

Федеральное агентство по образованию
Государственное образовательное учреждение
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SOCIOLOGY IN EARNEST

практикум

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ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Практикум по английскому языку «Sociology in Earnest» содержит некоторые из самых важных работ по социологии, известных американских ученых, чтобы помочь студентам понять полную широту области социологии и дать необходимое направление научно-практической деятельности магистрам и аспирантам. Практикум адресован аспирантам и соискателям, сдающим кандидатский экзамен по английскому языку по социологии, знакомит с этапами и структурой экзамена, рекомендованными Программой Министерства образования РФ.

В практикуме прослеживается сочетание прежних и современных пониманий и методов социологических направлений, прослеживается, как когда-то полученные результаты изменяются в свете последующих исследований.

Структура практикума:

- I. Грамматический раздел - Sections
- II. Тематический раздел - Units
- III. Тексты для комментирования - Commentary texts
- IV. Дополнительный материал - Supplementary material
- V. Глоссарий - Glossary

Практикум состоит из трёх грамматических разделов, в которые включены обучающие тесты, ответы с объяснениями, выходные тесты, аутентичные тексты социологического профиля и задания к ним.

Представленные шесть тематических глав охватывают темы, объединяющие многие из разделов науки социологии, которые начинаются с фундаментальных принципов социального взаимодействия человека: сообщество, профессии, организации, стратификация и этнические отношения.

Каждый тематический раздел предлагает один основной текст и два или один дополнительный. Проверка понимания прочитанного проводится с помощью целого ряда заданий. Важным для магистров / соискателей мы считаем знакомство с социологическими терминами. С этой целью дается перевод наиболее сложных слов, толкование некоторых терминов и упражнения, формирующие навыки и умения их использования.

Тексты для комментирования подобраны таким образом, чтобы магистр смог получить достаточные навыки в комментарии текста как на английском так и на русском языках.

Дополнительные тексты рассчитаны на овладение просмотрным чтением. Эти тексты также используются для накопления социологических терминов, развития устной и письменной речи.

Специальный раздел посвящен теме: «Supplementary material». Даются задания, с помощью которых можно беседовать о целях и задачах, структуре и этапах работы над диссертацией, а также другой научной деятельности (участие в конференциях, работа над статьями и т. п.). Целесообразно проиллюстрировать эти лексические единицы в текстах, посвященных известным социологам, стилям работы ученых и др.

Завершает структуру практикума глоссарий, где собраны социологические термины и выражения, которые могут помочь в переводе и комментарии текстов.

Таким образом, работа по предлагаемому практикуму поможет магистрам и аспирантам планомерно и тщательно подготовиться к экзамену.

1. Требования к экзамену для магистров

Программа экзамена для магистров и соискателей отмечает важность знания иностранного языка для исследовательской работы.

Перед современным учёным сообществом стоит цель сотрудничества со специалистом, владеющим иностранным языком как средством осуществления научной деятельности в иноязычной языковой среде и средством межкультурной коммуникации, — специалиста, приобщенного к науке и культуре стран изучаемого языка, понимающего значение адекватного овладения иностранным языком для творческой научной и профессиональной деятельности» (Программа, 2003).

В этой связи конкретно оговорены требования по видам речевой деятельности. Согласно Программе, магистр должен владеть подготовленной и неподготовленной монологической и диалогической речью. Большое значение уделяется составлению и презентации резюме, доклада, обсуждению профессиональных проблем, а также умению общаться в бытовой сфере.

Магистр должен уметь читать оригинальную научную литературу по специальности. Следует быть гибким чтецом, владеть несколькими видами чтения, в частности:

1. Чтением, направленным на понимание основного содержания текста (т. е. ознакомительным чтением).
2. Чтением, имеющим целью максимально точное и адекватное понимание текста (изучающим чтением).
3. Беглым чтением с целью определения круга проблем. Чтением, направленным на быстрое нахождение определенной информации (поисковым чтением).

Для работы рекомендуются аутентичные тексты по специальности (монографическая и периодическая литература) по тематике широкого профиля вуза и по узкой специальности магистра / соискателя. Следует работать и со статьями из газет и журналов, издаваемых за рубежом.

Рекомендуемая структура экзамена

Экзамен по иностранному языку проводится в два этапа. На первом этапе соискатель выполняет письменный перевод научного текста по специальности на язык обучения. Объем текста — 15 000 печатных знаков.

Этот перевод оценивается с учетом его адекватности, соответствия норме и узусу русского языка, а также знания терминологии по данной специальности.

Успешное выполнение письменного перевода является условием допуска ко второму этапу экзамена. Качество перевода оценивается по зачетной системе.

Второй этап экзамена проводится устно и включает следующие задания.

1. Изучающее чтение оригинального текста по специальности. Объем 2000—3000 печатных знаков. Время выполнения работы — 45—60 минут. Форма проверки — передача основного содержания текста на иностранном языке форме резюме.

2. Беглое чтение оригинального текста по специальности. Объем — 1000—1500 печатных знаков. Время выполнения — 1—2 минуты. Форма проверки — передача извлеченной информации на иностранном языке (гуманитарные специальности) и на языке обучения (естественнонаучные специальности).

3. Беседа с экзаменаторами на иностранном языке по вопросам, связанным со специальностью и научной работой аспиранта / соискателя.

Результаты экзамена оцениваются по пятибалльной системе.

Аннотация представляет собой максимальную степень сжатия содержания, отражающую тематику текста и основную мысль автора. Аннотация представляет собой изложение содержания первичного документа, ее назначение состоит в том, чтобы дать возможность специалисту составить мнение о целесообразности более детального ознакомления с материалом.

Резюме является обобщением содержания, краткой оценкой прочитанного. Если аннотация характеризует содержание произведения, то резюме подводит итоги, делает главные выводы.

Выписки — наиболее распространенный вид записи, не связанный с аналитической переработкой текста, при котором информация фиксируется дословно. Это, главным образом, отдельные мысли, выводы, статистические данные, примеры и др.

Учитывая, что на экзамене требуется передача основного текста в форме резюме, можно рекомендовать использовать в начале текста следующие фразы:

The text (extract from the article) deals with (the problem of)...;

The article touches upon the issue of...;

The extract from the book is concerned with...;

This text is about...;

The extract centers round the problem of...;

The problem of the text is of great importance ..., etc.

В середине предлагаемого резюме будут уместны фразы:

It is clear from the text that...;

It further says that...;

One of the main problems to be singled out is ...;

Great importance is also attached to;

We shouldn't forget that...;

It should be noted that;

It must be mentioned that..;

In my opinion..;

To my mind..;

According to the text..;

Judging from the author's point of view...;

Among other problems the text raises the problem of.., etc.

Закончить резюме можно с помощью следующих слов или фраз: To sum it up; In summary;

Summing the text up (summing it up); On the whole;

Having analyzed the information it is possible to say; In conclusion; after all things considered we can come to the conclusion, etc.

В данном практикуме предлагаются тексты из аутентичных монографий, журналов, а также упражнения к ним, грамматические задания и практика в развитии речевых умений. Мы надеемся, что такая работа поможет подготовиться к экзамену и научит самостоятельно читать англоязычную литературу по специальности.

GRAMMAR PROBLEM

Section 1. LEARNING THROUGH ASSESSMENT (ОБУЧАЮЩИЕ ТЕСТЫ)

Под каждым неполным предложением даются четыре слова или словосочетания, отмеченных буквами (A), (B), (C), (D)? либо два слова (A, B) в самом предложении. Вам предстоит выбрать одно слово или словосочетание, лучше всего завершающее предложение.

1. *Существительные*

1. Jacobson's is one of the most expensive _____ in the city.

- (A) department store (C) departments store
(B) departments stores (D) department stores

2. My sister has a _____ baby.

- (A) two-months-old (C) two-months-olds
(B) two-month-olds (D) two-month-old

3. It was ... that we went camping in the mountains last weekend.

- (A) such nice weather (C) too nice weather
(B) so nice a weather (D) nice weather so

4. Last Sunday was _____ that we took a drive in the country.

- (A) so beautiful day (C) such a beautiful weather
(B) such beautiful day (D) so beautiful a day

5. The conference was organized for all of the _____ in the state.

- (A) mathematics teachers (C) mathematics teacher
(B) mathematic teachers (D) mathematic's teachers

6. The assignment for Monday was to read _____ in your textbook.

- (A) chapter tenth (C) chapter the tenth
(B) the chapter ten (D) the tenth chapter

7. The more she worked, -

- (A) the less she achieved (C) She did not achieve enough
(B) She achieved not enough (D) She was achieving less

8. Sociology _____ .

- (A) science of society (C) the science of the society
(B) science of the society (D) the science of society

9. Let me give you _____ .

- (A) advice (C) the advice
(B) an advice (D) some advice

10. "How often have you been there?"

"Oh, _____ times, I think".

- (A) a hundred of (C) hundreds of
(B) hundreds (D) hundred

2. Прилагательные, наречия

1. This drink tastes a little _____ to me.

- (A) strongly (C) strong
(B) so strong (D) too much strong

2. They listened _____ while the examiner gave the directions for Part 1.

- (A) attentive (C) attentiveness
(B) attentively (D) attention

3. If the taxi arrives _____ you will miss your flight.

- (A) lately (C) more later
(B) lateness (D) late

4. Although she is very popular, she is not _____ her sister.

- (A) pretty as (C) prettier than
(B) as pretty (D) more pretty than

5. They are _____ my other neighbours.

- (A) more friendlier (C) friendlier as
(B) friendly than (D) more friendly than

6. Cuba is _____ sugar-growing areas in the world.

- (A) one of the larger (C) one of the largest
(B) one of largest (D) largest

7. There were two small rooms in the beach house _____ served as a kitchen.

- (A) the smaller of which (C) the smaller of them
(B) the smallest of which (D) smallest of that

8. The salary of a professor is _____.

- (A) higher than a secretary (C) higher than that of a secretary
(B) higher as a secretary (D) higher as a secretary's

9. Miss Jones isn't as nice _____ Miss Smith.

- (A) as (C) like
(B) for (D) to

10. These trees are _____ those.

- (A) the same as (C) different as
(B) different than (D) the same than

4. Местоимения

1. Do you know the man _____ was hurt in the accident?

- (A) which (C) who
(B) whom (D) whose

2. I would like to leave a message for _____ if I may.

- (A) they (C) their
(B) them (D) whose

3. Two of the notebooks ____ Tom had lost on the bus were returned to him.

- (A) what (C) which
(B) who (D) whose

4. Let's buy our tickets e I still have _____ left

- (A) a few money (C) a few dollars
(B) a little money (D) a few dollar

5. We haven't had _____ news from the disaster site since the earth-quake.

- (A) many (C) much
(B) quite a few (D) some

6. I will need ____ about the climate before I make a final decision.

- (A) a few information (C) a little information
(B) a few informations (D) a little informations

7. Of the new teachers, one is experiences and _____ .

- (A) the others are not (C) the other is not
(B) another is inexperienced (D) other lacks experience

8. I've looked for my pen, but I can't find it _____.

- (A) anywhere (C) nowhere
(B) everywhere (D) somewhere

9. We understand _____ having to leave early.

- (A) his (C) Tom
(B) him (D) the children

10. Please take _____ German book you like.

- (A) some (C) any
(B) no (D) a few

5. Видовременные формы глагола

1. ___ here since 1993 when her parents moved from London.

- (A) She's lived (C) She was living
(B) She's living (D) She'd live

2. We were hurrying because we thought that the bell _____.

- (A) had already rang (C) had already rung
(B) has already rang (D) have already ringing

3. After he had researched and - his paper, he found some additional material.

- (A) wrote (C) writing
(B) written (D) have written

4. By the time he retires Professor Baker _____ for almost forty years.

- (A) will teach (C) will have taught
(B) had taught (D) will has taught

5. When Henry arrived home after a hard day of work, _____

- (A) his wife was sleeping (C) his wife has slept
(B) his wife slept (D) his wife has been sleeping

6. While the workers were repairing the roof, they ___ the bathroom window.

- (A) break (C) have broken
(B) broke (D) was broken

7. James Watt _____ the steam engine.

- (A) invented (C) had invented
(B) invents (D) has invented

8. If _____, we'll stay at home.

- (A) it'll rain (C) it's rain
(B) it rain (D) it'll be rain

9. When are you going to finish this test? I _____ it already.

- (A) finished (C) finish
(B) am finishing (D) have finish

10. After George had returned to his house, he _____ a book.

- (A) had read (C) was reading
(B) read (D) would read

6. Модальные глаголы

1. Something must be done quickly if endangered species _____ saved.

- (A) are to be saved (C) can be
(B) be (D) will be

2. I _____ to be ready by the time you get here.

- (A) must (C) can
(B) ought (D) should

3. I am sure you are very bright. You _____ go through this test without much effort.

- (A) may (C) must
(B) can (D) have to

4. Ah! This _____ be your brother, Michael.

- (A) shall (C) must
(B) is to (D) need

5. You _____ read the article if you don't want to.

- (A) haven't (C) can't
(B) needn't (D) mustn't

6. Look at what you have done! You _____ be more careful.

- (A) may (C) would
(B) had to (D) should

7. I don't believe him: he ___ be serious.

- (A) needn't (C) mustn't
(B) mayn't (D) can't

8. ___ all the students here to pay their fees now?

- (A) Must (C) Need
(B) Ought (D) May

9. Albert _____ an essay yesterday, so he couldn't come to the meeting.

- (A) must write (C) had to write
(B) must have written (D) ought to write

10. It ___ last night, but I'm not sure.

- (A) could rain (C) may have rained
(B) might rain (D) must have rained

7. Неличные формы глагола

1. I am going to take the bus ___ money.

- (A) for to save (C) to save
(B) saving (D) by saving

2. I thought I saw Professor Davis ___ in the library last night.

- (A) working (C) worked
(B) to work (D) works

3. Thank you for inviting us, but my husband is not really interested ____.

- (A) in gong dancing (C) going dancing
(B) for going dancing (D) to go dancing

4. Will her mother let her ___ with us to the party?

- (A) go (C) going
(B) goes (D) to go

5. I enjoyed ___ her after all this time.

- (A) seeing (C) to see
(B) see (D) it to see

6. Has it stopped ___ yet?

- (A) to rain (C) rain
(B) raining (D) of raining

7. I want _____ me.

- (A) your helping (C) you to help
(B) that you help (D) you help

8. Poor Bill couldn't help _____.

- (A) coughing (C) you to help
(B) that you help (D) you help

9. She refused _____ the gift.

- (A) accepting (C) to accept
(B) accept (D) to accept

10. These students are not yet _____ such difficult problems.

- (A) able to handle (C) capable to handle
(B) able of handing (D) capable for handing

8. *Согласование*

1. You and I (**A. am; B. are**) very good friends.
2. Either George or John (**A. was; B. were**) responsible for the damage.
3. George, as well as John (**A. is; B. are**) away today.
4. Ten pounds (**A. is; B. are**) too much.
5. The pages of this book (**A. is; B. are**) numbered.
6. A number of students (**A. is; B. are**) going to the class picnic.
7. A pack of wild dogs (**A. has; B. have**) frightened all the ducks away.
8. Here (**A. is; B. are**) the notebook and report that I promised you last week.
9. Our team (**A. play; B. plays**) best on their own ground.
10. The majority of students (**A. believe; B. believes**) him to be innocent.

9. *Порядок слов в предложении*

1. You can give me receipt if you want to, but your world is (**A. good enough; B. enough good**) to me.
2. Everybody enjoyed (**A. very much the party; B. the party very much**).
3. Tom walks (**A. every morning to work; B. to work every morning**).
4. I see (**A. won't probably B. probably won't**) you.
5. I cleaned the house and (**A. cooked also; B. also cooked**) the dinner.
6. When I heard the alarm, I (**A. got immediately; B. immediately got**) out of bed.
7. She (**A. quickly picked up; B. picked quickly up**) the ball.
8. The cat (**A. jumped suddenly; B. suddenly jumped**) on the table.
9. You (**A. easily can guess; B. can easily guess**) the meaning.
10. She gave (**A. to Jane an interesting book; B. an interesting book to Jane**).

10. Условные предложения

1. If she _____ the fish there, the cat will get it.

- (A) will leave (C) leaves
(B) left (D) leave

2. If you go to Paris where _____?

- (A) do you stay (C) did you stay
(B) will you stay (D) could you stay

3. The flight may be cancelled if the fog _____ thinker.

- (A) doesn't get (C) did you stay
(B) will get (D) gets thinker

4. If the milkman _____ tell him to leave two bottles.

- (A) came (C) will come
(B) comes (D) has come

5. If the story hadn't been true, the newspaper _____ it.

- (A) wouldn't not print (C) will not print
(B) did not print (D) would not have printed

6. If anyone attacked me, my dog _____ at his throat.

- (A) would lump (C) will jump
(B) would have jumped (D) jumped

7. She _____ to walk faster if her shoes hadn't such high heels.

- (A) would be able (C) will be able
(B) can (D) would have been able

8. You would understand it better if you _____ so much.

- (A) don't talk (C) didn't talk
(B) hadn't talked (D) would not talked

9. I could repair the roof myself if I _____ a long ladder.

- (A) had had (C) would have
(B) had (D) would have had

10. Unless they turn radio off, I _____ mad.

- (A) will go (C) could go
(B) would go (D) should go

11. Синтаксическая структура предложения

1. I don't like iced tea, and _____.

- (A) she doesn't too (C) neither does she
(B) either doesn't she (D) she doesn't neither

2. Your sister used to visit you quite often _____?

- (A) didn't she (C) wouldn't she
(B) doesn't she (D) hadn't she

3. My husband lived at home before we were married, and so _____.

- (A) did I (C) I had
(B) had I (D) I did

4. Let's go out for dinner, _____?

- (A) will we (C) shall we
(B) don't we (D) are we

5. Mike had hoped _____ his letter.

- (A) her answer (C) that she would answer
(B) that she answer (D) her answering

6. Today's weather isn't as cold as it was yesterday, _____?

- (A) wasn't it (C) isn't it
(B) was it (D) is it

7. Tell me _____ there is anything special that you would like to do.

- (A) that (C) so
(B) which (D) if

8. I wonder where _____?

- (A) he did go (C) he went
(B) did he go (D) went he

9. She asked me how old _____.

- (A) am I (C) was I
(B) I am (D) I was

10. We are going to the movies tonight, and _____.

- (A) so does Ann (C) so will Ann
(B) so is Ann (D) are Ann

Section 2. ОТВЕТЫ С ОБЪЯСНЕНИЯМИ

1. Существительное

1. (D) Существительное *department* используется в качестве прилагательного. Прилагательные не имеют множественного числа.
2. (D) Сочетание *two-month-old* выступает в качестве прилагательного.
3. (A) Существительное *weather* никогда не употребляется с неопределенным артиклем. **Ср. such a beautiful day**
4. (D) Неопределенный артикль указывает, что речь идет о предмете такого рода (*a day*). Возможно также **such a beautiful day**.
5. (D) Существительное *mathematics* является названием науки, «s» - не показатель множественного числа. *Mathematics* – определение к *teachers*.
6. (D) *The* употребляется с порядковым числительным *tenth*. Возможен вариант Chapter ten.
7. (A) Это так называемое двойное сравнение *The more ... the less; the sooner ... the better; the more ... the merrier*.
8. (A) За выражением *couldn't help* следует герундий (не мог не сделать что-либо).
8. (D) Конкретная науки о жизни (вообще).
9. (D) *advice* - неисчисляемое существительное.
some advice - какой-либо совет.
10. (C) *hundred of* - означало бы "сто". Здесь имеется в виду "много раз".

2. Прилагательные, наречия

1. (C) *Tastes*- полувспомогательный глагол, за которым следует *strong* - прилагательное в функции части именного сказуемого.
2. (B) Наречие *attentively* определяет глагол *listened*.
3. (D) Наречие *late* не имеет суффикса *-ly*.
4. (C) Сравнительная степень прилагательного *pretty-prettier*, за которым следует *than*, Возможно также *as pretty as her sister*.
5. (D) Многосложные прилагательные и наречия образуют сравнительную и превосходную степень сравнения при помощи *more* и *most*.
6. (C) Если сравнение идет с более чем одним предметом, то употребляется превосходная степень (ср.: 7).
7. (A) Если сравниваются два предмета, то употребляется сравнительная степень, хотя перед сочетанием стоит определенный артикль (Ср.: 6).
8. (C) *than of* = *the salary of*. В случае (A) *salary* сравнивалось бы с *secretary*.
9. (A) Возможен и вариант *so as*.
10. (A) *the same as*, но *different from*.

3. Местоимения

1. (C) Относительное местоимение *it* соотносится с одушевленным предметом, *which* - с неодушевленным предметом.
2. (B) Местоимение в функции дополнения употребляется в объектном падеже.
3. (C) См. 1. (C).
4. (C) (B) *A few* употребляется с исчисляемыми существительными, *a little* - с неисчисляемыми. (В английском языке *money* - неисчисляемое существительное).
5. (C) *News* - неисчисляемое существительное. Возможно: *We have had some news*.
6. (D) *Information* - неисчисляемое существительное.
7. (C) В предложении говорится, что было два учителя. Первый и определенный второй. *The others* предполагает множество других, *another* - какой-то другой, но не из этих двух.
8. (A) В английском предложении возможно лишь одно отрицание. В вопросительном и отрицательном предложениях вместо *some* и его производных употребляется *any*.
9. (A) Перед герундием местоимение употребляется в объектном падеже, а существительное в притяжательном, так что *Tom's having to leave early* также было бы правильно.
10. (C) Если предлагается любой выбор, употребляется *any*, хотя предложение в утвердительной форме.

4. Видовременные формы глагола

1. (A) Present Perfect *She's (has)* употребляется в предложениях с *since*, указывающим на начало действия.
2. (C) *Past Perfect* указывает на действие, предшествующее другому событию в прошлом.
3. (B) *Had researched and written*. Здесь сказуемое с однородными членами. *Had* второй раз не употребляется.
4. (C) *Future Perfect* употребляется, чтобы показать реализацию действия в будущем.
5. (A) Придаточное предложение указывает на момент действия, главное - на другое действие в своем развитии.
(D) Возможна форма *had been sleeping*.
6. (B) Ср.: предложение 5.
7. (A) Если бы речь шла об изобретателе, который живет и ныне, следовало бы употребить *had invented*.

8. (B) В придаточном условном предложении вместо будущего неопределенного употребляется настоящее неопределенное.
9. (D) *Already* указывает, что действие уже завершилось к моменту речи.
10. (B) За формой *Past Perfect* следует *Past Indefinite*.

5. Модальные глаголы

1. (A) Глагол *to be* употребляется как модальный, если что-то планируется сделать.
2. (B) *Ought to* выражает обязательство, нечто само собой разумеющееся.
3. (B) *Can* употребляется для выражения физических и умственных возможностей.
4. (C) *must* употребляется для выражения почти полной уверенности.
5. (B) Здесь не выражен запрет (*mustn't*). Смысл предложения "Поступайте так, как Вы считаете нужным".
6. (D) *Should* выражает совет.
7. (D) В отличие от *must*, *can't* выражает почти полное отсутствие уверенности (Ср.: предложение 4).
8. (B) *Must* также выражает обязанность, одна перед глаголом *may* стоит частица *to*, следовательно, только (B) правильный ответ.
9. (C) *must* не имеет формы прошедшего времени. Вместо него употребляется *have to*.
10. (C) Все указанные глаголы употребляются для выражения предположения. *May* указывает на неуверенность говорящего (*I'm not sure*), перфектный инфинитив - на предшествование

6. Неличные формы глагола

1. (C) Инфинитив употреблен для выражения обстоятельства цели.
2. (A) *Professor Davis working* - конструкция в функции сложного дополнения. Возможно и (B), но без частицы *to*.
3. (A) Форма *to be interested* требует предлога, за которым следует герундий - *going*.
4. (A) *Her go* - еще один пример сложного дополнения, выраженного местоимением в объектном падеже и инфинитивом.
5. (A) После глагола *enjoy* употребляется герундий.
6. (B) После глагола *to stop* герундий употребляется, когда действие прекращается, инфинитив - чтобы показать, что действие еще предстоит. Например, *He stopped to read the announcement* "Он остановился, чтобы прочесть объявление".
7. (C) После глагола *want* употребляется конструкция "Объектный с инфинитивом" (*Complex Object*).

8. (A) За выражением *couldn't help* следует герундий (Не мог не сделать что-либо).
9. (O) Если пропуск заполнить глаголом на *-ing*, то предложение лишилось бы смысла: Она отказалась, принимая подарок.
10. (A) Во многих случаях *able* имеет такое же значение, что и *capable*, но, синтаксическая структура у них разная:

7. *Согласование подлежащего и сказуемого*

1. (B) Имеется в виду множество.
2. (A) Согласование идет со вторым существительным. Ср.: *Either George or his friends were responsible...*
3. (A) Согласование идет с первым существительным.
4. (A) Имеется в виду одна целая сумма.
5. (B) Согласование идет с подлежащим "*The pages*".
6. (B) "*a number*" означает множество. Ср.: *The number of students is small.* "*The number*" требует единственного числа.
7. (A) Аналогично и согласование с другими существительными типа *a flock, a herd*, означающими "группа".
8. (B) Имеются в виду два отдельных предмета.
9. (A) Слова *family, team, committee, army* означают группу людей и употребляются с глаголом в единственном числе. Однако если имеются в виду отдельные члены группы, они требуют множественного числа. В данном примере местоимение *their* указывает на отдельных игроков команды.
10. (A) Слово *majority* употребляется в единственном, так и во множественном числе. Если оно употреблено одно, то стоит в единственном числе, если за ним следует существительное во множественном числе, то оно означает множество.

8. *Порядок слов в предложении*

1. (A) *Enough* всегда следует за прилагательным (*long enough, clever enough, etc.*).
2. (B) За сказуемым всегда следует дополнение, а затем обстоятельство.
3. (B) Сначала следует обстоятельство места, затем обстоятельство времени, которое более подвижно и может занимать место в начале предложения (*Every morning Tom walks to work*).
4. (B) В отрицательных предложениях *probably* ставится перед отрицанием. (Ср.: *I will probably see you*)
5. (B) Если в предложении лишь одна глагольная форма, то наречие стоит перед глаголом.
6. (B) По аналогии с предложением 5.

7. (A) *Picked up* считается единой глагольной формой.
8. (B) Наречие ставится перед глаголом.
9. (B) Наречие ставится после модального глагола.
10. (B) Предложное дополнение ставится после прямого. Но: *She gave Jane an interesting book.*

9. Условные предложения

1. (C) Условное предложение первого типа (реальное условие), о чем свидетельствует форма глагола в главном предложении.
2. (B) Условное предложение первого типа. Обратите внимание на порядок слов в главном предложении.
3. (B) В главном предложении употреблен модальный глагол.
4. (B) В главном предложении глагол стоит в повелительном наклонении.
5. (B) В придаточном условия глагол по форме соответствует *Past Perfect*. Это нереальное условие второго типа (действие относится к прошлому). Отсюда и выбор глагола в главном предложении.
6. (A) В придаточном условия глагол по форме соответствует *Pats Indefinite*. Это нереальное условие первого типа (действие относится к настоящему или будущему). Соответственно и выбор глагола в главном предложении (*Future-in –the-Past*).
7. (A) Выбор формы глагола главного предложения делается в соответствии с формой глагола придаточного условия (*Future-in– the-Past-Past Indefinite*).
8. (C) Выбор формы глагола условного предложения делается в соответствии с формой глагола главного предложения. (*Future-in-the-Past Indefinite*).
9. (B) В главном предложении модальный глагол *could* стоит в форме прошедшего времени. Отсюда и выбор глагола в условном предложении.
10. (A) *Unless* означает *if not* (*If they don't turn the radio off...*).

10. Синтаксическая структура предложения

1. (C) После местоимения *neither* в предложении, подтверждающем мысль первого предложения, порядок слов такой же, как в общем вопросе. Возможен и вариант *She doesn't either.*,
2. (A) *Used to* употребляется для выражения многократно повторяющегося действия в прошлом, отсюда переспрос – *didn't she*.
3. (A) Структура предложения 3 аналогична предложению 1, однако в утвердительном предложении требуется местоимение *so*.
4. (C) Для выражения согласия в предложениях с *Let's* употребляется *shall we*.

5. (C) Здесь действует правило согласования времен: "Если в главном предложении глагол стоит в прошедшем времени, то в придаточном предложении употребляется одно из прошедших времен".
6. (D) Если в предложении глагол стоит в отрицательной форме, то переспрос - в утвердительной.
7. (D) Косвенный общий вопрос вводится союзом *if*. Порядок слов прямой.
8. (C) В косвенном специальном вопросе прямой порядок слов.
9. (D) Обратите внимание на формальное согласование времен и прямой порядок слов в косвенном вопросе.
10. (B) Возможен и вариант "*and Ann is too*".

Section 3. ACHIEVEMENT TEST

Test 1

1. *Insert the definite or indefinite article where required.*

1. Jason's father bought him ... bicycle that he had wanted for his birthday.
2. ... Statue Liberty was a gift of friendship from ... France to ...United States.
3. Rita is studying ... English and ... math this semester.
4. ... judge asked ... witness to tell... truth.
5. Please give me ... cup of...coffee with ... cream and ... sugar.
6. ... big books on ... table are for history class.
7. No one in ... Spanish class knows ... correct answer to ...Mrs. Peres's question.
8. My ... car is four years old and it still runs well.
9. When you go to ... store, please buy ... bottle of ... milk and ...dozen oranges.
10. There are only ... few seats left for ... tonight's musical at ...university.

2. *Choose the correct word in parentheses in each of the following sentences,*

1. Of the four dresses, I like the red one (*better, best*).
2. This vegetable soup tastes very (*good, well*).
3. This book is (*the better, the best*) on the pair.
4. The colder the weather gets, (*sicker, the sicker*) I feel.
5. No sooner had he received the letter (*when, than*) he called Maria.
6. A mink coat costs (*twice more than, twice as much as*) a sable coat.
7. Please give me (*the smaller, the smallest*) of the two cakes.
8. These shoes are (*the less, the least*) expensive of all.
9. This poster is (*colourfuler, more colorful*) than the one in the hall.
10. Does John feel (*weller, better*) today than he did yesterday?

3. *Fill in the gap with the verb in brackets and use the Infinitive, Gerund or Participle.*

I don't really enjoy **(1)** – **(travel)** by plane. On a last week, I noticed two men in front of me **(2)** - **(smoke)**, although there were sings telling passengers not **(3)** – **(smoke)**. I don't like people **(4)** – **(smoke)** near me, so I want **(5)** – **(remind)** them that **(6)** – **(smoke)** was not allowed. I asked if they would mind **(7)** – **(put)** out their cigarettes. Then they both stopped **(8)** – **(talk)** and turned round **(9)** – **(look)** at me. When I asked again, they refused. Instead of **(10)** – **(apologise)**, they kept on **(11)** – **(smoke)** and started **(12)** – **(argue)** with me. Only one of them did all the **(13)** – **(talk)**. I remember the other one just **(14)** – **(sit)** there and **(15)** – **(blow)** smoke in my face. I am not used to **(16)** – **(be)** insulted and I felt like **(17)** – **(punch)** him on the face. Fortunately, I managed **(18)** – **(stop)** myself from **(19)** – **(do)** this.

Test 2

1. *Choose the correct word given in parenthesis.*

1. You should speak to someone else (**beside/besides**) Helen.
2. He works on (**alternate/alternative**) days: Monday, Tuesday, Friday.
3. The country is in a problematic (**economic/economical**) state.
4. Please keep (**quiet/quite**).
5. You should go through the official (**canals/channels**) if you want the administration to help.
6. I met him quite (**occasionally/by chance**) when I was hurrying to my friend.
7. What seemed child's (**play/game**) at first turned out to be a serious and even dangerous job.
8. He liked his new (**work/job**). The (**work/job**) was hard, but it was interesting.

2. *Choose the correct form of the adjective or adverb in the following sentences.*

1. I feel much (*good*) than I did last week.
2. The (*high*) we flew, the (*bad*) Edna left.
3. John no (*long*) studies at the University.
4. He visits his family (*little*) frequently than she does.
5. Phil is the (*happy*) person that we know.
6. Does Fred feel (*well*) today than he did yesterday?
7. Jane is the (*little*) athletic of all the girls.
8. My cat is the (*pretty*) of the two.
9. John is the (*tall*) boy in the family.
10. Of the two books, this is the (*much*) interesting.

3. *Use the correct form of the verb (Infinitive or Gerund) in these sentences.*

1. Please let me help you (solve) the puzzle.
2. Would you like (see) them?
3. The girl is afraid (swim) when the sea is rough.
4. I'm sorry I forgot (ring) you up yesterday.
5. I'm very poor and I can't afford (buy) such a dress.
6. Please remind me (post) the letter.
7. "I cannot unlock the door". – "Try (turn) the key the other way".
8. I enjoy (play) chess.
9. I look forward to (hear) from you.
10. He agreed (send) me a cheque.

Test 3

1. *Fill in the blanks with prepositions (or adverbs) where required.*

1. We were amazed ... the crowd of friends that met us ... the station... the day of our arrival... Moscow.
2. Having learned English ... a self-instructor, the student was ... a hopeless position when he tried to speak.
3. The English tourist addressed ... the intourist guide and the latter answered ... perfect English.
4. While the speaker was talking, I glanced round ... the front row who was listening ... every word... keen interest.
5. We found a room ... an advertisement...the newspaper.

2. *Use the verb in brackets in Present Indefinite, Past Indefinite, Present Perfect, Present Continuous.*

1. ... you... (*see*) than film at the local cinema yet? Yes, I (*see*) that film lost of times.
2. The last time I ... (*go*) to England was in 1987. I ... (*be*) to England three times altogether.
3. John ... (*promise*) to take me to the match today but it's already half finished and he still ... not... (*arrive*).
4. Oh, no! I ... (*lose*) my wallet.
5. Can you help me, please? I ... (*look*) for the bank.
6. He ... (*collect*) stamps ever since he was a small boy.
7. How long ... it ... (*take*) to get from here to London?
8. How long ... you ... (*work*) for the government?
9. Sorry, I can't talk now. I ... (*have*) dinner.
10. The car ... (*look*) nice, but I can't afford it.

3. *Fill in the gap with the verb in brackets and*

1. You will see on the map that the village (*lies, lays*) north on the lake.
2. My dog loves to (*sit, set*) in the sun.
3. The delivery boy (*lay, law*) the groceries on the table.
4. After the heavy rain, the water in the lake (*raised, rose*) another two feet.
5. They decided to (*raise, rise*) the picture a few *more* inches.
6. He was exhausted, so he decided to (*lie, lay*) down for a little while.
7. They tried to (*set, sit*) the explosives carefully on the floor.
8. Don't disturb Mary; she (*has lain, has laid*) down for a rest.
9. The OPEC countries (*have risen, have raised*) the price of oil.
10. The nurse (*lay, laid*) the baby in the crib.

Test 4

1. Choose the correct form given in parenthesis.

1. I made *them* (*give, to give*) the money back.
2. She was made (*to pay, pay*) back the money.
3. (*Had you, did you have*) a good holiday?
4. I heard him (*go, went*) down the stairs.
5. I insist on (*him, his*) coming in time.
6. (*Do you have, have you*) to speak French in your job?
7. I'm sorry not (*to come, to have come*) on Thursday.
8. She was used to (*get up, getting up*) early last summer.
9. We can't allow them (*to do, do*) that.
10. She used to (*get up, getting up*) early last summer.

2. Use the verb in brackets in Past Indefinite, Past Continuous or Past Perfect.

1. I am a doctor. I have to drive a lot in my job. I have been driving for twenty years. In all that time, the police ... never ... (*stop*) me until last week. But last Tuesday they (2) ... (*catch*) me for speeding.
2. It was afternoon. I (3) ... (*drive*) fast because I was late. I (4) ... (*go*) to the airport to meet my friend. I was late because a patient (5) ... (*telephone*) just as I (6) ... (*leave*) the house.
3. The police (7) ... (*wait*) in the side road outside town. When they (8) (*see*) me go past, they (9) ... (*drive*) after me. When they (10) ... (*stop*) me, they told me that they (11) ... (*book*) me for speeding.
4. I (12)... (*try*) to explain to them. I (13) ... (*tell*) them that my friend's plane (14) ... (*land*) ten minute ago. But they (15) ... not ... (*listen*) to my excuse. I (16) ... (*have*) to pay £50 the next day.

3. Fill in the blanks with "can", "may", "must", "have to" or "be to".

1. "Will you know where to go?" - "Yes, thank you. I ... always ask my brother."
2. "Didn't she hear our shouting?" "She says she heard nothing". "She ... have wandered a long way."
3. What ... he have meant when he said it?
4. "I'd give anything to meet that fellow." "We ... see what be done."
5. It is a most interesting story. He... not possibly have invented it. You ... have told him something.
6. "It is eight o'clock. The children ... go to bed," Mr. Hudson said to the nurse.
7. She ... go to bed at eight o'clock to be up in time for the first train.
8. At this boarding school the children ... go to bed at 8 o'clock.
9. He told me that I... (not) use words which I didn't know.
10. He told re that 1 ... learn by heart some twenty lines every day to know English well.

4. Supply the correct form of the verb in parenthesis for each of the following sentences.

1. If I finish the dress before Saturday, I ... (*give*) it to my sister for her birthday.
2. If I had seen the movie, I ... (*tell*) you about it last night.
3. He would give you the money if he ... (*have*) it.
4. If you have enough time, please... (*paint*) the chair before you leave.
5. If your mother ... (*buy*) that car for you, will you be happy?
6. If he ... (*decide*) earlier, he could have left on the afternoon flight.
7. Had we known your address, we ... (*write*) you a letter.
8. My dog always wakes me up if he ... (*hear*) strange noises.
9. If he had left already, be ... (*call*) us.
10. I could understand the French teacher if she... (*speak*) more slowly.

Test 5

1. Fill in the definite or indefinite article where required.

1. I often went to examine ... collection of ... curiosities in ... Heidelberg Museum, and one day I surprised ... keeper of it with my German.
2. I spoke entirely in ... language.
3. He said my German was very unusual, and wanted to add it to ... collection in ... Museum.
4. " ... person who has not studied .., German cannot possibly understand what ... difficult language it is.
5. One is thrown about it in ... most helpless way and when at last he thinks he has captured ... rule which offers firm ground to take rest upon an up ... stormy sea of ... ten parts of... speech, he turns over ... page and reads, "The pupil should make careful note of ... following exceptions".
6. He runs his eyes down ... page and finds that there are more exceptions to ... rule than" examples of it.

(Extract from "A Tramp Abroad" - M. Twain)

2. Choose the correct form of the verb in parenthesis in the following sentences.

1. Neither Jill nor her (*has, have*) seen this movie before.
2. There (*have, has*) been too many interruptions in this class.
3. The number of students who have withdrawn from class this quarter (*is, are*) appalling.
4. The jury (*is, are*) trying to reach a decision.
5. The army (*has, have*) eliminated this section of the training test.
6. A pack of wild dogs (*has, have*) frightened all the ducks away.
7. Either John or his wife (*make, makes*) breakfast each morning.
8. A number of students (*is, are*) going to the picnic.
9. The number of days in a week (*is, are*) seven.

3. Supply the appropriate form of the verbs given in brackets.

There was a loud screaming of brakes.

1. Gordon (*jump*) out of his very ancient Ford car and (*run*) to the front to see what he (*hit*).
2. Ann (*pick*) herself up from the grass verge and (*come*) furiously over to see what (*hit*) her.
3. The motor scooter that she (*ride*) (*stand*) apparently unhurt against a tree.
4. "How dare you (*rush*) out like that and (*crush*) into the wing of my car?" (*roar*) Gordon, and at exactly the same moment Ann (*say*), "How dare you (*come*) rushing round that corner and (*knock*) me my motor scooter."
5. Then each (*realize*) who the other (*be*) and they (*modify*) their tone of voice.

6. "You (*hurt*)?" he (*ask*) anxiously.
7. "No", she (*say*); "I suppose I ought (*faint*), but I don't know how to."
8. But what about your car? I (*scrape*) the paint or (*dent*) the body-work, or (*smash*) a headlight, or something?"
9. "No, all that (*do*) long ago."
10. "The registration book (*show*) that his car (*have*) at least fifteen owners, and each of them (*do*) his share in (*try*) to ruin it."

UNIT I

Quantity sociology

Statistics of insanity rates in the United States.

Read the text to understand what is of primary importance in it.

1. Contemporary American sociology traces its origins from French and German social thought a century ago, and it ignores the splendid work done by several American researches as early as the 1830s that laid the basis for modern theory-driven, quantitative sociology. Edward Jarvis lived from 1803 to 1884 and was gone from the scene a decade before the first sociology courses were taught in American universities and two decades before the founding of the American Sociological Associations. But he was president of the American Statistical Association for thirty years, and in 1865 he was never called himself a “sociologist”, and the word did not become fashionable in America until after death, but he published in several fields that today are included within sociology.

2. The 1840 census of the United States tried to count all the insane residents in each part of the country so that communities could decide whether they needed to build mental hospitals, but the data were soon put to other uses, both political and scientific. As soon as the census reports were published in 1842, attention focused on the insanity statistics for African Americans. *The Southern Literary Messenger*, an intellectual leader for the forces that later created the Confederacy, pointed out that rates of insanity were much higher among free blacks than among slaves, and this research in their defense of slavery. According to Calhoun, African Americans were not capable of handling freedom, and their high rate of insanity in the Northern states was supposedly proof of this.

3. When Jarvis saw the census data, probably in June 1842, he immediately calculated insanity rates and discovered the same thing that the Southern proslavery intellectuals had found, but he gave the finding a very different meaning. Jarvis was a vocal foe of slavery, and he did not think that blacks and whites differed in the factors that harmed or protected their sanity. Indeed, he believed that social research on African Americans could reveal principles that were true of all human beings. He calculated that the insanity rate for African Americans in three Northern states was 616 per 100,000, compared with only 64 per 100,000 in the slave states of the South. He knew there were errors in these data, but at the first he thought they might be small enough that the general result was reliable. Jarvis quickly wrote up a journal article reporting his discovery and offering a theoretical explanation very much like Durkheim's concept of anomie half a century later.

4. Jarvis suggested that slavery limits psychological and intellectual development. “By refusing man many of the hopes and responsibilities which the free, self-thinking and self-acting enjoy and sustain, of course it saves him from some of the liabilities and dangers of active self-direction. If the mental powers and the propensities are kept comparatively dormant, certainly they must suffer much from misdirection or over-action. So far as goes, it proves the common notion, that in the highest state of civilization and mental activity there is the greatest danger of mental derangement; for here, where there is the greatest mental torpor, we find the least insanity... it is a common and a probable theory , that the development of insanity has kept pace with the progress of civilization; and that the great disproportion between the number of lunatics among the free whites and the slave blacks in the United States, surely tends to corroborate this doctrine”.

5. Like Durkheim, Jarvis was passionately attached to his own theories. Thus it was ... turnabout in November 1842 when Jarvis repudiated his own analysis. Delving deeper into the data, he had discovered profound flaws. For example, he discovered that be census reports claimed that Worcester, Massachusetts, had 133 insane blacks, when these were actually the white residents of the Worcester insane asylum. Seven towns in Maine with no black residents were credited with 26 insane or “idiotic” blacks. Jarvis concluded that the private companies that tabulated and published the census volumes, and that had been involved in scandalous cost overruns, had simply done an incompetent job. Often they, or the census-takers themselves, had written numbers in the wrong columns on their forms, and the effect was greatly inflating the apparent insanity rates among free blacks. This is an early example of how social science can become involved in politics, because advocates of slavery rampaged across the pages of the pages of the nation’s magazines and newspapers, claiming the census proved that slavery was good. Jarvis soon was leading a national crusade to refute these lies and to improve the quality of census data, in which he was joined by Northern free black organizations.

6. Jarvis’s work on the 1840 census is today seen as a milestone in the development of rigorous social science. He was a consultant for the 1870 census. In 1855 he published a book based on a major survey of all the insane persons of Massachusetts, finding a close connection between poverty and insanity, a fact that sociologists of the twentieth century had to rediscover for themselves, because by the 1930s, Jarvis had been completely forgotten.

Write down the sociological terms, known to you in Russian.

Write a list of sociological terms that you would like to be explained in the text.

Use your dictionary to check their exact meaning.

Pick out an idea or a phrase, which you think the most informative in each paragraph.

Vocabulary notes

Quantity sociology- количественная социология

Community – сообщество

Data – данные

Census – перепись

Rate – уровень, показатель

Reveal – открывать, разоблачать

Calculate – рассчитывать

Reliable – надёжный

Sustain – Поддерживать, подтверждать

Dormant – потенциальный, скрытый

Propensity – склонность, пристрастие

Derangement – нарушение

Torpor – неподвижность, оцепенелость

Lunatic – безрассудный, безумный

Improve your vocabulary.

1. Make the following sentences complete by translating the words and phrases in brackets.
2. (Количественная социология) is the outcome of splendid work done by several American researches.
3. African Americans were not capable of handling freedom according to Calhoun, and (степень помешательства) in the northern states was supposedly proof of it.
4. He knew there were (ошибки) in these (данных).
5. It proves the (общее понятие) that in the highest state of civilization and mental activity there is the greatest danger of mental (нарушения).
6. If the mental powers and the (склонности) are kept (относительно скрытый), certainly they must suffer much from misdirection or over-action.

Find in the text the English equivalents for the following phrases.

- современная американская социология
- американские ученые
- психические клиники
- защита рабства
- уровень психических заболеваний
- данные опроса
- по сравнению с
- достаточно небольшой
- данные опроса
- по сравнению
- достаточно небольшой
- понятие аномии
- психологическое и умственное развитие
- сравнительный
- местная связь
- полностью забыт

Find in the text the English equivalents for the following phrases.

- dormant
- mental derangement
- great disproportion
- census reports
- national crusade

Explain the meanings of the following words and expressions.

- to lay the basis
- to be gone from the scene
- to call oneself
- to become fashionable
- to focus attention
- to calculate insanity rate
- to reveal principles
- Intellectual development
- Comparatively dormant
- mental activity

Explain the meaning of the word “insanity”.

- a. mental disability
- b. physical disability
- c. neurological disease
- d. physiological disease

Whose works laid the basis for statistics of insanity?

- a. Jarvis's
- b. Durkheim's
- c. Smith's
- d. Spenser's

What did census reports show?

- a. the US needed to found more mental hospitals.
- b. rates of insanity among blacks are much more
- c. African Americans were not capable of handling freedom.
- d. African Americans were capable of handling problem.

Who was the first to give a theoretical explanation of calculated insanity rates among free blacks?

- a. Jarvis
- b. Durkheim
- c. Merton
- d. Spenser

How can social science become involved in politics?

- a. through sociologists' incompetent job.
- b. through greatly inflating the apparent insanity rates among free black.

Why are Jarvis's works considered to be the milestone in the development of rigorous social science?

- a. because he found a close connection between poverty and insanity.
- b. because he was forgotten
- c. because he proved the slavery was good.
- d. because he published a book

Pick out from the text all the word combinations with the following terms and give their Russian equivalents.

- sociology
- insane
- insanity
- data
- derangement
- census

Define whether the statement:

- A) false B) no information C) true

It had been concluded that the private companies that tabulated and published the census volumes, and that had been involved in scandalous cost overruns, had simply done an incompetent job.

Define whether the statement:

- A) false B) true C) no information

As soon as the census reports were published in 1842, the insanity statistics for American Africans was neglected.

Point out the passage of the text that contains the following information:

This is an early example of how social science can become involved in politics. The advocates of slavery rampaged across the pages of the pages of the nation's magazines and newspapers, claiming the census proved that slavery was good. Jarvis soon was leading a national crusade to refute these lies and to improve the quality of census data, in which he was joined by Northern free black organizations.

Point out the passage of the text that contains the following information:

Jarvis never thought that blacks and whites different in the factors that harmed or protected sanity.

Point out the passage of the text that contains the following information:

It proves the common notion, that in the highest state of civilization and mental activity there is the greatest danger of mental derangement; for here, where there is the greatest mental torpor, we find the least insanity... it is a common and a probable theory, that the development of insanity has kept pace with the progress of civilization; and that the great disproportion between the number of lunatics among the free whites and the slave blacks in the United States, surely tends to corroborate this doctrine".

Define the main idea of the text:

- slavery limits psychological and intellectual development
- social science have become involved in politics.
- sociology traces its origin from French and German social thought

Speak about the effects of Durkheim works on Adolf Wagner and Morselli Henry:

Wagner, Adolf Heinrich Gotthilf

Durkheim took most of his data on suicide from his earlier works. The study by Adolf Wagner is a remarkably painstaking analysis of European social statistics showing that human behavior follows regular laws, and offering judicious observations about the meaning of the findings. Wagner reports that earlier writers had suspected Protestants were more liable to commit suicide than Catholics, and he marshals a tremendous amount of data about Germany higher to demonstrate that this is so. He also shows that suicide is associated with higher levels of education, as Jarvis would have suspected. Wagner fine book was never translated into either French or English, and academic sociology took no notice of until 130 years after it was published.

Morselli, Henry

Originally published in Italian, Morselli's book was quickly translated into English, and it became the standard social-scientific text on the topic of suicide until Durkheim's book superceded it. Morselli employed a tremendously wide range of statistics beyond suicide rates to explore every countries to apparent might affect self-murder, from the climates of different countries to apparent psychological motives. His central theme is sociological, however: suicide is steadily increasing because civilization itself promotes it. Suicide is greater among better educated populations, in cities, and where high development of the railroads and of magazine publishing indicates commerce and communication. He hints that suicide may be increased by a weakening of traditional religious faith, but he explains the higher rate for Protestants as the result of their distinctive religious psychology: "Protestantism, denying all materialism in external worship and encouraging free enquiry into dogmas and creeds, is an eminently mystic religion, tending to develop the reflective powers of the mind and to exaggerate the inward struggles of the conscience".

UNIT II

Evolutionary Universals in Society

Read the text “The Proper Scope of Sociology’ to understand what is of primary importance in it.

1. Talcott Parsons was among the greatest defenders of Durkheim’s view that sociology should concern large-scale phenomena such as society itself, and should not analyze everything in terms of the behavior of individuals. In this article, Parson’s topic is nothing less than the evolution of human society over thousand of years, and the emergence of large-scale societal institutions that are so important that they are required for further progress. All societies possess four features of supreme importance: religion, communication with language, social organization through kinship and technology.

2. Thus, Parsons deduces, each of these four is essential to humanity. Six other major features are lacking in the most simple societies but emerge over the course of history and are found in all advanced nations: social stratification, cultural legitimation, social stratification, cultural communication with language, social organization through kinship and technology, legitimation, bureaucratic organization, money and markets, generalized universalistic norms, and the democratic association. He focuses on these six as prerequisites for the development of modern society.

3. Social stratification is the development of different classes or gradation in wealth and influence that give people more power than others. Parsons does not say that stratification is unjust; rather he argues that effective leadership and the development of modern conceptions of justice are based on the emergence of social inequality. Bureaucratic organization is an institutionalized hierarchy of authority that emerges first in government and then becomes characteristic of all large social organizations because it is so effective.

4. Efficient markets based on money are a system of distributing wealth that competes with means for sharing wealth based on political, ethnic, or religious membership

5. Universalistic norms are standards for behavior that make no special distinctions bases on the family, race, or group to which people belong, treating everyone in some sense equally. A democratic association is a political system of an organization or nation in which leaders are elected through voting by all members of the group, who are either citizens or voluntary participants. These features of society fit together into a mutually-reinforcing structure. For example, without cultural legitimation money would be worthless, and bureaucratic organization makes no sense without stratification. Without universalistic norms, democracy is impossible.

6. Parson’s analysis is a kind often called functionalist. He analyzes each

institution or feature of society in terms of what it accomplishes for the society as a whole. That is, he seeks the natural function of each societal feature, and he is not concerned about how the actions and interactions of individuals might create or sustain that feature. This approach is also called structuralism or structural-functionalist, because it assumes that the institutions of society fit together into a logical structure in which each institution support the others. Although Parsons goes far beyond Durkheim, many writers have found the roots of structural-functionalism in Durkheim's works.

Write down the sociological terms known to you in Russian.

Write a list of sociological terms used in the text. Use your dictionary to check the exact meaning.

Pick out an idea or a phrase, which you think the most informative in each paragraph.

Vocabulary notes

Defender-защитник

Concern-забота

Phenomena-явления

Emergence-появление

Required-требуемый

Deduce-делать заключение

Essential- существенный

Lack-отсутствие

Stratification-стратификация

Legitimizing-легитимация

Prerequisites-предпосылки

Hierarchy-иерархия

Share-доля

Elect-избирать

Vote-голосовать

Function-фактор поддержания структуры

Improve your vocabulary.

Make the following sentences complete by translating the words and phrases in brackets.

1. All societies (обладать) four features of supreme importance: religion, communication with language, social organization through (социальная близость).

2. Efficient markets based on money are a system of (распределение) wealth that competes with means for sharing wealth based on political, ethnic, or religious membership.

3. These features of society (скреплять) into a mutually-reinforcing structure.

4. He analyzes each institution or feature of society in terms of what it (выполнять) for the society as a whole. That is, he seeks the natural function of each (подход) is also called structuralism or structural-functionalist.

5. Cultural (узаконение) is the development of ideological belief systems that (поддерживать) the society's institutions, including a sense of citizenship in the society and loyalty to the governing powers.

Find in the text the English-Russian equivalents for the following word and phrases.

- не более чем
- социальная стратификация
- культурная легитимация
- универсальные нормы
- демократическая ассоциация
- лояльность
- социальные институты
- этническая принадлежность
- несправедливый
- влияние
- сконцентрировать
- современные концепции
- ethnic
- treat someone equally
- distribute wealth
- universalistic norms

Explain the meanings of the following words and phrases.

- social organization through kinship and technology
- social stratification
- generalized universalistic norms
- loyalty to the governing powers
- effective leadership
- democratic association
- efficient markets
- institutionalized hierarchy of authority

Explain the meaning of the concept cultural legitimation

- a. claim of legitimacy
- b. law establishing
- c. stability
- d. legislation

Who is considered to be the Father of functional approach in sociology

- a. Homans
- b. Parsons
- c. Morselli
- d. Cooley

What features are lacking in the most simple societies.

- a. democratic association
- b. labour division
- c. religion
- c. technology

Pick out from the text all the word combinations with the following terms and translate them into Russian

- stratification
- legitimation
- institutions
- norms
- phenomena
- share

Define whether the statement:

- A) false
- B) true
- C) no information

Parson's topic is nothing less than the devolution of human society over thousand of years, and the emergence of large-scale societal institutions that are so important that they are required for further progress.

Define whether the statement:

A) false

B) true

C) no information

Social stratification is the development of different classes or gradation in wealth and influence that give people more power than others.

Point out the passage from the text that contains the following information.

A democratic association is a political system of an organization or nation in which leaders are elected through voting by all members of the group, who are either citizens or voluntary participants. These features of society fit together into a mutually-reinforcing structure. For example, without cultural legitimation money would be worthless, and bureaucratic organization makes no sense without stratification.

Point out the passage from the text that contains the following information.

In this article, Parson's topic is nothing less than the evolution of human society over thousand of years, and the emergence of large-scale societal institutions that are so important that they are required for further progress. All societies possess four features of supreme importance: religion, communication with language, social organization through kinship and technology.

Point out the passage from the text that contains the following information.

Parsons does not say that stratification is unjust; rather he argues that effective leadership and the development of modern conceptions of justice are based on the emergence of social inequality. Bureaucratic organization is an institutionalized hierarchy of authority that emerges first in government and then becomes characteristic of all large social organizations because it is so effective.

Define the main idea of the text.

- Parsons is the greatest defender of Durkheim's view
- structuralist approach fit the institutions together into a logical structure
- the roots of functionalist approach are in Durkheim's works.

Speak about Homans critical attitude towards functionalism

In his presidential address to the American Sociological Association, George Homans criticized structural-functionalism for having taken Durkheim's approach to its illogical extreme. In particular, he condemned Durkheim's idea that social facts could not be derived from the actions of individuals, and thus that sociology could not be reduced to philology. For Homans this was as ridiculous as saying that biologists did not need to worry about chemicals, because chemicals were the province of chemists, and chemists did not need to worry about atoms, because atoms were the province of physicists. For Homans, sociologists needed to find explanations for all social phenomena and, and this would often mean analyzing how they arose in the interactions among individuals, with full attention to individual psychology.

UNIT III COMMUNITY AND URBAN

The Chicago School of Urban Sociology

Read the text to understand what is of primary importance in it.

1. The text is based in a unified perspective on city life called *The Chicago School*. It was centered at the University of Chicago, where Park and his colleagues and students dominated American sociology from about 1915 to 1940.

2. Members of the Chicago School adopted a *concentric zone* model of the graphic development of cities. A normal city takes on the form of an archery target. The bull's eye at the center is the downtown business district (called the Loop in Chicago), where land values are at their peak and relatively few people live. Around that is a ring of factories and decaying residential buildings called the *zone of transition*. Another ring contains cheap but respectable working-class homes, conveniently within reach of, but not overshadowed by, the transition-zone factories where the men work. Still farther out is a ring called the *residential zone*, marked by comfortable homes. The *commuters' zone* extends outward to the fringes of the urban area. Each of these zones has its own characteristics and contributes to the nature of the city as a whole. The shape of the zones is the result of history, as a growing city allowed the innermost residential neighborhoods to be invaded by factories and commercial enterprises, while building new and often better residential neighborhood farther out. Thus the city is a dynamic balance between processes of concentration and decentralization.

3. Within the zones, cities consist of neighborhoods in which people are tied together by intimate personal relationships. Neighborhoods emerge and dissolve as the city evolves, and they generally lack formal organization. Some neighborhoods tend to consist of a single immigrant ethnic group, and these may develop high internal solidarity along with a considerable degree of isolation from the wider city. Each neighborhood becomes a somewhat distinct *moral region* with its own norms and culture, and some are dominated by special facilities like a race track or opera house that set the tone of the district. Neighborhoods in the zone of transition may take on highly deviant characteristics, such as *Gangland*, where social life is dominated by gangs, or *Hobohemia*, where the population consists of constantly shifting migrant workers.

4. The Chicago School drew much of its intellectual inspiration from recent developments in biology called *ecology*. The scientific discipline of ecology studies plants and animals as they exist in nature, with great attention

to their interdependence and their relation to the environment. When a forest develops, one set of plant species will be succeeded by another, and it in turn will be succeeded by another, until the forest is mature. So, too, the concentric zones of a city are the residue of a process of ecological succession. The neighborhoods of a city are *natural areas* with distinctive environments created by the interactions among the kinds of individuals and institutions found within them. The ecology of a city tends to stabilize over time, until some event such as the introduction of a new industry disturbs the equilibrium. Although the residents of a city are interdependent, a key fact about human ecology is that individuals are always in competition with other individuals.

5. Competition in large cities forces people to specialize and to acquire special skills that improve their chances of success, thus producing a very high diversity of interests and tasks. This in turn breaks down the traditional organization of society based on family, local associations, and culture, and produces a new but incomplete organization based on vocation. No longer is there a solidarity based on sentiment and habit, but one based on shared interests. Charles Horton Cooley suggested the *term primary group* for a set of relations characterized by intimate, face-to-face interaction and enduring cooperation. But in the modern city primary relations are largely replaced by *secondary relations*, which are more fragmentary and indirect. The breakdown of primary groups greatly weakens informal social control, so the cities experience high rates of vice and crime. In response, cities emphasize rational law and formal organizations of social control such as courts. When an area of the city stabilizes economically and culturally, competition becomes less ruthless and rules of social control provide a measure of strength to the community.

6. A community is more than simply a collection of individuals. More importantly, it is a collection of institutions such as churches, schools, and businesses. No urban community is completely isolated, but is always part of a larger community such as the city or nation. Each community that develops a distinct character will have a center and a circumference. Within its borders, populations and institutions will group themselves in a characteristic pattern that may be called the ecological organization of the community. Within this ecological organization an economic organization based on the division of labor arises, in which people take on different jobs in economic competition with each other. A mature community also has cultural and political organization, which limit competition and impose restraints on individuals. In principle, sociology can contribute to the solution of city problems through scientifically-informed social work and public policy.

Write down the sociological terms, known to you in Russian

Write a list of sociological terms that you would like to be explained in the text.

Use your dictionary to check their exact meaning.

Pick out an idea or a phrase which you think the most informative in each paragraph.

Vocabulary Notes

To be centered-концентрироваться
Dominate-господствовать
Adopt-принимать
Archery target-
Values-ценности
Decay-приходить в упадок
Transition-переход
Commuter`s zone-пригородная зона
Extend-расширяться
Fringe-окаймлять
Deviant-девиантный
Gang-банда
Shift-смена
Interdependence-взаимозависимость
Succeed-преуспевать
Disturb-беспокоить
Diversity-разнообразие
Break down-разбиться
Vice-порок
Circumference-периферия
Mature-зрелый
Impose-насаждать
Restrain-ограничивать

Improve your vocabulary

Make the following sentences complete by translating the words and phrases in brackets.

1. Members of the Chicago School (принимать) *concentric zone* model of the graphic development of cities.
2. When a forest develops, one set of plant species will be succeeded by another, and it in turn will be succeeded by another, until the forest is (зрелый).
3. Although the residents of a city are (взаимозависимы), a key fact about human ecology is that individuals are always in (конкуренция) with other individuals.
4. In *Gangland* social life is (господствовать) by gangs, or *Hoboemia*, where the population consists of constantly shifting migrant workers.
5. A (общность) is more than simply a collection of individuals. More importantly, it is a collection of institutions such as churches, schools, and businesses. No urban community is completely isolated.
6. When an area of the city stabilizes economically and culturally, (конкуренция) becomes less ruthless and rules of social control provide a measure of strength to the community.

Find in the text the English equivalents for the following phrases.

- модель концентрационной зоны
- погибающие жилые строения
- зона перехода
- жилая зона
- пригородная зона
- динамическое равновесие
- близкие личные отношения
- внутренняя солидарность
- постоянно меняющиеся рабочие-мигранты
- интеллектуальное побуждение
- экологическая последовательность
- природная зона
- нарушить равновесие
- особые навыки
- разнообразие интересов

Explain the meaning of the following words and expressions.

- to be dominated
- zone of transition
- commuters zone
- Break down the traditional organization of society
- single immigrant ethnic group
- intellectual inspiration
- shared interests
- primary group
- secondary relations
- moral region

Explain the meaning of the word community

- a. village
- b. cooperation
- c. collection of individuals
- d. collection of institutions

Who dominated American Sociology as “The Chicago School?”

- a. Weber
- b. Park
- c. Lemert
- d. Merton

What model of the geographic development of the cities did they adopt?

- a. archery target
- b. concentric zone
- c. intimate personal relations
- d. internal solidarity

Where did they draw much of their intellectual inspiration?

- a. biology
- b. ecology
- c. chemistry
- d. nature

Who was the first to suggest the term “primary group”

- a. Park
- b. Cooley
- c. Burgers
- d. Nels

What is ecological organization of community”

- a. isolated community
- b. part of a larger community
- c. populations and institutions
- d. urban community

Pick out from the text all the words and word combinations with following terms and give their Russian equivalents.

- community
- organization
- group
- collection
- zone
- relations

Define whether the statement:

A) true B) false C) no information

Competition in small villages forces people to specialize and to acquire special skills that improve their chances of success, thus producing a very high diversity of interests and tasks.

Define whether the statement:

A) true B) false C) no information

Within its borders, populations and institutions will group themselves in a characteristic pattern that may be called the ecological organization of the community.

Point out the passage of the text that contains the following information.

The concentric zones of a city are the residue of a process of ecological succession. The neighborhoods of a city are *natural areas* with distinctive environments created by the interactions among the kinds of individuals and institutions found within them. The ecology of a city tends to stabilize over time, until some event such as the introduction of a new industry disturbs the equilibrium. Although the residents of a city are interdependent, a key fact about human ecology is that individuals are always in competition with other individuals.

Point out the passage of the text that contains the following information.

No longer is there a solidarity based on sentiment and habit, but one based on shared interests. Charles Horton Cooley suggested the *term primary group* for a set of relations characterized by intimate, face-to-face interaction and enduring cooperation. But in the modern city primary relations are largely replaced by *secondary relations*, which are more fragmentary and indirect. The breakdown of primary groups greatly weakens informal social control, so the cities experience high rates of vice and crime. In response, cities emphasize rational law and formal organizations of social control such as courts. When an area of the city stabilizes economically and culturally, competition becomes less

ruthless and rules of social control provide a measure of strength to the community.

Point out the passage of the text that contains the following information.

A normal city takes on the form of an archery target. The bull's eye at the center is the downtown business district called the Loop in Chicago), where land values are at their peak and relatively few people live. Around that is a ring of factories and decaying residential buildings called the *zone of transition*.

Define the main idea of the text

- competition in large cities helps people to get special skills.
- urban community is an ecological organization of the city.
- sociology can contribute to the solution of city problems.

Speak about urban theories of other sociologists

Fischer, Claude S

Fischer offers a four step theory that seeks to derive the deviance of cities directly from their population density, without relying upon anomie.

- 1. The more urban a place, the greater its subcultural variety.**
- 2. The more urban a place, the more intense its subcultures.**
- 3. The more urban a place, the more numerous the sources of diffusion and the greater the diffusion into a subculture**
- 4. The more urban a place, the higher its rates of unconventionality.**

Anderson Nels.

Every large city had a district where homeless people collected, called the "stem," or the "main drag." Despite its economic significance as the migrant labor hub, it was an extremely disorganized part of the city, overrun with many kinds of deviance: bootleggers, dope peddlers, professional gamblers, pickpockets, jack rollers (who rob poor men in their sleep), drunks, cripples, beggars, and old broken men, worn out by the trials of life. Hardly any children could be found in Hobohemia, and the few women either worked in religious missions or were the poorest kind of prostitute.

Few of the hobos were beggars or petty criminals, and they sought the same kind of self-respect enjoyed by more prosperous citizens. But the realities of migrant work beat them down, sooner or later. They lived from hand to mouth, and could not readily establish themselves in stable communities. They were the victims of the economic forces of industrial society, and financial depression or simply the passage of time would degrade most migratory workers from economic independence to abject poverty.

UNIT IV

WORK, OCCUPATIONS, PROFESSIONS

Ideologies of labour

Read the text to understand what is of primary importance in it.

1. Sociologists have approached the study of work from many perspectives. Often the goal is to understand how to increase productivity of workers, or how to give them greater satisfaction, or how to accomplish both of these aims at once. A central concern for sociologists, however, has always been the ways that power is generated and exercised by some people over other people. Thus, a prime research question has been the nature of authority in work organizations and the consequences for workers of having more or less control over their own labor. Reinhard Bendix has examined the ways that vastly different ideologies about authority evolved in the histories of the English-speaking nations and Russia. Bendix argued that the old authoritarian system of the czars was continued under the Soviet Union. Michael Burawoy and Pavel Krotov doubt that Russia after the demise of the Soviet Union is ready to adopt the English and American system.

2. Richard Simpson suggests that there are five principal ways in which work is controlled in the United States: simple, technical, bureaucratic, occupational, and worker self-control. William Form surveys the research on whether workers have lost autonomy over the decades as their jobs have been rationalized to reduce the need for skill. Melvin Kohn and Carmi Schooler explore the effect that working conditions may have on workers' personalities and thus on their behavior away from the job. If all the world is adopting a similar form of industrialism, then the system of occupational prestige may become uniform, a question examined by Alex Inkeles and Peter Rossi.

3. In modern industrial societies, organized work is the fundamental basis of the economy, much of the social structure, and many dimensions of social stratification. Those who are in control of influential, bureaucratic organizations wield power and command high salaries. Professionals can sometimes compete with them in terms of salary, and their prestige may be higher, but their power is more narrowly limited to their dealings with their clients. People whose work is controlled by others, or who are mere cogs in huge bureaucratic machines, lack power, and this powerlessness may carry over into their private lives, shaping their personalities in decisive ways. Across all modern societies, the nature of the work a person does and the way it is organized largely determine the person's socio-economic status.

4. Historical study examines the ideologies that have been used to justify the subordination of large numbers of workers to factory discipline and to the authority of managers. Bendix says the question, "How can many people be convinced to obey a few?" is a fundamental question in sociology. The book contrasts the situation in four societies: England and Russia when they were in the process of becoming industrial, compared with the United States and Soviet-controlled East Germany, where many large-scale economic enterprises already existed. Another important comparison is between the two of these societies where entrepreneurs and managers formed an autonomous class with considerable independence from outside control (England and the United States) versus the two societies in which entrepreneurs and managers were subordinate to government control (Russia and East Germany).

5. In the hundred years centered around 1800, English industrial entrepreneurs were struggling to build up their manufacturing enterprises despite the fact that much in the surrounding culture and social structure worked against them. They were not members of the aristocracy, which still depended largely upon the income from farm land for its wealth, but came from relatively modest family backgrounds. Thus they had to overcome the dominant aristocratic ideology, which held commerce and industry in some contempt. They also had to cope with workers who were very traditional in their outlook, lacking the habits of sustained factory labor and expecting the factory owners to show a paternalistic feeling of responsibility for their welfare like that which some aristocrats showed for the farmers who tended their land. Facing formidable problems concerning their own survival, early British industrial entrepreneurs were ruthless in exploiting the labor of men, women, and even children, and few of them accepted any responsibility for the welfare of the workers.

6. Many of these entrepreneurs lacked a coherent set of shared values and beliefs concerning the proper organization of work, and they merely took advantage of their situations in a thoroughly expedient manner. However, a set of mutually supportive ideologies arose that pretended to explain why some people got to be bosses, whereas others were subordinate to them. Some ideologists for the entrepreneurs believed that workers must be kept poor because hunger was one of the most effective motivators of hard labor. More widely, impoverished workers were considered to be degraded, lazy, improvident, and vice-ridden. Entrepreneurs thought of themselves as paragons of virtue who deserved to be counted as a "higher class" beside the old aristocracy. Evangelistic religion sanctified the success of the entrepreneurs and gave them a tool for inculcating values of thrift, chastity, and industriousness into the workers.

Write down the sociological terms, known to in Russian.

Write a list of sociological terms that you would like to be explained in the text.

Use your dictionary to check their exact meaning.

Pick out an idea or a phrase, which you think the most informative in each paragraph.

Vocabulary Notes

To evolve in-развивать
Demise-развал (зд.)
Reduce-сокращать
Explore-исследовать
Salary-заработная плата
Subordination-подчинение
Justify-оправдать
Entrepreneur- предприниматель
Despite-несмотря
Formidable-значительный
Welfare-благополучие
Coherent-последовательный
Merely-просто, только
Expedient-целесообразный
Virtue-добродетель
Deserve-заслуживать
Tool-инструмент
Sanctify-благословлять
Inculcate-внушать
Thrift-экономность
Chastity-целомудрие
Paragon-образец

Improve your vocabulary.

Make the following sentences complete by translating the words in brackets and translate them into Russian.

1. A central concern for sociologists, however, has always been the ways that power is (порождать) and (осуществлять) by some people over other people.
2. Across all modern societies, the nature of the work a person does and the way it is organized largely (определять) the person's socio-economic status.
3. People whose work is controlled by others, or who are mere (винтики) in huge bureaucratic machines, lack power, and this powerlessness may carry over into their private lives, shaping their personalities in decisive ways.
4. English industrial entrepreneurs were struggling to build up their manufacturing enterprises (несмотря) the fact that much in the surrounding culture and social structure worked against them.
5. Thus they had to (преодолевать) the dominant aristocratic ideology, which held commerce and industry in some contempt.
6. Many of these entrepreneurs lacked a (последовательный) set of shared values and beliefs concerning the proper organization of work, and they merely (извлекать преимущество) of their situations in a thoroughly expedient manner.

Find in the text the English equivalents for the following phrases.

- С разных точек зрения
- Главная проблема
- После развала
- Исследовать результат
- Фундаментальная основа
- Высокая заработная плата
- Оправдать подчинение
- Промышленники
- Несмотря на
- Справиться с
- Значительные проблемы
- Последовательный ряд
- Извлекать преимущество
- Благословить успех
- Образец добродетели
- Внушить ценности

Explain the meanings of the following words and expressions.

- to increase productivity
- nature of authority
- to evolve in
- to reduce the need for skill
- to explore the effect
- to justify the subordination
- a paternalistic feeling
- a paragon of virtue

Explain the meaning of the word welfare

- a. poverty
- b. richness
- c. high salary
- d. material and spiritual values

Who spoke about five principal ways of controlling work in the USA?

- a. Bendix
- b. Rossi
- c. Simpson
- d. Kohn

Who had to cope with workers?

- a. aristocracy
- b. managers
- c. industrial entrepreneurs
- d. evangelists

What was the ideology of labour?

- a. accept responsibility for the welfare of workers
- b. workers must be kept poor
- c. take advantage of the situation
- d. support workers and their families

What determines the person socio-economic status?

- a. low salary
- b. the way the work is organized
- c. the system of occupational prestige
- d. high salary

Pick out from the text all the word combinations with the following words and give their Russian equivalents.

- labour
- entrepreneur
- values
- ideology
- enterprise
- workers

Define whether the statement:

- A) false B) true C) no information

The industrial entrepreneurs were members of the aristocracy, which still depended largely upon the income from farm land for its wealth, but came from relatively modest family backgrounds.

Define whether the statement:

- A) false B) true C) no information

“British industrial entrepreneurs were ruthless in exploiting the labor of men, women, and even children, and few of them accepted any responsibility for the welfare of the workers”.

Point out the passage of the text that contains the following information.

Bendix says the question, "How can many people be convinced to obey a few?" is a fundamental question in sociology. The book contrasts the situation in four societies: England and Russia when they were in the process of becoming industrial, compared with the United States and Soviet-controlled East Germany, where many large-scale economic enterprises already existed. Another important comparison is between the two of these societies where entrepreneurs and managers formed an autonomous class with considerable independence from outside control (England and the United States) versus the two societies in which entrepreneurs and managers were subordinate to government control (Russia and East Germany).

Point out the passage of the text that contains the following information.

They were not members of the aristocracy, which still depended largely upon the income from farm land for its wealth, but came from relatively modest family backgrounds. Thus they had to overcome the dominant aristocratic ideology, which held commerce and industry in some contempt. They also had to cope with workers who were very traditional in their outlook, lacking

the habits of sustained factory labor and expecting the factory owners to show a paternalistic feeling of responsibility for their welfare like that which some aristocrats showed for the farmers who tended their land. Facing formidable problems concerning their own survival, early British industrial entrepreneurs were ruthless in exploiting the labor of men, women, and even children, and few of them accepted any responsibility for the welfare of the workers.

Point out the passage of the text that contains the following information.

A central concern for sociologists, however, has always been the ways that power is generated and exercised by some people over other people. Thus, a prime research question has been the nature of authority in work organizations and the consequences for workers of having more or less control over their own labor. Reinhard Bendix has examined the ways that vastly different ideologies about authority evolved in the histories of the English-speaking nations and Russia. Bendix argued that the old authoritarian system of the czars was continued under the Soviet Union. Michael Burawoy and Pavel Krotov doubt that Russia after the demise of the Soviet Union is ready to adopt the English and American system.

Define the main idea of the text

- people whose work is controlled by others lack power
- working conditions influence on workers' personalities
- the nature of the work and its organization determine the person's socio-economic status.

Speak about five principal ways in which the work is controlled.

1. *Simple control* means that a boss gives orders that the worker must carry out, and the boss is not constrained to any great extent by formal rules, being free even to control the worker in an arbitrary manner. Simple control exists in two forms, direct and hierarchical. In small offices and shops, the boss interacts closely with the worker, exercising direct control. If the organization is too large for the boss to supervise each worker directly, a hierarchy is set up, in which the boss gives orders to managers, who in turn give orders to the workers below them in the hierarchy.

2. *Technical control* exists when the technology of the work makes the chief demands on the worker. For example, a worker on an assembly line is controlled by the array of machines he or she works with. The line sets the pace and the sequence of actions the worker must perform.

3. *Bureaucratic control* often involves a hierarchy, but its chief feature is a set of formal rules and procedures that define how both workers and managers should behave. Bureaucratic control makes use of formal incentives and punishments, and it often employs formal techniques for monitoring the worker and measuring his or her output.

4. *Occupational control* is most often found in autonomous professions, such as medicine and law, where individuals are not under bosses but control each other by establishing a set of standards for professional behavior and then developing methods for getting each other to adhere to them.

5. *Worker self-control* concerns workers who are not under one of the four other kinds of control. These are self-proprietor jobs, such as the operator of a one-person store or a self-employed piano tuner, or a freelance writer or taxi driver.

There can be mixed cases, and often the line dividing two of these categories is blurred. In modern factories, both technical control and bureaucratic control coexist. Government regulation of a profession adds bureaucracy to occupational control. In some group medical practices the individual doctors may have so much independence, and control by local medical associations may be so weak, that the doctors effectively have self-control.

UNIT V

The family as a social System

Read the text to understand which is primary importance in it.

1. In 1953-1955, Young and Willmott studied family life in two contrasting urban environments, Bethnal Green, a working class borough of East London, and "Greenleigh", a "housing estate" (what Americans would call a development) on the outskirts of the city, to many residents of Bethnal Green moved. The research was based chiefly on interview surveys of three groups of people: (1) a random sample of 933 adults in Bethnal Green, (2) 45 married couples in Bethnal Green who were studied more intensively, and (3) 47 married couples in Greenleigh who had come from Bethnal Green. Contrary to what many sociologists expected, Young and Willmott discovered that the extended family was alive and well in Bethnal Green.

2. Contrary to popular stereotypes of urban working-class families, husbands and wives in Bethnal Green seemed highly supportive of each other. Divorce was rare, and the historically declining death rate that the incidence of broken homes actually had been decreasing for several years, rather than increasing as one might expect in a major industrial city. Married couples were close to their parents, physically as well as emotionally. Among 369 married adults whose parents were still alive, fully 54 percent had parents who also lived in Bethnal Green, and the parents of a further 17 percent lived in an adjacent borough. Among the 45 Bethnal Green couples who were interviewed intensively, only four lacked close relatives in the borough (not counting parents or cousins). Fully 33 couples had at least five close relatives other than parents, and five couples had more than 30 each.

3. The extended family centers on the mother ("Mum"). It tends to gather in her home, and she receives great honor from the crucial role that she plays. Mothers perform many important functions for their daughters: providing knowledge on how to make a home, assisting with the practical challenges of childbirth, offering aid and advice during emergencies, and helping her negotiate her relationship with other husband. Because a young wife has such a close relationship with Mum, a certain amount of tension necessarily exists between her mother and her husband. Typically, the husband becomes reconciled with his mother-in-law, and he is adsorbed onto her extended family.

4. Mothers who have good records in paying their own rent can often find a home for their daughters, and fathers with a good record on the job can find employment for their sons. The job available tend to be manual labor with no opportunity for promotion, so the chief economic issue for the family is the husband getting a decent job and holding it, rather than upward social mobility. Thus, the extended family in Bethnal Green does not cut off the c=individual

from the wider community, but ties him or her into it.

5. In 1931, about 108.000 people lived in Bethnal Green, but by 1955 it contained only 53.860. During this period, 11.000 families with more than 40.000 members were moved to municipal housing developments established by the London Country Council. Greenleigh consist of nearly identical little houses, with fenced roads yards containing flower and vegetable gardens, lined up along concrete roads, Young and Willmott think it is possible that couples who moved out of Bethnal Green may have had somewhat weaker family ties than those who stayed, but the chief decision on who moved was made by the London Country Council, who allocated the nice new homes on the basis za a master list.

6. Data from the interviews with couples who moved to Greenleigh reveal the tremendous influence residence has on family relationships. Before leaving Bethnal Green, the wives had an average of 17.2 contracts with parents or siblings each week. In 1953 soon after moving to Greenleigh, the average had dropped still further to 2.4. For husbands, the numbers were 15.0, 3.8, and 3.3. Husbands were slightly more able to maintain contract with the extended families than were wives, because a few of them worked with family members. Modern transportation allowed workers in Greenleigh to commute to distant jobs, but the twenty miles to Bethnal Green discouraged mothers from helping their daughters, even in times of illness or childbirth.

Write down the sociological terms known to you in Russian

Write a list of sociological terms that you would like to be explained in the text

Use your dictionary to check the exact meaning

Pick out an idea or a phrase, which you think the most informative in each paragraph

Vocabulary notes

1. urban-городской
2. environment-среда
3. borough-город
4. outskirts-окраина
5. survey-обзор

6. couple-пара
7. support-поддержка
8. divorce-развод
9. rare-редкий
10. challenge-вызов
11. tension-напряжение
12. promotion-продвижение
13. available-доступный
14. contain-содержать

Improve your vocabulary

Make the following sentences complete by translating the words and phrases in brackets.

(Супружеские пары) were close to their parents, physically as well as emotionally.

Mothers (выполняют) many important functions for their daughters.

(Данные) from the interviews with couples who moved to Greenleigh (обнаруживать) the tremendous influence residence has on family relationships.

Because a young wife has such a close relationship with Mum (некоторое напряжение), necessarily exists between her mother and her husband.

Typically, the husband becomes (примирять) with his mother-in-law, and he is adsorbed onto her extended family.

Among the 45 Bethnal Green couples who (опрашивать) intensively, only four (отсутствовать) close relatives in the borough.

Find in the text the English equivalents for the following phrases

- городская среда
- жилой район
- расширенная семья
- уровень смертности
- развод
- социологический опрос

- случайная выборка
- уменьшать
- близкие родственники
- оказывать помощь
- получить статус
- хорошие рекомендации

Explain the meanings of the following words and expressions

- to have good records
- interview survey
- death rate
- close relatives
- extended families
- offer aid
- become reconciled
- to maintain contact
- community life

Explain the meanings of the word Family

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------|
| a. primary social group | b. husband and wife |
| c. married couples | d. spouse |

Explain the meanings of the word Extended family

- | | |
|--|-------------------|
| a. married couples | b. nuclear family |
| c. linking members of two or three generations | d. single family |

Who studied family life in two contrasting urban environments?

- | | |
|-------------|------------|
| a. Willmott | b. Cooley |
| c. Horton | d. Parsons |

What are the functions of members of the family the extended family centers?

- | | |
|-------------------------|--------------------|
| a. on the mother | b. on the father |
| c. on the mother-in-law | d. on the children |

What do data from the interviews with couples show?

- a. influence of residence on family relations b. no influence
c. great influence of hard living conditions d. marriage class differentiation

Pick out from the text the words and the word combinations with the following terms. Give their Russian equivalents

Family relations

Kinship relations

Incapable of

Inflict upon

Maintain contact

To commute

Status symbols

Rely on

Define whether the statement:

- A) false B) no information C) true

Married couples were close to their parents, physically

Define whether the statement:

- A) false B) no information C) true

People tend to marry others from their social class, a phenomenon known as class endogamy

Point out the passage of the text that contains the following information:

11.000 families with more than 40.000 members were moved to municipal housing developments. Greenleigh consist of nearly identical little houses, with fenced roads yards containing flower and vegetable gardens, lined up along concrete roads, Young and Willmott think it is possible that couples who moved out of Bethnal Green may have had somewhat weaker family ties than those who stayed.

Point out the passage of the text that contains the following information:

Among 369 married adults whose parents were still alive, fully 54 percent had parents who also lived in Bethnal Green, and parents of a further 17 percent lived in an adjacent borough. Among the 45 Bethnal Green couples who were interviewed intensively, only four lacked close relatives in the borough (not counting parents or cousins). Fully 33 couples had at least five close relatives other than parents, and five couples had more than 30 each.

Point out the passage of the text that contains the following information:

Soon after moving to Greenleigh, the average had dropped still further to 2.4. For husbands, the numbers were 15.0, 3.8, and 3.3. Husbands were slightly more able to maintain contact with the extended families than were wives, because a few of them worked with family members. Modern transportation allowed workers in Greenleigh to commute to distant jobs, but the twenty miles to Bethnal Green discouraged mothers from helping their daughters, even in times of illness or childbirth.

Define the main idea of the text:

- the extended families center on Mother
- the extended family was alive and well
- the extended family does not cut the individual off from the wider community

Speak about other sociological surveys of family relations. Hyper gamy

Elder, Glen H.

Hypergamy is marriage by a lower status woman to a higher status man. Elder suggest it is obvious why a woman might want to do this, because she gain status. But the man loses status unless the woman has exceptional qualities that make the match a good deal for him as well as for her. Elder conceptualizes their choices in term of a marriage market where individuals seek to gain advantage from the individuals with whom they pair up, and in which individuals of the same sex are in competition with each other for the most desirable members of the opposite sex.

Studies had shown that American men rank physical attractiveness near the top in the qualities they want in a wife so a beautiful woman from the lower classes may convince a higher class man to marry her.

Whyte, Martin king

There are competing theories about the effect that extensive dating has on eventual success in marriage. Some people feel that dating is both a learning process and a selection process and gets a woman ready for marriage and helps her find the right mate. Others worry that dates are selected because they give the woman status with her peers, rather than rating men as potential husbands, or that early heavy dating causes a woman to marry before she is ready, or that too much premarital spoils marriage by making it no longer special and thus easy to abandon.

Among women who married recently, very few traditional factors explained the dating experiences they would have. Despite the Catholic Church's conservative toward premarital sex, being Catholic did not delay a young woman's experience of intercourse, for example. The influence of parents appears to be extremely weak, as well. The intimacy revolution is affecting young women of all social classes and subgroups in the population. At the same time, traditional values concerning marriage itself have not changed. In fact, Whyte that premarital sexual activity has no consistent effect on the quality or durability of marriages. Thus. the revolution in dating practices has had little discernible effect on marriage, which remains is most respects quite traditional.

UNIT VI

The Sociology of race relations

Read the text to understand what is of primary importance in it.

1. Despite the number of prominent and talented sociologists and social psychologists who studied white-black race relations over the first two thirds of the twentieth century, McKee says that their work was largely a failure. Most strikingly, they failed to predict the emergence of black activism and race consciousness in the 1960s. However, this was merely an indication of the larger inability of the sociology of race relations to escape the inhibitions imposed by the surrounding white culture and to see the full truth of the black experience in America.

2. At the beginning of the twentieth century, white racism was bolstered by biologists who confidently asserted the innate inferiority of blacks, and sociologists accepted this false opinion. However, anthropologists like Franz Boas challenged this view. Once biologist realized that individuals inherited a very large number of distinct genes from their parents, many of which affected physical characteristics only in degree, the concept of race lost scientific stains within biology.

3. The first generation of American sociologists, who established the discipline in the 1890s and the first two decades after the turn of the century, were not much interested in race. In the 1920s, however, standard textbooks on social problems began to carry chapters on what was then called either "the race problem" or "the Negro problem." For many sociologists, the discredited idea that blacks were biologically inferior was transformed into the equally unflattering notion that they were culturally inferior, perhaps because slavery had destroyed the vestiges of their African cultures. For a long time, sociologists failed to notice the migration of blacks from southern farms to northern factories, and still considered them a rural people. Few sociologists saw any prospect that blacks and whites could ever mingle on an equal footing, and sociology contributed little to progress in civil rights. By the middle of the 1930s, sociology had become the intellectual home for the study of race relations, but it timidly failed to challenge white bigotry. Sociologists accepted the implacable opposition of whites to black assimilation, even as they thought the only hope for blacks was to become gradually more and more similar to whites. Sociologists were extremely cautious, because they wanted the powerful white establishment to accept their discipline as a valid science, so they avoided the question of racial conflict.

4. Through his book, McKee suggests that Robert Park was the only white sociologist who had the insight to understand the real situation of blacks in America, and the foresight to know where race relations were headed in the

twentieth century. Park had been a writer and press agent for the famous black leader, Booker T. Washington, and he brought a deep personal familiarity with blacks to sociology when he began his scholarly career at the University of Chicago at the age of forty-nine in 1913. Among the most influential teachers in the history of sociology, Park worked enthusiastically with black students, and some of them became influential sociologists in their own rights, notably Charles S. Johnson and E. Franklin Frazier. While recognizing that slavery and rural poverty had left many blacks uneducated and unprepared for industrial society, Park was convinced that they were capable of overcoming these disadvantages in a few generations and of becoming the social, economic, and legal equals of white people. Park disdained social reform movements, however, and he alone of prominent sociologists believed that sooner or later blacks would have to fight for their own rights.

5. Before the end of the Civil War, most American blacks were slaves under a system that denied full political rights even to many whites, and in which the legal structures that subordinated blacks were so strong that some aspects of racism, such as racist ideologies and neighborhood residential segregation, had not developed extensively. After the Civil War, southern whites of all classes adopted a variety of strategies to keep blacks down. In the North, business owners often found cheap black labor useful, but white workers were sufficiently powerful to develop racist means to preserve their interests against black competition. The story is complicated, but to a great extent the white ruling class was responsible for suppression of blacks in the Old South, whereas the white working class was responsible for racism in the North. Both of the theories involve overt class conflict. Today, the class structure continues to be responsible for the poverty of many blacks, but no longer through obvious conflict in which classes pursue their selfish economic interests by means of racism.

6. In the middle of the twentieth century, legal barriers to black advancement were swept away, and many talented blacks took their rightful places in the professions, public service, and business. Seeking opportunities in the industrial North, large numbers of blacks have migrated to central areas of the great northern cities. But fundamental economic and technological changes removed many of the opportunities previously enjoyed by the white working class, either shifting jobs geographically outside the central cities or requiring much higher educational credentials for employment. This transformation, combined with rapidly increasing populations of teenage African Americans, greatly magnified youth unemployment with all the social problems that naturally follow, such as poor preparation for adult jobs and crime. Large portions of many cities have fallen into a state of perpetual social and economic crisis. The jobs that are available often do not pay enough for survival, and good performance in them does not lead to better employment. Many, of those who do

not fall into despair turn to crime, and the result is a demoralized underclass from which few can escape.

Write down the sociological terms, known to you in Russian.

Write a list of sociological terms that you would like to be explained in the text.

Use your dictionary to check their exact meaning

Pick out an idea or a phrase, which you think to be the most informative in each paragraph

Vocabulary Notes

Prominent-выдающийся

Failure-провал

Emergence-срочность

Inhibitions-сдерживание,подавление

Bolster-поддерживать

Inferior-подчинённый

Mingle-смешивать

Challenge-вызов

Bigotry-фанатизм

Implacable -непримиримый

Disdain-презирать

Improve your vocabulary

Make the following sentences complete by translating the words or phrases in brackets.

1. They failed (предвидеть) the emergence of black activism and race consciousness in the 1960s.

2. American sociologists (основали) the discipline in the 1890s and the first two decades after the turn of the century.

3. (Долгое время) sociologists failed to notice the migration of blacks from southern farms to northern factories, and still considered

4. Sociologists were extremely (осторожны) because they wanted the powerful white establishment to accept their discipline as a valid science, so they avoided the question of racial conflict.

5. After the Civil War, southern whites of all classes (приняли) a variety of strategies to keep blacks down.

6. The jobs that are available often do not pay enough for (выживания), and good performance in them does not lead to better employment.

Find in the text the English equivalents for the following words phrases

- выдающийся
- отношения
- провал
- прогнозировать
- запрет
- избежать
- внести вклад
- понятие
- осторожный
- принять
- бросить вызов
- поколение
- смешиваться
- фанатизм

Explain the meanings of the following words and expressions

- to be a failure
- race relations
- to escape the inhibitions
- black experience
- to be bolstered
- the discredited idea
- to be biologically inferior
- civil rights
- white bigotry
- to recognize the slavery
- racial conflict

Explain the meaning of the phrase racial conflict

- a. agreement
- b. arguments
- c. inhibitions
- d. racial intolerance

Who was the first to raise the problem of racial conflicts?

- a. McKee
- b. R. Park
- c. Ch. Johnson
- d. E.F. Frazier

What did the sociological research show?

- a. white-black relations failure
- b. no race conflict
- c. opposition of whites to black assimilation
- d. black people can become equal to whites.

Did any sociologists seem mingling on an equal footing?

- a. everybody
- b. few
- c. many
- d. nobody

Pick out from the text all the word combinations with the following words and give their Russian equivalents

- sociologist
- relations
- activism
- culture
- home
- equals

Define whether the statement:

- a. false
- b. no information
- c. true

Park had been a writer and press agent for the famous black leader, Booker T. Washington, and he brought a deep personal familiarity with blacks to sociology when he began his scholarly career at the University of Chicago at the age of forty-nine in 1913.

Point out the passage from the text that contains the following information

Park worked enthusiastically with black students, and some of them became influential sociologists in their own rights, notably Charles S. Johnson and E. Franklin Frazier. While recognizing that slavery and rural poverty had left many blacks uneducated and unprepared for industrial society, Park was convinced that they were capable of overcoming these disadvantages in a few generations and of becoming the social, economic, and legal equals of white people. Park disdained social reform movements, however, and he alone of prominent sociologists believed that sooner or later blacks would have to fight for their own rights.

Point out the passage from the text that contains the following information

After the Civil War, southern whites of all classes adopted a variety of strategies to keep blacks down. In the North, business owners often found cheap black labor useful, but white workers were sufficiently powerful to develop racist means to preserve their interests against black competition. The story is complicated, but to a great extent the white ruling class was responsible for suppression of blacks in the Old South, whereas the white working class was responsible for racism in the North. Both of the theories involve overt class conflict. Today, the class structure continues to be responsible for the poverty of many blacks, but no longer through obvious conflict in which classes pursue their selfish economic interests by means of racism.

Point out the passage from the text that contains the following information

The fundamental economic and technological changes removed many of the opportunities previously enjoyed by the white working class, either shifting jobs geographically outside the central cities or requiring much higher educational credentials for employment. This transformation, combined with rapidly increasing populations of teenage African Americans, greatly magnified youth unemployment with all the social problems that naturally follow, such as poor preparation for adult jobs and crime. Large portions of many cities have fallen into a state of perpetual social and economic crisis. The jobs that are available often do not pay enough for survival, and good performance in them does not lead to better employment. Many, of those who do not fall into despair turn to crime, and the result is a demoralized underclass from which few can escape.

Define the main idea of the text

- The fundamental economic and technological changes removed many of the opportunities previously enjoyed by the white working class
- The blacks were biologically inferior and was transformed into the equally unflattering- notion that they were culturally inferior, perhaps because slavery had destroyed the vestiges of their African cultures.
- Today, the class structure continues to be responsible for the poverty of many blacks, but no longer through obvious conflict in which classes pursue their selfish economic interests by means of racism.

Speak about Suttles, Gerald D. who investigated other national races

Suttles, Gerald D.

The Social Order of the Slum

Here we will use "African" to stress the comparability of all four groups.) Early in the twentieth century, the population was largely Irish, but Italians entered and gradually became dominant. Now the Italians are under great pressure from groups that have only begun to enter and from forces of development in the larger city that are beyond their control. On the west, a vast medical center cut them off from the Italian section called "Western Avenue," and on the east, a new campus of the University Illinois was constructed despite their opposition. Mexicans and Puerto Ricans filtered in and sought an accommodation with the Italians. The Italians could not prevent construction of the Jane Addams Projects, predominantly African low-income housing that the Italians considered a direct attack by the federal government on their own way of life.

Suttles notes that people who live in a particular area need to develop a moral order, or they will fall into conflict. The Addams area was a poor slum, with the usual high rates of crime, so outsiders were suspicious of its residents. But the residents had every reason to be suspicious of each other. The chief basis of trust was close personal relationships, but far too many people lived in the area for an individual to know personally more than a tiny fraction of them. To some extent small social clubs (which outsiders considered to be gangs) provided a sense of predictability, because a resident could know what to expect from members of a club even if he or she did not know the individual members. Further coherence was provided by fairly division. This was most clear for the Italians, among whom young men and women were strictly separated, a quarter were Mexican, 17 percent were African, and 8 percent were Puerto Rican. Each group had its own language patterns, including special words, Intonations, and gestures when speaking English. Social relations within

were enhanced by these special understandings. Members of one ethnicity could not comprehend the speech and gesture nuances of others and this lack of mutual comprehension was a serious handicap to social relations. For example, the Africans felt it was impolite to look directly into a stranger's face, whereas the Italians felt it was impolite not to.

The groups expressed their distinctiveness through varying clothing styles, Only an Italian man would have been seen on the Streets wearing just a sleeveless undershirt above his waist, and only the Africans wore Ivy league jackets. Because the housing project gave the Africans no opportunity to express their individuality through remodeling their residences, as many Italians had done, the younger Africans turned to short lasting clothing and hairstyle fads, which only made the conservative Italians more suspicious to them. The ethnic groups differed even in the ways they moved their bodies when they walked.

COMMENTARY TEXTS

Comment on the text in Russian

STARTING WITH A FRAMEWORK

To resolve a specific ethical dilemma you must employ some workable framework to the issue. You can, of course, develop your own based on priorities and values in your situation or you can use one of the models of the above-mentioned systems. The model I favor is one developed by Terry L. Cooper which takes a discovery approach. This method links the “how to do it” with the “how it should be done.”

In Cooper’s model, the first line of ethical investigation into a dilemma concerns an objective description of the facts of the situation. “this might include,” he writes in his book *“The Responsible Administrator”*, such elements as identification of the key actors, the viewpoints of each, the issues, the sequence of events, and the risks involved”. After this descriptive portion of the process, which Cooper recommends we describe with “more than the influence of our gut reactions”, we move to the discovery) process.

The first portion of this process involves identifying alternative courses of action, and the second asks us to project the probable consequences of those actions into the future. Be wary of viewing the alternatives in either/or terms. “It is rare”, Cooper writes, “that any ethical issue has only two or even three possible solutions”. Sometimes the “solution” is an amalgam of various alternatives. For this methodology to succeed, it’s necessary for you to envision as many alternatives as possible. If an alternative is conceivable, list it.

Comment on the text in English

ОПРЕДЕЛЕНИЕ РАМОК

Для решения конкретной моральной дилеммы необходимо определить рабочие рамки вопроса. Конечно, можно создать собственные критерии, основываясь на приоритетах и ценностях в конкретной ситуации, либо воспользоваться моделями указанных выше систем. Я больше склоняюсь к модели, предложенной Терри Купером, которая предполагает исследовательский подход. Этот метод сочетает в себе и то, как решить проблему, и то, как следует ее решать.

В модели Купера, на первом уровне решения моральной дилеммы находится объективное описание фактов ситуации. «Это может включать в себя, - пишет он в своей книге «Ответственный руководитель», - такие элементы, как определение основных участников, точки зрения каждого из них, проблемных вопросов, последовательности событий и существующих рисков». После завершения описательной стадии, которую Купер рекомендует проводить, не поддаваясь внутренним реакциям, переходим к процессу исследования.

Первая часть этого процесса включает определение альтернативных способов действия, а вторая – анализ возможных последствия таких действий в будущем. Рассматривая альтернативные решения, нужно быть осторожным. «Нравственная проблема, - пишет Купер, - редко имеет только два или три решения». Иногда «решение» - это сочетание различных вариантов. Чтобы этот метод привел к успеху, необходимо рассмотреть как можно больше вариантов. Если вариант реален, учитывайте его.

Comment on the text in Russian

WOMEN'S MORAL PERSPECTIVE

One important issue to address is whether or not there is any difference in the way men and woman view ethical resolutions. Some research supports a major difference in the genders for moral development. Carol Gilligan of the Harvard Center for Moral Education, for example, believes when Kohlberg developed his moral philosophy he excluded and neglected important factors in the feminine perspective of morality.

Kohlberg, for example, characteristically classifies women at Stage Three of moral development indicating that they get to that stage earlier and stay there longer, while men go on to theoretically higher and more abstract stages. Gilligan suggests that the reason isn't related to intelligence or inferiority, but to a different perspective.

Gilligan emphasizes that given women's sociological roles as nurturers and caregivers, they tend to see personal relationships as vitally important and may view morality as the avoidance of hurting others. She describes women's moral stage development in a traditional phase concept with individuals moving from egocentric stages to society-oriented stages to a universal viewpoint.

In Gilligan's model, women's moral judgment proceeds from a focus on the self, at the first level, to the discovery of responsibility, in moving to the second level, as the basis for a new relationship with others. As one moves to the third stage, a crisis occurs. This is the development of independence or giving importance to one's own needs. The difficulty in reaching this step is due to the ideal we learned of feminine virtue; this ideal emphasized that it is only to others that we are obligated to give more moral care.

Comment on the text in English

ЖЕНСКОЕ ПРЕДСТАВЛЕНИЕ О ПРАВСТВЕННОСТИ

Важным является вопрос, есть ли различия во взглядах мужчин и женщин на решение нравственных проблем. Одно из исследований доказывает наличие больших различий между полами в нравственном развитии. Например, Кэрол Гиллиган, специалист Гарвардского Центра нравственного образования, считает, что Кольберг создавая свою философию нравственности, исключил и пренебрег важными факторами женского представления о нравственности.

Кольберг, например, указывает, что женщины раньше мужчин переходят на третью стадию нравственного развития и находятся на этой стадии дольше, в то время как мужчины переходят дальше на более высокие в теоретическом плане и более абстрактные стадии. Гиллиган предполагает, что причины этого не связаны с уровнем умственного развития или неполноценностью, а кроются в другом.

Гиллиган особо подчеркивает, что вследствие своей социальной роли воспитателей и опекунов, женщины считают жизненно важным межличностные отношения, и могут рассматривать нравственность как непричинение вреда окружающим. Она описывает нравственное развитие женщин с помощью традиционной концепции уровней, согласно которой человек развивается от стадии эгоцентричности до стадии общественной ориентации и универсальных точек зрения.

Согласно модели Гиллиган, нравственные суждения женщин развиваются от концентрации на самой себе на первом уровне, к сознанию ответственности при перемещении на второй уровень, как основе для новых отношений с окружающими. При переходе на третью стадию, возникает кризис. Здесь происходит развитие независимости и придания значения собственным нуждам. Трудность перехода на этот уровень связана с принятым идеалом женской добродетели. Этот идеал подчеркивает, что женщина обязана проявлять нравственную заботу об окружающих.

Comment on the text in Russian

The moral imperative that emerges repeatedly in the women's interviews is an injunction to care, a responsibility to discern and alleviate the 'real and recognizable trouble' of this world. For the men Kohlberg studied, the moral imperative appeared rather an injunction to respect the rights of others and thus to protect from interference the right to life and self-fulfillment.

This differing and fuller perspective of resolving moral questions is an advantage to women. Their ability to care about others; and to view social justice in terms of social reality and not as an abstract concept brings fuller meaning to a resolution of dilemmas. Working the moral process also expands our thinking. It increases! our alternatives, gives us more opportunities to question and brings clarity to the values we hold.

As public figures elected to represent others, we need to develop! a moral philosophy and process to deal with the many critical situations we'll face. Ethics is not abstract; it is a living, breathing, everyday process sometimes camouflaged by other issues, but always evident. As public officials, we're doubly bound to act responsibly for ourselves as well as others. Developing our own framework to resolve moral dilemmas is an overwhelming necessity. Without one, we could easily discover there's no accountability, only laws which bind our behaviors and allow us to dance "a little sidestep."!

Comment on the text in English

Моральный императив, постоянно проявляющийся в беседах с женщинами - это стремление к заботе, ответственность за то, чтобы распознать и облегчить реальные беды этого мира. По Кольбергу, нравственный императив мужчин проявляется скорее как стремление к уважению прав окружающих и, таким образом, к защите права на жизнь и самореализацию.

Эти различия к подходу к решению нравственных проблем дают преимущество женщинам. Их способность проявлять заботу об окружающих и рассматривать социальную справедливость как реальность, а не как абстрактное понятие, имеет большее значение при разрешении моральных дилемм. Работа над решением нравственных проблем развивает наше мышление. Она увеличивает количество вариантов, предоставляя больше возможностей для решения вопроса, и вносит ясность в те ценности, которых мы придерживаемся.

Как публичные люди, избранные, чтобы представлять других, мы должны развивать нравственную философию и разрешать множество критических ситуаций, с которыми мы сталкиваемся. Нравственность - не абстрактное понятие. Это живой, дышащий, непрерывный процесс, иногда скрытый иными вопросами, но всегда очевидный. Как государственные служащие, мы обязаны действовать вдвойне ответственно по отношению к себе и окружающим. Развитие собственных способов разрешения моральных дилемм - колоссальная необходимость. Без них, мы легко потеряем чувство ответственности, для нас будут существовать лишь законы, ограничивающие наше поведение, и позволяющие нам слегка уклоняться от них.

Comment on the text in Russian

SYSTEMS OF ETHICAL PRACTICE

There are various schools of thought on ethics and how one should practice it in everyday life. Historically, emotivism, which stresses the primary role of the emotions in ethics, has had a great following. Its primary asset is that it demonstrates sensitivity to feelings through moral insight as a beginning of the process into ethical analysis. Its deficiencies far outweigh its assets. This theory falls down because personal values felt in the heart or gut cannot be submitted to rational analysis. Emotivism has an anti-intellectual focus dependent on relativism and subjectivism and cannot be relied on by itself to provide good decision making.

Legalism, as an ethical methodology, focuses on the law and equates morality to adherence to the law. Established customs and standards of behavior are regarded as synonymous with the extent of an individual's morality. While laws do represent insight into collective wisdom, identify important values and acknowledge the proper role of authority, society's laws are too broad and general in scope to provide specific insight into resolving ethical dilemmas. Ethics laws don't provide, for example, answers where values are in conflict.

Comment on the text in English

Такая научная школа, как ситуационализм, стремится определить способы решения каждой конкретной дилеммы, как требующей понимания того, что следует сделать для ее решения. Этот подход, популярный сегодня, не отвергает законы или разум, но также рассматривает каждую ситуацию как имеющую собственное значимое решение. Хотя эта теория учитывает уникальность каждой моральной дилеммы, она содержит в себе мысль о невозможности нравственной рефлексии. В действительности, нравственное поведение требует большего от самого человека.

Самая популярная на сегодняшний день теория, консеквенциализм, указывает, что все предпринимаемые нами действия имеют кратковременные и долговременные последствия. Консеквенциализм подразумевает, что мы проецируем наши действия на будущее, и думаем о последствиях. Хотя он и раскрывает вопроса в полной мере, он выделяет несколько важных суждений. Одним из главных недостатков этой системы является то, что одни лишь последствия не могут быть барометром наших действий. Ее исключительность не позволяет человеку рассматривать иные ресурсы. С другой стороны, наши сегодняшние действия имеют последствия в будущем, и эта теория предлагает и ставит это утверждение в центр внимания.

Comment on the text in Russian

FINDING A MORAL ALTERNATIVE

Resolution is reached when an alternative is discovered which satisfies both the need to have sound reasons for one's conduct and the need to feel satisfied with the decision. Since an alternative is rarely available which is supremely rational and provides the most complete emotional satisfaction, resolution is ordinarily an approximate state.

The basic process in any ethical dilemma is to resolve competing values. An ethical dilemma is a conflict between two important concepts. In summary, here are some guidelines you can follow to resolve a conflict:

Descriptive Stage:

- Look at each dilemma in terms of its legal, organizational and political context, in other words, the total environment.
- Try to see the dilemma through the different points of views of your constituents, the media, your colleagues and supporters.
- Think about the values these groups ascribe to each point of view.

Comment on the text in English

Стадия исследования

- Определите ваши ценности в данном конфликте.
- Опишите альтернативные варианты или общие модели поведения при решении данной проблемы.

- Опишите соответствующие последствия и структуру ценностей каждой модели поведения.

- Проанализируйте каждый вариант.

Стадия разрешения

- Выберите вариант, который в наибольшей степени согласуется с вашими ценностями и позволяет разрешить дилемму.

Согласно методологии Купера, можно составить матрицу с перечислением различных моделей поведения, положительных и отрицательных последствий каждого действия и ценностей, не затронутых при выполнении этих действий.

Рассмотрим политика, столкнувшегося с моральной дилеммой. Ей предстоит проголосовать по вопросу, по которому многие ее избиратели выступают резко против: одобрение или поддержка строительства завода по переработке токсичного мусора. Изучив обе точки зрения по данному вопросу, она пришла к убеждению, что строительство завода будет иметь долгосрочные положительные последствия для ее избирателей и окружающей среды. Многие ее избиратели выступают активно и организованно против строительства завода. Они планируют добиться судебного запрета на строительство, если проект будет одобрен. Возможные варианты разрешения данной дилеммы и действия, которые она может предпринять, приведены в Таблице 2. Вероятно, существуют и другие модели поведения, но для краткости и в качестве описания данного метода важна общая идея.

Comment on the text in Russian

SPECULATING MORAL PROBLEMS

To some the word "politician" is synonymous with dishonesty. Polls bear out that the American public has little respect for politicians. They earn an even lower rating for their credibility. In one recent survey they ranked below lawyers and stockbrokers. While scandals abound and some politicians have been caught with their hand in the cookie jar, it is unfortunate when public service is perceived in such a disparaging manner.

Are politicians any more devoid of ethics and codes of behavior than others? Politicians are probably no more lacking in ethical behavior than other professionals, but there are at least three qualifying concerns for the perception that they are: First, they are in highly visible positions where every action can be more easily scrutinized by the public and is; second, temptations to commit unethical acts are greater because of the power inherent in the political system; and last, they might not have a truly competent procedure to resolve ethical dilemmas. Certainly, these issues don't diminish the need for politicians to adhere to ethical, above-board behavior and decision making. Public service demands it.

Comment on the text in English

С какими проблемами и трудностями нравственного поведения сталкиваются политики? Решать такие важные вопросы, как качество жизни, отношение к еще не рожденным детям, к пожилым, даже снижение расходов бюджета и, тем самым, отказ нуждающимся, должно быть тяжело. Где провести черту и как преодолеть подобные конфликты?

А каким образом разрешить проблемы этики в повседневной жизни избранных или назначенных на государственную службу? Что происходит, например, если политики не могут морально согласиться со своими избирателями? Поступают ли они «правильно» и сталкиваются с предсказуемым поражением на следующих выборах?

Before you start read the following

Composition and essay are both translated into Russian as «сочинение» but there is a distinction between them. A composition is fairly short (1 – 3 pages) and simple. Compositions may be written by students as long as they are capable of writing only on simple narrative or descriptive subjects.

An essay is usually longer (may be up to 20 pages). It expresses ideas, as opposed to simply telling a story or describing something, though it may also be narrative or descriptive. An essay should have some literary merit. Essays are usually written by those who have sufficiently mastered the language to be able to express their ideas in it.

If you choose a topic for an essay, plan carefully before you write. First of all try to explain what the statement means to you. A simple explanation in your own words will help to clarify the issue in your mind. The best approach to plan an essay is to make a list of points, in note form, which you want to include.

There should be an introduction. Plan an opening paragraph that will express your approach. It may be a clear statement of your understanding the point; some illustration of the point or even an expression of disagreement. Whichever you choose, the opening paragraph should lead logically into the body of the essay.

Plan the ideas for the succeeding paragraphs. Do not forget that each paragraph develops the idea one step further. Pay special attention to the logical linking of clauses and sentences.

All points are put in logical order of importance, with quotations if necessary.

Plan a conclusion which brings together the ideas of the essay and represents some kind of resolution of the conflicting arguments.

A **paragraph** is a piece of writing which consists of a number of closely related sentences developing one idea. A well-written paragraph should display three features: unity, balanced length and balanced structure.

Unity means that the paragraph deals with one topic only, which may be expressed in the topic sentence opening the paragraph. In further sentences the topic is developed and is logically brought to the last sentence which sums up the ideas.

Balanced structure means that each sentence must lead to the following one and all must be linked up. All sentences should be arranged in a clear logical order. If the paragraph itself is a part of a larger unit, it must show some references to the preceding or following paragraphs. To provide this there may be linking sentences. They either take up the thread of previous paragraphs or state the theme for the following paragraphs.

In writing it is very important to observe correct **punctuation marks**.

A full stop is put:

- 1) at the end of sentences;
- 2) in decimals (e.g. 3.5 – three point five).

A comma separates:

- 1) homogeneous parts of the sentence if there are more than three members (e. g. I saw a house, a garden, and a car);
- 2) parentheses (e.g. The story, to put it mildly, is not nice);
- 3) Nominative Absolute Constructions (e.g. The play over, the audience left the hall);
- 4) appositions (e.g. Byron, one of the greatest English poets, was born in 1788);
- 5) interjections (e.g. Oh, you are right!);
- 6) coordinate clauses joined by *and, but, or, nor, for, while, whereas*, etc. (e.g. The speaker was disappointed, but the audience was pleased);
- 7) Attributive clauses in complex sentences if they are commenting (e.g. The Thames, which runs through London, is quite slow Compare with a defining clause where no comma is needed – The river that/which runs through London is quite slow);
- 8) adverbial clauses introduced by *if, when, because, though*, etc. (e.g. If it is true, we are having good luck);
- 9) inverted clauses (e.g. hardly had she entered, they fired questions at her);
- 10) in whole numbers (e.g. 25, 500 – twenty five thousand five hundred).

Object clauses are not separated by commas (e.g. He asked what he should do).

A colon is put:

- 1) before an enumeration (e.g. The reasons are as follows: we haven't prepared well enough, the circumstances are unfavorable and there is no help);
- 2) between clauses when the second clause is an explanation or an extension of the first one (e.g. Some things we can, and others we cannot do:

we can walk, but we cannot fly);

3) before a short quotation (e.g. Always remember the ancient maxim: Know thyself).

A semicolon is put:

1) between asyndetic coordinate clauses in complex sentences (e.g. He was the only guest present who had never met her; he decided that matters would be easier if he walked up and introduced himself);

2) between extended homogeneous parts of the sentence, particularly if there are other punctuation marks within them (e.g. I thought that we had to act quickly; that we had to do something, to get the information).

A dash has the force of a strong comma; it marks sharper breaks in the continuity and achieves more definite effects of suspense than the comma.

A dash is put:

1) to mark a sharp or sudden turn in the thought or structure of a sentence, or an afterthought (e.g. But Anne – well, Anne was Anne – seemed not to notice);

2) to separate a parenthetical expression from the main clause (e.g. Here she is perhaps at her best – and in the best sense – as a woman sympathizing with the sorrows peculiar to women);

Commas or brackets may also set off a parenthetical expression. The choice depends on several factors. If the parenthetical expression is relatively distant from the centre of the communication, one should prefer the brackets; if relatively near, the comma; if intermediate, the dash;

3) to set off a word or words summarizing a preceding series (e.g. Ups and downs, joys and sorrows – this is human life);

4) to set off a word or words intended to effect suspense, climax, or anticlimax (e.g. No pains – no gains); 5) to mark an unfinished sentence (e.g. “He did not lie, he ... ” “Yes, what?”).

A **reproduction** is a way of rendering a text as close to the original as possible. Preparing the students for a reproduction, the teacher gives them new words and phrases from the text and explains their meanings. They may be written on the blackboard or distributed on cards. The text may be read by the teacher or by the announcer if it is recorded. The students should listen to the text once or twice, and then write the gist of it trying to use the wording of the original. The main goal of writing reproductions is memory training.

RESEARCH TALKS

Supplementary Material

STRATIFICATION

- a. Single out the most important facts from the text and present them in a synopsis In Russian
- b. Sum up the text and present your summary in English.
- c. Discuss your summary with your partner in English.

Stratification is the characteristic of a society that is divided into different social classes or socio-economic strata (layers). The term is also used widely to refer to individual inequality in a society, regardless of whether distinct classes exist. A chief mechanism sustaining stratification in modern societies is the occupational structure, which assigns people to different work position that possesses varying income and influence. However much stratification benefits the rich and powerful, or even benefits the society as a whole, it penalizes the poor and powerless, often in unexpected ways.

In an influential theoretical essay, Kingsley Davis and Wilbert Moore argued that a system of stratification serves important functions for the society as a whole, by motivating talented individuals to play the roles that are crucial to the society's survival. James Coleman argued that a community's norms, values, and social stability provide the basis for individual achievement, Functionalist sociologists—like Davis, Moore, and to some extent Coleman believe that stratification is necessary for the proper operation of a society, In contrast, critical sociologists generally argue that many aspects of stratification are arbitrary and merely serve the desires for wealth and power of a minority of people.

C. Wright Mills criticized the assumption that American society is based on equal opportunity and democracy. Instead, he argued, a small class of men called the power elite makes the important decisions. Randall Collins says that the American educational system is largely a scheme to grab power for highly educated people, even though the knowledge and skills taught in higher education are largely useless. Barbara Reskin says that women face an uphill fight in their struggle for income equality, because men have a variety of tactics to preserve their privileges.

Other sociologists have been neither functionalist nor critical but empirical, developing careful research methodologies for measuring the nature and consequences of stratification. The work of Peter Blau and Otis Duncan on occupational mobility was tremendously influential upon several

branches of sociology, in part because it demonstrated statistical methods of analysis that could be employed in a variety of studies, as well as engaging issues of great theoretical significance. Similarly, the study by August Hollingshead and Frederick Redlich on social class and mental illness stimulated many later research projects.

Struggle to change or preserve the stratification system is at the heart of many political debates, and thus it is difficult to prevent the sociology of stratification from becoming politicized. For example, functionalist theorists are generally considered politically conservative, whereas critical theorists are liberal or radical. Perhaps the safest course is to draw intellectual stimulation from theorists who seem to write from both ends of the political spectrum, but be cautious in making policy conclusions about areas in which reliable, systematic research has either not been done, or if it has, has not reached a consensus.

Some Principles of Stratification,

- a. Single out the most important principles from the text and present them in a synopsis In Russian
- b. Sum up the text and present your summary in English.
- c. Discuss your summary with your partner in English.

Davis and Moore note that all societies are stratified, so they look for the "universal necessity" that creates social inequality in any social system. They approach this question as functionalists, asking what "functional necessity" stratification serves for the society. They suggest that each society has a number of important roles to be filled, each performing a vital task. The society needs to attract able, energetic people to these roles and commit them to the duties of these roles. Stratification accomplishes this, because it offers rewards to induce good people to enter the roles, distributing the rewards across the positions in society so that the most important ones have greater rewards, and the less important ones, lesser rewards. The society must see to it that unimportant roles do not receive high rewards, or good people will be attracted to them, away from the essential roles that must be played well if the society is to survive and prosper.

Four societal sectors have especially important roles: religion, government, economy, and technology. The functional significance of religion is that it supports the ultimate values upon which the society is based, and binds the individual members of society to these values through its rituals and beliefs. Government organizes the society through the laws it enforces, the authority it imposes over institutions, and the defense it maintains against other societies. In economic institutions, wealth flows to the positions that have high status because of their importance to the society. In

technology, people with high technical skills gain fairly high rewards, but people with technical knowledge do not become very powerful, because their skills are concerned only with means to attain various goals, and the three other sectors actually integrate the goals themselves. Societies vary in the degree to which the roles are specialized, which of the sectors gets the greatest emphasis, and in other ways. Therefore they also differ in the details of their stratification systems. But in all societies, stratification results from the need to attract the best efforts good people to the key roles in religion, government, economy, and technology.

Social Capital in the Creation of Human Capital

- a. Single out the most important facts from the text and present them in a synopsis In Russian
- b. Sum up the text and present your summary in English.
- c. Discuss your summary with your partner in English.

Coleman attempted to bring sociology and economics together in a perspective called Rational Choice Theory. In this influential essay, he applied the economic concept of *capital*, investments or possessions devoted to production and to generating income, to aspects of the society surrounding the individual. Coleman's colleague at the University of Chicago, economist Garv Becker, had already used the term *human capital* to describe attributes a person can acquire that increase his or her capacity to earn income, the chief example being education. In addition to being a sociological theorist, Coleman was a sociologist of education. In this essay, he discussed social factors that assist an individual in acquiring education, thus indirectly giving the person a higher income. Individuals differ in the value of their human capital (e.g., in their educations), and this fact is a chief reason why individuals are distributed as they are in the stratification system. Social capital affects stratification in part by assisting individuals in certain social environments in gaining greater human capital.

The term *social capital* could be applied to many social possessions of the individual. For example, having influential friends can help the individual get a good job. However, Coleman focuses on rather more abstract kinds of social capital that are not directly connected to the individual. One is being immersed in a community where people are trustworthy, fulfilling their obligations and meeting expectations. Another is having a widespread social network that serves to transmit valuable information. And a third is a set of success-oriented community norms and effective sanctions to enforce them. Among the kinds of social structure that facilitate social capital are relatively closed social networks and social organizations that can be put to a

variety of fresh uses. A family or neighborhood with strong social capital is better able to keep young people in school and motivate them to get good educations.

Coleman finds these kinds of social capital especially interesting because they are typically *public goods*. This term refers to valuable things from which many people can benefit without having to contribute. For example, a neighborhood watch organization can prevent crime even for the residents who do not participate in it. Therefore, a community faces a serious challenge in motivating individuals to contribute, but if it succeeds in building social capital, its members will be at an advantage in the larger stratification system surrounding the community. Often very elaborate institutions are required to create and sustain public goods. Coleman presents data showing that the school dropout rate is much lower from religious private schools (chiefly but not exclusively Catholic) than from public schools and from non-religious private schools. At the end of his essay, Coleman comments that strong families and neighborhoods are less common now than in the past, and thus the society faces an increasingly more difficult challenge creating human capital.

The Power Elite

- a. Single out the most important facts from the text and present them in a synopsis In Russian
- b. Sum up the text and present your summary in English.
- c. Discuss your summary with your partner in English.

Mills argues that a national *power elite* has emerged at the pinnacle of American society, a network of men who make whatever major decisions are to be made. Although they have some awareness of their group interests and share many assumptions with each other, they are not exactly what other writers mean by a ruling class. They are not entirely distinct from the larger elites from which they draw their personnel, and their power comes from their position in specific American institutions rather than simply from wealth and prestige. The power elite is psychologically unified because it is composed of men with similar elite origins and educations, socially unified because the men in the national corporations form a close-knit social network, and organizationally unified because men in key positions link corporations with government agencies and coordinate their actions.

Mills disagrees with two viewpoints on the power elite. People who look from a distance at the great events and apparently pivotal decisions of recent history sometimes conclude that the power elite is a conscious conspiracy that wields great power to make these events happen. Others who are close enough to the elite to hear what its members say doubt they

have much power but are simply coping as best they can with larger social and economic forces over which they have little control.

In ancient days, the institutions of family and religion held great power, but their influence has declined greatly. Some people imagine that education and science have gained great influence, but Mills doubts this. Instead, he says, three great institutions had come to dominate American society by the middle of the twentieth century: economic corporations, the military domain, and the political directorate. The other institutions are subservient.

Decades earlier, each city had its own local elite, for example the people listed in the *Social Register*, who derived their status from ownership of major local corporations or real estate. But nation-wide hierarchies of power and wealth emerged. Communications technologies permitted the development of a national stratum of celebrities, including sports and television stars who often attached themselves to the power elite. Central to the whole system are the very rich. In the fifty years after the Civil War, men became rich often by cheating investors and using illegal or immoral tactics against competitors, and Mills thinks this has continued. Although technology creates wealth, inventors do not get rich; instead, business operators exploit inventions for their own gain. Often, businessmen become wealthy by getting government contracts or other special favors. War has been a great stimulus to industry, thus enriching those able to take advantage of it. As an industry matures, the number of companies decreases through mergers and bankruptcies until only a few big corporations remain, concentrating their power in the hands of a few owners and executives. The very rich are able to accumulate advantages of many kinds to get and stay on top.

The Credential Society: An Historical Sociology of Education.

- a. Single out the most important facts from the text and present them in a synopsis In Russian
- b. Sum up the text and present your summary in English.
- c. Discuss your summary with your partner in English.

It is widely assumed that education is the ticket to success in modern society, and the single variable that best predicts occupational status is the amount of education people have received. Collins argues this is true not because education actually prepares people for the technical challenges of work but because universities have succeeded in convincing government and industry to demand educational credentials of employees. The result is a system in which educators and highly educated people throughout the economy unfairly obtain sinecures where they collect high salaries at little effort, while making little real contribution to the society.

The importance of education had increased dramatically over the century before Collins wrote, until it had become central to the stratification system. In 1870, just 2.0 percent of Americans age 17 had graduated from high school, whereas in 1970 the proportion was 76.5 percent. From 1870 to 1970, the proportion of the 18-21 year-old population in college rose from 1.7 percent to 21.1 percent. Collins's book documents in detail how particular professions (chiefly medicine and law) come to be powerful monopolies based on educational credentials, and how the colleges of America reinvented themselves to become bloated organizations with tremendous unearned influence over the stratification system.

The demand for high educational credentials is supported by a technocratic ideology that asserts important jobs in modern society require specialized technical knowledge and that this knowledge must be obtained through formal education in universities and professional schools. Collins calls this ideology "hot air," saying that most higher education does not in fact prepare people to perform better even in most technical occupations. He agrees that the schools contribute greatly to economic productivity by ensuring that most citizens can read, write, and do arithmetic, but he cites much research evidence that schools are a very inefficient place to learn other skills. Manager and professionals learn most of the skills that are critical for their work on the job, through direct experience. The degrees and professional certificates they hold are of benefit to them chiefly by backing up their claims for high salaries and helping them limit competition from people who are equally well ppared to do their jobs but lack these credentials.

Several studies have found that school grades are very poor predictors of occupational performance in later years, except for students with the very high grades often needed to get into elite professional schools. This is true even for professions that the technocratic ideology claims required very stringent high-level training, such as medicine and engineering. Although education may contribute little to productive labor, it can be a valuable asset for people who primarily practice political labor. *Productive labor* is an actual contribution to the total wealth or well-being of a society. *Political labor*, in contrast, is the socially useless effort of maneuvering for advantage within the power system of an organization, forming alliances and shaping people's perceptions of work so that wealth flows into the hands of the person performing the political labor. In that sense, educational credentials are a tool of value chiefly for parasitic individuals and groups, and the growth of education burdens the society with injustice and inefficiency, rather than being a shining example of progress.

Consequences of stratification

- a. Single out the most important facts from the text and present them in a synopsis In Russian
- b. Sum up the text and present your summary in English.
- c. Discuss your summary with your partner in English.

Hollingshead and Redlich investigated the ways in which social class was related to the occurrence of mental illness and to the treatment that a mentally ill person received. They did this primarily by collecting detailed information about all the mental patients and psychotherapists or psychiatrists in New Haven, Connecticut, in the latter half of 1950. This was a stupendous effort, which required them to do such things as surveying 876 psychiatrists in New York City who might have patients who commuted from New Haven and administering a survey to a random sample of 3,559 New Haven households. Whereas Paris and Dunham (Chapter 5) had been concerned with the social disorganization surrounding mental patients, Hollingshead and Redlich were chiefly interested in social class, and their orientation marked a general departure from the Chicago School throughout sociology in favor of an emphasis on social inequality, an emphasis that has persisted for the remainder of the twentieth century.

The measure of social class was Hollingshead's "Index of Social Position, which built on stratification work by several other researchers. It assumed that the community possessed a class status structure, which was determined by a small number of widely accepted "symbolic characteristics" that could be reliably scaled and combined by statistical procedures. This index combined three different measurement scales:

I. The *residential scale*. Influenced by the "ecological" approach of the Chicago School (Chapter 7), researchers graded New Haven's neighborhoods from the finest to the poorest, on a six-point scale. Each person living in a given neighborhood received the score representing that neighborhood's quality.

II. The *occupational scale*. This was a modification of a system used by the Census Bureau that assigned each person's job to one of seven categories:

- a. executives and proprietors of large concerns, and major professionals
- b. managers and proprietors of medium-sized businesses and lesser professionals
- c. administrative personnel of large concerns, owners of small independent businesses, and semi-professionals
- d. owners of little businesses, clerical and sales workers, and technicians
- e. skilled workers
- f. semiskilled workers
- g. unskilled workers

III. **The educational scale.** This was a seven-point scale from "graduate professional training" down to "less than seven years of school."

Based on statistical analysis of survey data on 552 household Hollingshead developed a mathematical formula for combining the scores on three scales, then dividing the cases into five social classes, which are scribed roughly below (with terms Hollingshead himself did not use):

- The upper class, 2.7 percent of families
- The upper middle class, 9.8 percent of families
- The lower middle class, 18.9 percent of families
- The working class, 48.4 percent of families
- The lower class, 20.2 percent of families

In 1950, psychiatrists and their treatments could be divided into two categories. Analytic-psychological (A-P) psychiatrists applied the new "talking cure" of psychoanalysis that assumed mental illness was the result of subconscious psychological conflicts. Directive-organic (D-O) psychiatrists gave authoritative advice and prescribed sedative medications (or heroic treatments such as electric shock and the brain surgery called lobotomy), and they tended not to be up-to-date in terms of current psychological theories. At the time, psychoanalysis was nearing its peak of popularity among highly educated Americans, and psychiatrists at Yale University in New Haven were usually of the A-P type. In contrast, public mental hospital psychiatrists were usually D-O. The two groups read very different journals and were even of very different ethnic origins; 83 percent of A-P psychiatrists were Jewish (as was Sigmund Freud, the pioneer of psychoanalysis), compared with only 8 percent of the D-O group. Since Hollingshead and Redlich wrote, the A-P approach has lost some of its status in psychiatry, and none of the medications used today as specific treatments for mental illness were available to the D-O doctors of 1950. Thus, the two groups were competing psychiatric subcultures, with the A-P group temporarily enjoying much higher professional status at the time of the study. Interestingly, the A-P doctors studied by Hollingshead and Redlich tended to be upwardly mobile, and the highly successful psychoanalytic movement of their day provided them an effective vehicle for social advancement.

As measured by psychiatric treatment, mental illness was more common among Class V (lower class) residents of New Haven than among members of any other class. In the population as a whole, 18.4 percent of individuals belonged to Class V, compared with 38.2 percent of mental patients. The fraction of a group who entered treatment for the first time in a particular span of time is called the *incidence rate*. From June 1, 1950, until December 1, the incidence rate for classes I and II was 97 per 100,000, whereas for Class V it was 139. Thus, people from the lowest social class were somewhat more likely than those from the upper classes to receive

treatment. *The prevalence rate* is the fraction of a group under treatment at a particular point in time, and it is compounded from the incidence, the rate at which people complete treatment and may be “cured”, and the rate of re-entering treatment for those who had temporarily dropped out. The lowest social class was at a disadvantage in all of these, with higher incidence, higher re-entry to treatment, and lower cure rate than members of higher social classes. Hollingshead and Redlich attributed this difference chiefly to the extraordinary psychological stresses experienced by poor people and the inferior psychiatric treatment available to them. They also examined the *downward drift hypothesis*, that mental illness strikes people at random throughout society and causes them to drop down in the class system, not finding much evidence for this explanation.

Hollingshead and Redlich examined how social class related to different psychiatric diagnoses, such as the distinction between neurosis and psychosis. *Neurosis* refers to mild problems in which the sufferer remains in touch with reality but experiences impaired functioning and distress. Treatment for it is more common among higher class patients, perhaps because they have especially high standards for the quality of life and performance of roles in society, and thus seek treatment when members of lower social classes would not. *Psychosis* refers to serious mental illness, such as schizophrenia, in which the sufferer loses touch with reality and can hardly function in life. The prevalence of treated schizophrenia was 111 per 100,000 in classes I and II, 168 in Class III, 300 in class IV, and fully 895 per 100,000 in Class V. That is, a member of the lowest class was eight times as likely to suffer from schizophrenia as a member of the upper classes.

Not surprisingly, treatment varied by social class. Fully 46.9 percent of neurotics in classes I and II received psychoanalytic treatments, compared with just 4.9 percent of Class V neurotics. In part, this results from the fact that only richer people can afford this form of treatment, but another factor is the social class relationship between doctors and patients. Ninety-five percent of New Haven psychiatrists belonged to Class I, and the remaining 5 percent to Class II. Upper-class doctors have trouble communicating with lower-class patients, and psychoanalysis seemed designed for well-educated patients who were adept at expressing themselves in words and able to understand the aims of therapy. Especially in psychiatric clinics, lower-class patients were more likely to receive directive and organic treatments. Among psychotics, 67.3 percent of patients from classes I and II enjoyed the relative advantages of private mental hospitals, whereas 89.0 percent of Class V patients suffered the lower standard of care in the state hospitals. Possibly as a result, poor patients stayed sicker longer.

The massive research study by Hollingshead and Redlich was the most significant of many such research projects carried out in the 1950s and 1960s

They provided the intellectual support for major campaigns to increase public knowledge and acceptance of psychiatry, and to invest public resources in psychiatric treatment for those who could not otherwise afford it. Subsequent decades saw continuing controversy over the effectiveness of various kinds of treatment and over the proper role of government in providing them. But a deep sociological appreciation of the dynamic relationship between social class and suffering is an enduring legacy of this research.

Glossary

Accumulation: The growth of technology because new things are invented more rapidly than old ones are forgotten.

Adjustment: The process by which the non-technical aspects of a culture respond to invention.

Alienation: Lack of trust in government leaders coupled with the feeling that it is not possible to influence their decisions.

Analogical imagination: A way of thinking supposedly common among Catholics that assumes God is present in the world, expressing Himself through every aspect of creation, and that stresses the community rather than the individual.

Anomie: A state of normlessness in which the society fails to provide a coherent set of values and norms; for the individual, anomie is the state of being without effective rules for living.

Apartheid: The racist system that was in effect in South Africa for about two generations that sought to separate the races, relegating blacks to an inferior status.

Baby boom: The period for about two decades after the Second World War when the fertility rate was high compared with the years before or after.

Bureaucracy: A system for organizing work and other group activities according to a set of formal rules and procedures that define how participants should behave, usually in the form of a hierarchy of authority.

Capitalism: An economic system where money is invested in enterprises that employ free wage labor and systematic bookkeeping in the rational pursuit of profit,

Carrying capacity: The number of people the earth (or some part of it) can support indefinitely.

Caste: A group within a society whose rights are defined differently from those of other groups and who are not permitted to blend with other castes.

Church: The established religious organization in a society, having an alliance with the state and the ruling class. In Benton Johnson's definition, a church is a religious group that accepts the social environment in which it exists.

Class politics: Political action that is based on rational calculation of the group's economic interests, promoting policies that are designed to improve the group's material position in society.

Clique: An area within a larger social network where the individuals are linked by many social relationships and thus function like a cohesive group.

Cohort: A set of people who were born at approximately the same time, for example, those born in a given year or a given five-year period.

Collective behavior: Episodes in which people influence each other informally to engage in a particular kind of behavior. Major categories are panics, crazes, and riots.

Commitment mechanism: An institutional arrangement that functions to bind an individual to an organization.

Concentric zone model of urban development: The theory that cities tend to form a series of rings, like an archery target, with the central business district in the middle and zones of various kinds of industry or residential type surrounding it.

Conjugal role-relationship: The manner in which the roles played by a husband and wife tend to be similar and shared (joint), or different and unshared (segregated).

Connected social network: A network of social relationships in which the people tied to a given person tend to be tied to each other as well.

Constituency: The set of people in the society who are potential supporters for a particular policy or political leader.

Construction of reality: The process by which a set of phenomena is made meaningful through social definitions.

Control theory: A sociological explanation that says people are more likely to commit deviant acts if their ties to society are weak.

Conversion: The process of joining a religious movement, usually conceptualized in terms of a radical transformation of the person involved.

Craze: A form of collective behavior in which people rush toward something they want

Cult: A deviant religious group, sometimes defined as one with a single, authoritarian leader, or as one with novel or exotic beliefs and practices. Because many journalists and opponents of new religions have used this term disparagingly, most sociologists of religion now prefer the term New Religious Movement (or NRM).

Cultural lag: A maladjustment in the culture that comes about when rapid change in one area is not immediately matched by concomitant change in other areas that are closely related to it.

Definition of the situation: One of several alternative ways of interpreting the meaning of an event or setting, usually socially constructed.

Delinquency: A consistent pattern of deviant behavior performed by a child or adolescent, including acts such as alcohol use or driving an automobile that might not be deviant if performed by an adult.

Delinquent subculture: A subculture in which performance of the roles requires the individual to engage in delinquent behavior.

Democracy: A political system that permits the largest possible part of the population to influence major decisions and in which regular opportunities exist for changing government officials.

Demographic transition: The historical evolution of a society from a situation of high birth and death rates to one of low birth and death rates, often with a population explosion occurring during the transition because mortality decreases before fertility does.

Demography: The study of the dynamics of human populations, emphasizing birth (fertility), death (mortality), and migration (emigration and immigration).

Deskilling: A process in which the nature of a job changes in such a way that it requires less skill of the workers, thus typically causing their status and bargaining power with management to decline.

Deviant behavior: Actions that violate the norms of a society and tend to receive condemnation and punishment when they are discovered.

Dialectical imagination: A way of thinking supposedly common among Protestants that assumes God has largely withdrawn from the sinful world, and that stresses the individual rather than the community.

Diffusion: The spread of a technical idea or other element of culture from one group to another.

Dispersed social network: A network of social relationships in which the people tied to a given person tend not to be tied to each other.

Dramaturgical approach: A form of symbolic interactionism that analyzes how people play roles, using concepts and analogies from the theater.

Dyad: A social unit consisting of two people and the relationship between them.

Egoism: A condition in which social relationships are unstable and society lacks solidarity. In Durkheim's theory, egoism **can** lead to egoistic suicide.

Endogamy: Marrying a person from one's own social group.

Exchange theory: One of the major theoretical perspectives in sociology, stressing that people enter into exchanges with each other to obtain rewards.

Exclusion: The policy of trying to prevent a particular group from entering the society.

Extended family: A large family group, linking members of three or more generations and often including many relatives of the same generation.

Functionalism: *See structural-functionalism.*

Generalized belief: An ideology that identifies the source of problems faced by a group of people and says what they should **do** about it.

Group: A more-or-less exclusive set of individuals who have relatively stable and extensive relations among themselves and possess a sense of shared identity or purpose.

Growth machine: A socio-political arrangement that unites business and government groups in favor of policies encouraging economic growth.

Human capital: Attributes a person can acquire that increase his or her capacity to earn income, such as education.

Ideational: A form of culture that considers reality to be essentially spiritual rather than material, thus demanding strong religious commitments.

Incidence rate: The fraction of a group who enter some category in a particular span of time, such as the number per 100,000 who enter psychiatric treatment during a given year.

Influence perspective: An approach in political sociology that sees politics as a conflict in which interest groups and political parties seek to shape the outcomes not only of elections but also of government decision-making processes.

Inner-directed: A personality style in which the individual possesses a strong set of internal values, socialized into him or her by demanding parents.

Intergenerational mobility: Movement up or down in the society's stratification system that takes place from one generation to another.

Inetrgenerational mobility: Movement up or down in the society's stratification system that takes place within a single generation, that is, the mobility experienced by an individual or cohort of individuals.

Invention: The process by which new forms of technology are created.

Isomorphism: The tendency of each organization in a particular field to resemble the others.

Labeling theory: An explanation of deviant behavior that emphasizes how social reaction can cause a person to play the role of deviant.

Labor market: The complex social, economic, and cultural system that channels individuals into various jobs.

Looking-glass self: *See social self.*

Medicalization: The process through which a form of deviance comes to be defined as an illness rather than as a sin or crime.

Merchant capitalism: A form of free market economy that emphasizes profit through buying and selling, rather than profit from industrial production.

Meritocracy: A system in which the best and most capable individuals rule the world.

Millennial movement: A religious movement that believes Christ or some other supernatural force will soon transform the world into an ideal society that may last a thousand years (the millennium).

Mobilization: The process by which the actions of a large number of people come to be coordinated, so that many are doing essentially the same thing or seeking the same goals.

Modernity: A set of personality characteristics that suit a person to play valuable roles in modern society, including such traits as openness to change, complex opinions, and orientation to the future rather than to the past.

Natural attitude: The unquestioning orientation with which people confront the world of every-day life.

Network: A structure of social relationships linking a number of individuals directly or indirectly.

Neutralization: Symbolic redefinition of a deviant act that reduces the perpetrator's blame.

Norms: Rules that regulate behavior, setting standards for proper or improper acts in given situations; more specific than values, they define how the society's values should be realized.

Nuclear family: A small family group consisting just of a married couple and their children.

Objectivation: The process by which people come to believe that socially-constructed meanings are really objective and could not be otherwise.

Opinion leader: An influential person who tends to adopt innovations and then convinces others in the network to adopt them as well.

Organization: A collectivity oriented to the pursuit of relatively specific goals and exhibiting a relatively highly formalized social structure.

Organizational ecology: A perspective on social organizations that considers the competitive and cooperative relations linking large numbers of them operating within a particular environment.

Other-directed: A personality style in which the individual finds his or her values in the surrounding group, adapting to the shifting values of new groups while pursuing a career that takes him or her through many social environments.

Panic: A form of collective behavior in which people rash terrified from something they fear.

Paranoia: A form of mental disorder in which a person suffers from delusions of grandeur and persecution.

Participant observation: A research technique in which the sociologist shares in the activities of a group while studying it.

Party: A network of individuals and suborganizations bearing a clear political label and seeking to elect people to public office.

Post-industrial society: The most modern form of society, in which service professions are more important than manufacturing, the professional and technical class dominates other elites, and theoretical knowledge is central for the formulation of policy.

Power elite: A network of highly influential persons who make the major decisions in the society.

Primary group: The set of social relations surrounding an individual that are characterized by intimate, face-to-face interaction and enduring cooperation.

Profession: An occupation, such as medicine or law, whose practitioners claim to possess such specialized knowledge that they should be allowed to set their own standards for practice of the occupation.

Proposition: A statement about the relationship between properties of nature, part of an explanation in formal theory.

Protestant ethic: A set of values supposedly held by many Protestants that stresses duty, self denial, and hard work.

Relative deprivation: A frustrating condition in which people experience a low level of satisfaction compared with that enjoyed by other people or with that which the sufferers believe they should enjoy.

Residual deviance: The violation of norms that are so taken-for-granted by members of society that their language does not give it a formal name.

Resource mobilization theory: A perspective on collective behavior and social movements that stresses the ways their participants gain resources from their social environment and employ them strategically to achieve their aims.

Riot: A form of collective behavior in which people rush against something they hate; sometimes called a hostile outburst.

Schism: A social process in which a religious organization splits into two parts, one of which is often a religiously intense sect that is antagonistic to the parent organization.

Sect: A religious group in opposition with the established church of a society. In Benton Johnson's definition, a sect is a religious group that rejects the social environment in which it exists.

Secularization: A historical process through which religion becomes progressively weaker because of the spread of scientific concepts and other aspects of modernization.

Sex ratio: The numerical balance between the sexes, traditionally measured as the number of males per 100 females.

Sexual dimorphism: A significant difference in the biological natures of the two genders manifested in behavior as well as in physical appearance.

Sensate: A form of culture that believes reality is whatever the sense organs perceive, thus tending to be sensuous and, in the modern era, scientific.

Social capital: Attributes of an individual's social environment that increase his or her capacity to earn income.

Social control perspective: An approach in political sociology that focuses on how government leadership operates to achieve the goals of society most efficiently at the least cost to the leaders themselves.

Social disorganization: The condition of a society when its social life is chaotic, its population is unstable, and its institutions fail to mesh with each other.

Social fact: For Durkheim and his followers, a phenomenon that belongs to society and cannot be understood simply in terms of the desires and actions of individuals.

Social movement: A relatively organized attempt to change some significant aspect of society, or to prevent such change.

Social self: The set of ideas the individual has about himself or herself, which were derived from communication with other people.

Sociogram: A diagram representing the structure of social relationships among a set of individual

Sociometry: The branch of sociology devoted to the measurement and analysis of the network of social relationships connecting a number of people.

Status politics: Political action that is concerned with the prestige of the group in society, using political processes symbolically to enhance the honor of the group.

Strain theory: The view that a lack of integration between the values and norms of a society will cause deviance; the individual is forced to commit deviant acts because he or she lacks the opportunity to achieve the culture's goals by conforming.

Stratification: Division of a society into socioeconomic strata (layers), social classes, or other forms of individual inequality.

Structural-functionalism: A school of thought describing society as a set of institutions that exist in a clear structure of relationships to each other, held together by a shared set of values.

Subculture: A set of norms, roles, and values that differ from those of the surrounding culture, usually followed by a particular group or network of people.

Subcultural deviance theory: An explanation of deviant behavior that says an individual will be influenced toward one or another behavior pattern by the people with whom he or she has contact; if they are criminal, so will the person be.

Symbolic interactionism: One of the major theoretical approaches in sociology, emphasizing the communications that provide the individual with a personal Identity and with socially-scripted roles to play

Technological determinism: The view that technological Innovation is the engine of history, and that technology is largely self-generated.

Tradition-directed: A persona lily style in which the individual conforms to a rigid, age-old culture sustained through innumerable rituals, religion, and a complex structure of clans, castes, or other social divisions.

Vacancy chain: A series of positions in an organization linked by the movement of individuals from one to another in sequence; the chain begins when a person leaves the organization, creating a vacancy, into which the next person moves, leaving another vacancy, and so on.

Values: The most general principles that guide social action; shared definitions of abstract goals that should be achieved.

Zone of transition: A ring of factories and decaying residential buildings around the central business district, in the concentric zone model of urban development.