the collective welfare.

social loafing When individuals work in groups, they work less hard than they do when working individually.

task specialist A leadership role that focuses on appraising the problem at hand and organizing people's activity to deal with it.

triad A three-member group.

utilitarian organization A formal organization set up to achieve practical ends.

voluntary organization A formal organization that people enter and leave freely.

(From James W. Vander Zanden. Sociology. The Core)

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9. www.management.help.org
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10. www.socialdilemma.com
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**A COURSE
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