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UNIT I

GLOBALIZATION

What is globalization?

Do you consider yourself a global citizen? How do you understand this concept?

Read only the title. Predict 5 vocabulary items the article will contain

Skim the article. Write down what the main theme of the text is.

Explain any unknown words you meet in the text. What do the words in bold type in the text mean?

Text

Globalization involves economic, political, and cultural transformations.

There are at least four positions on the nature of these transformations.

Position 1: Globalization is producing a homogeneous world characterized by (1) a belief that freedom of expression and appreciation of, and respect for, human and cultural differences should be universally valued and (2) a fusion of distinct cultural practices into a new world culture. This respect and fusion is embodied in trends such as world beat, world cuisine, and world cinema. Globalization includes the emergence of **the global citizen**, who thinks of the world as one community and feels a responsibility to the planet. The size of the 2007 Live Earth concerts, which engaged 2 billion people worldwide, is evidence that the concept of a global citizen, even if not fully developed, is emerging.

Position 2: Globalization is producing a homogeneous world by destroying variety or the local cultures that get in the way of progress or simply cannot compete against large corporations. The engines of cultural destruction – sometimes referred to as **McWorld and Coca-colonization** – are consumerism and corporate capitalism. How is globalization destroying local cultures? When people eat a Big Mac or drink a Coke, they are consuming more than a burger or a drink; they are also consuming American/Western images and their associated values. Those values relate to importance placed on food (the time to prepare it and eat), the nature of the relationship between the cook and the person

eating (personal versus anonymous), and the place of the individual in relationship to the group (i.e., I can eat whatever I want whenever I want versus I eat what others are eating at standard times of the day).

Position 3: Globalization actually brings value to and appreciation for local products and ways of doing things. **Consumption of goods and services is not a one-way exchange** in which the buying culture simply accepts a foreign product as it is known and used in the exporting culture(s). While the products of corporate capitalism penetrate local markets, they do not eliminate demand for local ingredients and products. Moreover, local tastes are incorporated into corporate offerings. Coca-Cola, for example, offers 450 different brands in 200 countries, many brands that we may not have heard about, such as Inca Ko, a sparkling beverage available in South America; Samurai, an energy drink available in Asia; and Vita, an African juice drink. Just because a Big Mac or a Coke can be found anywhere in the world does not mean that locally, regionally, or nationally inspired products vanish.

Position 4: Globalization and its interconnections intensify cultural differences by actually «sparking religious, ethnic, and cultural conflicts as people fight to preserve their identity and particular way of life» to resist Western influences that have dominated globalization to date, to assert an identity that «clashes» with Western ideals (i.e., individualism, freedom of expression, democracy), or to protect and enforce boundaries even as they are opened and erased. **Gatekeepers** such as airport security and border patrol officers seek to process travelers and cargo from around the world as quickly as possible and, at the same time, close access to real and imagined threats. As a case in point, each year there are an estimated 300 million border crossings from Mexico into the United States (one indicator of global interdependence). In hopes of preventing this massive exchange of people, the U.S. is constructing 700 miles of strategically placed fences along that border, including reinforced fencing, physical barriers, lighting, cameras, and sensors to stop illegal crossings.

Exercises

1. Debate on the issues raised in the text above using the following phrases:

In my view/ in my opinion/to my mind

If you ask me/ I agree(with)/ I disagree (with)/ I am not sure if/ I have no doubts about

*2. Match the terms from **A** with their definitions from **B**:*

A: 1) gross national income (GNI), 2) third-world countries, 3) economy, 4) postindustrial society, 5) labor force participation rate, 6) core countries (core nations). 7) globalization, 8) multinational corporation, 9) first-world countries, 10) second-world countries, 11) international division of labor

B: a) countries that are poor, underdeveloped, largely rural, and with high levels of poverty; typically governments in such countries are autocratic dictatorships and wealth is concentrated in the hands of a small elite;

b) countries with state-managed economies and typically without a democratically elected government;

c) a society economically dependent upon the production and distribution of services, information, and knowledge;

d) corporations that conduct business across national borders;

e) the percentage of those in a given category who are employed;

f) system of labor whereby products are produced globally, while profits accrue only to a few;

g) the total output of goods and services produced by residents of a country each year plus the income from nonresident sources, divided by the size of the population;

h) increased economic, political, and social interconnectedness and interdependence among societies in the world;

i) industrialized nations based on a market economy and with democratically elected governments;

j): the system on which the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services is based;

k) within world systems theory, those nations that are more technologically advanced.

UNIT II

EDUCATION

Text I

Read only the title. Predict 5 vocabulary items the article will contain?

Are standardized tests used in Russia?

Do these tests predict students' achievement adequately?

Think of three positive and three negative characteristics of standardized testing. Read the text and see if the arguments you made are the same as in the text b.

Skim the article. Write down what the main theme of the text is.

Explain any unknown words you meet in the text. What do the words in bold type in the text mean?

In its original nineteenth-century conception, the education system was to serve as a leveling force in American society – the road to full equality for all citizens regardless of race, social class origin, nationality, religion, or gender. Jew and gentile, Irish and Polish, Black and White, rich and poor, male and female would learn together side by side. Through education, each student would learn the ways of others and thus come to understand and respect them. Full equality for humankind was to follow. Education has indeed reduced many inequalities in society since compulsory education began at the turn of the twentieth century. The percentage of **high school graduates** has risen among Whites and minorities, both male and female, as have certain types of social mobility. Despite continuing inequalities in college enrollments comparing African Americans, Hispanics, and Whites, the enrollment of minorities has risen overall – although the high school **dropout rate** for Hispanics has remained highest among all racial– ethnic groups. Furthermore, as more minorities and women attend and graduate from two- and four-year colleges, the result – at least until the major economic recession of 2008–2009 – has been more employment for them in mid-level and high-level jobs. Nonetheless, many inequalities still exist in U.S. education. Cognitive Ability and Its Measurement Since as long ago as classical Greece, humans have sought to measure a «mental faculty» or «intelligence».

It is now called cognitive ability, the capacity for abstract thinking. Since early in the twentieth century, educators in our society, from preschools to universities, have attempted to measure intelligence by means of **standardized ability tests**, such as the SAT or IQ tests, which are intended to measure ability or potential. These are not the same as achievement tests, which are intended to measure what has actually been learned, in addition to ability or potential. Advanced Placement (AP) exams are achievement tests taken before entering college. Students who score high demonstrate that they have already mastered certain material and can in many cases skip those courses in college. The education system in the United States has relied heavily upon the idea that intelligence, or ability, or potential is a single unitary trait. Cognitive ability has been gauged according to the numerical results of the standardized tests. There has been a will to reduce measurements of cognitive ability to a single number, or perhaps two numbers, such as language and math scores of SAT tests and IQ tests in the recent past. There are three major criticisms made regarding using standardized tests such as the SAT or ACT as measures of cognitive ability. First, the tests tend to measure only limited ranges of abilities (such as quantitative aptitude or verbal aptitude) while ignoring other cognitive endowments such as creativity, musical ability, spatial perception, or even political skill and athletic ability (Zwick 2004; Freedle 2003; Gardner 1999; Lehmann 1999; Sternberg 1988). Second, the tests possess at least some degree of **cultural and gender bias – and also a strong social class bias**. As a result, they may perpetuate rather than reduce inequality between different cultural or racial groups and social classes, as well as perpetuate social, economic, and educational inequality between men and women. The tests were designed primarily by middle-class White males, and the «standardization» they strive to achieve mirrors middle-class White male populations. Many studies show that although standardized ability tests are somewhat capable of predicting future school performance for White males, a significant number of studies – in fact most studies – show less accurate forecasts for the success of minorities, especially Hispanics, African Americans, and American Indians, and they often predict school 2002; Taylor 2009, 2002, 1992a; Jencks and Phillips 1998; Fleming and Garcia 1998; Pennock-Roman 1994; Young 1994;

Crouse and Trusheim 1988). In other words, the predictive validity of the tests, which is the extent to which the tests accurately predict later college grades, is compromised for minorities, women, and persons of working-class origins. The third criticism of the SATs is that they do not **predict school performance** very well, even for Whites. For example, SAT scores are only modestly accurate predictors of college grades even for White persons (Zwick 2004; Fleming and Garcia 1998; Manning and Jackson 1984). This fact is not well known. Grade point average in high school (and school class rank as well) is also only a modestly accurate predictor of success in college. High school grades are about as accurate as the SATs in predicting college grades – maybe even a tad better (Alon and Tienda 2007). This is truly unfortunate: The SAT, when introduced in the late 1940s/early 1950s, was originally supposed to be a better predictor than high school grades. The latter were then thought of as «subjective» whereas the SAT was supposed to be «objective».

Text 2. Skim the article. Write down what the main theme of the text is

The European Union (EU) is an economic and political alliance that began in 1952 with 6 member countries. The alliance has expanded several times to eventually include 27 members in 2007. The EU's goal is to eliminate legal barriers to the free movement of people (including labor), goods, services, and capital across member countries' borders. We focus on the European Union in this chapter for several reasons. First, the EU is investing heavily in education and research to **boost its international competitiveness** and to ensure that Europeans have the skills necessary to thrive in the 21st century (Bologna Declaration 1999). The EU is also offering scholarships to attract the world's "super-scholars," and it is working to open its higher education institutions to the rest of the world, thereby **challenging the United States' dominance** as a host country to international students (Riding 2003; Dillon 2004; Lee 2004). Second, the U.S. Department of Education routinely compares its students and education system with foreign, especially European, counterparts on a host of attributes, including teachers' salaries, reading scores, scientific literacy, per capita spending on education, and access to educational opportunities. This comparative analysis allows an assessment of U.S. strengths and weaknesses relative to those of other countries. Third, the United States

was the first country in the world to embrace the concept of mass education. In doing so, it broke with the European view that education should be limited to an elite few. Europeans observed the American experiment with **mass education**, and their early impressions offer important, lasting assessments about the cultural values that the American system of public education promotes. In particular, the U.S. system seems to create students who (1) are preoccupied with knowledge as it applies to income generation and wealth creation, (2) value personal observations over accumulated knowledge and experience with other ways of life, (3) come away with a belief that the ideal person is **self-made** and able to transcend societal forces, and (4) place high value on educational achievement but not on the dedicated study needed to attain it (Hamilton 1883, Combe 1839).

Exercises

1. Give titles to texts 1 and 2.

2. Match the terms from A with their definitions from B:

A: 1) life chances, 2) mores, 3) group, 4)glass ceiling, 5) socialization, 6) role.

B: a) popular concept referring to the limits that women and minorities experience in job mobility;

b) a collection of individuals who interact and communicate, share goals and norms, and who have a subjective awareness as “we”;

c) strict norms that control moral and ethical behavior;

d) the opportunities that people have in common by virtue of belonging to a particular class;

e) behavior others expect from a person associated with a particular status;

f) the process through which people learn the expectations.

3. Add some other facts regarding education in your country after those you read below:

• About 80 percent of American 15-year-olds expect to have a high-skilled, white-collar job by age 30. Less than 50 percent of Czech, French, and German 15-year-olds expect to have such a job by that age.

• Less than 10 percent of American high school students are enrolled in vocational programs. Depending on the country, 35.6–80.7 percent of European students are enrolled in such programs.

• The United States is one of the few countries in the world that does not require students to learn at least one other language. In

European Union countries mandatory foreign language study begins as early as age five.

- Relative to their European counterparts, U.S. teachers spend more hours in direct contact with students.

UNIT III

POPULATION AND SOCIAL CHANGE

Text 1. SOCIAL CHANGE

Read only the title. Predict 5 vocabulary items the article will contain.

Skim the article. Write down what the main theme of the text is.

Explain any unknown words you meet in the text. What do the words in bold type in the text mean?

What societal changes do you observe? Think of three examples you witnessed within the last decade?

Are changes always good?

Social change is the alteration of social interactions, institutions, stratification systems, and elements of culture over time. Societies are in a constant **state of flux**. Some changes are rapid, such as those brought about by desktop computers in little more than ten years. Other changes are more gradual, such as the increasing urbanization that characterizes the contemporary world. Sometimes people adapt quickly to change, such as in response to the development of electronic communication. Other times people resist change or are slow to adapt to new possibilities. Despite decades of effort to promote contraceptive methods, in some developing nations there are only the most sluggish. The speed of social change varies from society to society and from time to time within the same society. Microchanges are subtle alterations in the day-to- day interactions between people. A fad «catching on» is an example of a **microchange**. Take the popularity of bungee jumping. Although not as widespread as some previous fads, this highly dangerous recreation is one of a group of «extreme sports» that have become popular across the country. Bungee jumping has caused quite a few serious injuries and deaths, but has also provided thrilling footage for soft-drink commercials. This may account for why a large number of youths have suddenly developed a taste for putting themselves in

bone-smashing danger. **Macrochanges** are gradual transformations that occur on a broad scale and affect many aspects of society. In the process of modernization, societies absorb the changes that come with new times and shed old ways. One frequently noted trend accompanying modernization is that societies develop greater differentiation in social rank, divisions of labor, and so on. The effects of the fast-food industry and its impact on social structure exemplify a macrochange. In the United States, the rise of the computer through all its generations from vacuum tube to microchip has dramatically changed society, another example of a macrochange. Not many years ago, who would have imagined that you could "surf the Web" to the extent possible today? As recently as 1990, few people had heard of the Internet, much less used it. Large or small, fast or slow, social change generally has in common the following characteristics. 1. Social change is uneven. The various parts of a society do not all change at the same rate; some parts lag behind others. This is **the principle of culture lag**, a term coined by sociological theorist William F. Ogburn (1922). Recall that culture lag refers to the delay between when social conditions change and when cultural adjustments are made. Often the first change is a development in material culture (such as a technological change in computer hardware), which is followed by a change in nonmaterial culture (meaning the habits and mores of the culture). 2. The onset and consequences of social change are often unforeseen. The inventors of the atomic bomb in the early 1940s could not predict the vast changes in the character of international relations, including a Cold War that lasted until the demise of the Soviet Union in the early 1990s. Television pioneers, who envisioned a mode of mass communication more compelling than radio, could not predict television would become such **a dominant force** in determining the interests and habits of youth and the activities and structure of the family. Culture lag is present in both examples: A change in material culture (invention of the atomic bomb, invention of television) precedes later changes in nonmaterial culture (international relations, youth culture, and family structure). 3. Social change often creates conflict. Change often triggers conflicts along racial–ethnic lines, social class lines, and gender lines. Terrorism – both in the United States and abroad – focuses attention on the deep conflicts that exist worldwide in political, ethnic, and religious division. These conflicts not only

produce international tension, they often drive the world events that generate social change. 4. The direction of social change is not random. Change has «direction» relative to a society's history. A populace may want to make a good society better, or it may rebel against a **status quo** regarded as unendurable. Whether change is wanted or resisted, when it occurs it takes place within a specific social and cultural context. Social change cannot erase the past. As a society moves toward the future, it carries along its past, its traditions, and its institutions .A generally satisfied populace that strives to make a good society better obviously wishes to preserve its past, but even when a society is in revolt against **a status quo** that is intolerable, the social change that occurs must be understood in the context of the past as much as the future.

Exercises

1. Match the terms from A with their definitions from B:

A: 1) kinship system, 2) culture lag, 3) bureaucracy, 4) status, 5) social class, 6) norms, 7) age discrimination, 8) cultural diffusion, 9) social change, 10) internalization:

B: a) different and unequal treatment of people based solely on their age;

b) a type of formal organization characterized by an authority hierarchy, a clear division of labor, explicit rules, and impersonality;

d) the transmission of cultural elements from one society or cultural group to another;

e) the delay in cultural adjustments to changing social conditions;

f) a process by which a part of culture becomes incorporated into the personality;

g) the pattern of relationships that define people's family relationships to one another;

h) the specific cultural expectations for how to act in a given situation;

i) the alteration of social interaction, social institutions, stratification systems, and elements of culture over time;

j) the social structural hierarchical position groups hold relative to the economic, social, political, and cultural resources of society;

k) an established position in a social structure that carries with it a degree of prestige.

Text 2. DIVERSITY AND THREE BASIC DEMOGRAPHIC PROCESSES

Do many migrants currently reside in Russia?

Does additive (migrants are considered a resource to a society) or subtractive (migrants are considered a problem to a society) concepts dominate in your country?

The total number of people in a society at any given moment is determined by only three variables: births, deaths, and migrations. These three variables show different patterns for different racial and ethnic groups, different social strata, and both genders. Births add to the total population, and deaths subtract from it. Migration into a society from outside, called **immigration**, adds to the population, whereas **emigration**, the departure of people from a society (also called out-migration), subtracts from the population. The total population of the world is increasing at a rate of approximately 270,000 people per day, or just less than 200 people per minute. The world's population does not increase in a **linear fashion** – the line on a graph of population does not rise in a straight line, with the same number of people added each year. Instead, the population grows exponentially, with an upward accelerating curve. An ever increasing number of people are added each year. At the present rate of growth, the world's population will double in forty years, barring some major catastrophe such as world war, an international epidemic of an untreatable disease, or some such global calamity. Various countries and different subgroups within a country can have dramatically different birthrates. For example, the country with the highest birthrate in the world is Niger, with 49.6 births per 1000 people. The lowest birthrate is found in Japan, with only 7.9 births per 1000 people The overall birthrate for the United States is approximately 14.2 births per 1000 people, compared with the all-time high rate of 27 births per 1000 people in 1946, the start of the so-called **Baby Boom** that followed the Second World War. The rate varies according to racial–ethnic group, region, socioeconomic status, religion, and other factors. Overall, we find that for different racial–ethnic groups, the birthrates in the United States vary – Latinos (all subgroups) with the highest (23.0 per thousand) down to Whites with the lowest (13.4 per thousand). The effects of birthrates are somewhat cumulative. For example, minorities tend to be overrepresented at the lower end of the socioeconomic scale, compounding the likelihood of a high birthrate. Similarly, religious and

cultural differences can make themselves felt. Catholics, for example, have a higher birthrate than non-Catholics of the same socioeconomic status. Hispanic Americans have a high likelihood of being Catholic, another factor that contributes to the higher birthrate among Hispanic Americans. Because minorities tend to have higher birthrates, assuming that present migration rates continue and assuming that death rates do not outstrip the birthrates, in the coming years the United States will have a significantly greater proportion of minorities, thus a relatively lower proportion of Whites The crude death rate of a population is the number of deaths each year per 1000 people. **Crude death rate** can be an important measure of the overall standard of living for a population. In general, the higher the **standard of living** enjoyed by a country, or a group within the country, the lower the death rate. The death rate of a population also reflects the quality of medicine and health care. Poor medical care, which goes along with a low standard of living, will correlate with a high death rate. Another measure that can reflect the standard of living in a population is the infant mortality rate, which is the number of deaths per year of infants less than one year old for every 1000 live births. In the United States, the overall infant mortality rate is on average 7.0 infant deaths for every 1000 live births – but much higher than that for Blacks (13.7) but lower for Whites (5.7), a big difference. The highest infant mortality rates among seventy-seven countries throughout the world are Angola, with a rate of 200, and Afghanistan, with a rate of 150 (U.S. Census Bureau 2008). Infant mortality rates, a measure of the chances of the very survival of members of the population, are important to compare across racial–ethnic groups and across social class strata. They are a good indicator of the overall **quality of life**, as well as the survival chances for members of that racial or class group. There are also many other causes of higher infant mortality, such as presence of toxic wastes, malnutrition of the mother, inadequate food, and outright starvation. The **life expectancy** of a population or group is defined as the average number of years a member of the group can expect to live. In the United States, life expectancy has gone from forty years of age in 1900 to over seventy-seven years of age for people born now. Although a life expectancy of seventy-seven years might seem high, the truth is that the United States does not compare very well to other developed nations in either life expectancy or infant mortality. The United States ranks near the bottom among industrialized

nations in life expectancy, behind Japan, the Netherlands, Canada, and several other countries. The picture is similar regarding infant mortality. Interestingly, Russia, with whom the United States was engaged in a long-running, expensive Cold War, also has a low life expectancy and an exceptionally high infant mortality rate. Migration Joining the birthrate and death rate as factors in determining the size of a population is the migration of people into and out of the country. Migration affects society in many ways. Israel, since its establishment in 1948, has experienced considerable growth in its population, primarily due to a tremendous migration of Jews from Europe and the United States. These migrants tend to be younger on average than the rest of the Israeli population, therefore their arrival has certain direct consequences, such as increasing the birthrate, which is higher among the young than the older Israelis. Migration can also occur within the boundaries of a country. In the 1980s, **internal migration** by African Americans, Hispanics, Asians, and Pacific Islanders within the borders of the United States has occurred at a rate unmatched since the First World War and the Great Black Migration from the South to the North in the United States early in the twentieth century. In that era, Blacks migrated from the South to major industrial urban areas in the North, such as Chicago, New York, Detroit, and Cleveland, where jobs were available. The recent pattern of migration for African Americans has been not only from the South, but also from the major northern urban centers to the West, the Southwest, and New England.

Contrary to present stereotypes, these new immigrants are not poor and unmotivated, but in contrast show a proportion of professionals and technicians higher than that in the labor force as a whole.

Exercises

1. Divide text 2 into several logical paragraphs and name them.

2. Match the terms from A with their definitions from B:

A: 1) immigration (vs. emigration), 2) census, 3) xenophobia, 4) assimilation, 5) emigration (vs. immigration), 6) transnational family, 7) nationalism, 8) diversity, 9) demography, 10) life expectancy, 11) minority group.

B: a) process by which a minority becomes socially, economically, and culturally absorbed within the dominant society;

b) a count of the entire population of a country;

c) migration of people from one society to another;

d) the scientific c study of population;

e) the migration of people into a society from outside it (also called in-migration);

f0 the average number of years individuals and particular groups can expect to live;

g) any distinct group in society that shares common group characteristics and is forced to occupy low status in society because of prejudice and discrimination;

h) the strong identity associated with an extreme sense of allegiance to one's culture or nation;

i) families where one parent (or both) lives and works in one country while the children remain in their country of origin;

j) the fear and hatred of foreigners;

k) the variety of group experiences that result from the social structure of society.

3. Find answers for the following questions:

- How big is the population of your country/ region/city?
- What is a birth rate in the region?
- Is it high/medium/low compared to other regions?
- Name major national minorities in your region.

UNIT IV

POLITICS AND ECONOMY

Text 1. THE STATE

Read only the title. Predict 5 vocabulary items the article will contain.

Skim the article. Write down what the main theme of the text is.

Explain any unknown words you meet in the text. What do the words in bold type in the text mean?

Sociologists use the term state to refer to the organized system of power and authority in society. The state is an abstract concept that includes the institutions that represent official power in society, including the government, the legal system (law, courts, and the prison system), the police, and the military. Theoretically, the state exists to regulate social order, ranging from individual behavior and

interpersonal conflicts to international affairs. Less powerful groups in the society may see the state more as an **oppressive force** than as a protector of individual rights. However, they may still turn to the state to rectify injustice, for example, by advocating for civil rights or seeking state-based rights and protections for people with disabilities. The state has a central role in determining the rights and privileges of various groups. The state determines who is a citizen and who is not; the state may be called upon to resolve conflicts between management and labor (such as in airline strikes); and the state may **pass legislation** determining the benefits of different groups or make decisions that extend rights to various groups, such as the right for same sex marriage. Numerous institutions make up the state, including the government, the legal system, the police, and the military. The government creates laws and procedures that regulate and guide a society. The **military** is the branch of government responsible for defending the nation against domestic and foreign conflicts. The **court system** is designed to punish wrongdoers and adjudicate disputes. Court decisions also determine the guiding principles or laws of human interaction. Law is a fundamental type of formal social control that outlines what is permissible and what is forbidden. The police are responsible for **enforcing law** in the community and for maintaining public order. The prison system is the institution responsible for punishing those who have **broken the law**. Under the U.S. Constitution, these state institutions treat people equally, although sociologists have documented how often this is not the case. Sociological analyses of the state focus on several different questions. One important issue is the relationship between the state and inequality in society. State policies can have very different impacts on different groups. Another issue explored by sociological theory is the connection between the state and other social institutions – the state and religion or the state and the family.

Exercises

1) *Give definitions for the following typed of government:*

- republic	- federation	- dictatorship
- monarchy	- democracy	-independence

2) *Give examples of 3 countries for each type of government above.*

Text 2. THE FAMILY

What role does the concept of family play in your society?

Have you noticed any changes happening with Families in general and individual family members in particular within the last decade?

Like other social institutions, the family is in a constant **state of change**, particularly as new social conditions arise and as people in families adapt to the changed conditions of their lives. Some changes affect only a given family – the individual changes that come from the birth of a new child, the loss of a partner, divorce, migration, and other life events. These changes are what C. Wright Mills referred to as «**troubles**». Some may even be happy events; the point is that they are changes that happen at the individual level, as people adjust to the presence of a new child, adjust to a breakup with a long-term partner, or grieve the loss of a spouse. As Mills would have pointed out, many **microsociological events** that people experience in families have their origins in the broader **macrosociological changes** affecting society as a whole. Global Changes in Family Life Changes in the institutional structure of families are also being affected by the process of globalization. The increasing global basis of the economy means that people often work long distances from other family members – a phenomenon that occurs at all points on the social class spectrum, although the experience of such global **mobility** varies significantly by social class. A corporate executive may accumulate thousands – even millions – of first-class flight miles, crossing the globe to conduct business. A regional sales manager may spend most nights away from a family, likely staying in modestly priced motels and eating in fast-food franchises along the way. Truckers may sleep in the cabs of their tractor trailers after logging extraordinary numbers of hours of driving in a given week. Laborers may move from one state to the next, following the pattern of the harvest, living in camps away from families, and being paid by the amount they pick. These patterns of work and migration have created a new family form, the **transnational family**, defined as families where one parent (or both) lives and works in one country while their children remain in the country of origin. A good example is found in Hong Kong, where most **domestic labor** is performed by Filipina women who work on multiple-year contracts

managed by the government, typically on a **live-in basis**. They leave their children in the Philippines, usually cared for by a relative, and send money home; the meager wages they earn in Hong Kong far exceed the average income of workers in the Philippines. This pattern is so common that the average Filipino migrant worker supports five people at home; one in five Filipinos directly depends on migrant workers' earnings. One need not go to other nations to see such transnational patterns in family life. In the United States, Caribbean women and African American women have had a long history of having to leave their children with others while they sought employment in different regions of the country. Central American and Mexican women may come to work in the United States while their children stay behind. Mothers may return to see their children whenever they can, or alternatively, children may spend part of the year with their mothers, part with other relatives. Mothers in transnational families have to develop new concepts of their maternal role, because their situation means giving up the idea that biological mothers should raise their own children. Many have expanded their definition of motherhood to include **breadwinning**, traditionally defined as the role of fathers. Transnational women also create a new sense of home, one not limited to the traditional understanding of «home» as a single place where mothers, fathers, and their children reside. Family social policies are the subject of intense national debate. Should gay marriages be recognized by the state? What responsibility does society have to help parents balance the demands of work and family? Many issues on the **front lines** of national social policy engage intense discussions of families. Some claim the family is breaking down. Others celebrate the increased diversity among families. Many blame the family for the social problems our society faces. Drugs, low educational achievement, crime, and violence are often attributed to a crisis in "family values," as if rectifying these attitudes is all it will take to solve our nation's difficulties. The family is the only social institution that typically takes the blame for all of society's problems. Is it reasonable to expect families to solve social problems? Families are afflicted by most of the structural problems that are generated by racism, poverty, gender inequality, and class inequality. Expecting families to solve the problems that are the basis for their own difficulties is like asking a poor person to save us from the national debt. Balancing the multiple

demands of work and family is one of the biggest challenges for most families. With more parents employed, it is difficult to take time from one's paid job to care for newborn or newly adopted children, tend to sick children, or care for elderly parents or other family members. As more families include two **earners**, more people feel pulled in multiple directions, always strategizing to find the time to get everything done. Work institutions are structured on a gendered model of the male breadwinner, where family and work are assumed to be separate, nonintersecting spheres. But now there is significant «**spillover**» between family and work – work seeping into the home and home also affecting people's work. **The Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA)**, adopted by Congress in 1993, is meant to provide help for these conflicts. It requires employers to grant employees a total of twelve weeks in unpaid leave to care for newborns, adopted children, or family members with a serious health condition.

Exercises

1. Questions to Consider:

- Who does the work in your family?
- Is it related to the social organization of your family?
- Do you think that men's gender identity changes when they become more involved in care work?
- What hinders and/or facilitates men's engagement in this kind of work?

2. *Match the terms from A with their definitions from B:*

A: 1) state, 2) matriarchy, 3) nuclear family, 4) urbanization, 5) kinship system, 6) family, 7) power, 8) transnational family, 9) social institution, 10) extended families, 11) median income, 12) values.

B: a) a primary group of people – usually related by ancestry, marriage, or adoption – who form a cooperative economic unit to care for any offspring (and each other) and who are committed to maintaining the group over time;

b) the pattern of relationships that define people's family relationships to one another;

c) a society or group in which women have power over men;

d) the midpoint of all household incomes;

e) family in which a married couple resides together with their children;

f) the whole network of parents, children, and other relatives who form a family unit and often reside together;

g) an established and organized system of social behavior with a recognized purpose;

h) the organized system of power and authority in society;

i) families where one parent (or both) lives and works in one country while the children remain in their country of origin;

j) the process by which a community acquires the characteristics of city life;

k) the abstract standards in a society or group that define ideal principles;

l) a person or group's ability to exercise influence and control over others.

UNIT V

CULTURE

Text 1. THE CHALLENGE OF DEFINING CULTURE

What composes CULTURE?

Do animals have CULTURE?

Skim the article. Write down what the main theme of the text is.

Explain any unknown words you meet in the text. What do the words in bold type in the text mean?

Culture is the complex system of meaning and behavior that defines the way of life for a given group or society. It includes beliefs, values, knowledge, art, morals, laws, customs, habits, language, and dress, among other things. Culture includes ways of thinking as well as patterns of behavior. Observing culture involves studying what people think, how they interact, and the objects they use. In any society, culture defines what is perceived as beautiful and ugly, right and wrong, good and bad. Culture helps hold society together, giving people a sense of belonging, instructing them on how to behave, and telling them what to think in particular situations. Culture gives meaning to society. Culture is both material and nonmaterial. **Material culture** consists of the objects created in a given society its buildings, art, tools, toys, print and broadcast media, and other tangible objects, such as those discussed in the chapter opener. In the

popular mind, material **artifacts** constitute culture because they can be collected in museums or archives and analyzed for what they represent. These objects are significant because of the meaning they are given. A temple, for example, is not merely a building, nor is it only a place of worship. Its form and presentation signify the religious meaning system of the faithful. **Nonmaterial culture** includes the norms, laws, customs, ideas, and beliefs of a group of people. Nonmaterial culture is less tangible than material culture, but it has a strong presence in social behavior. Examples of nonmaterial culture are numerous and found in the patterns of everyday life. In some cultures, people eat with utensils, in others, people do not. The eating utensils are part of material culture, but the belief about whether to use them is nonmaterial culture. It is cultural patterns that make humans so interesting. Is it culture that distinguishes human beings from animals? Some animal species develop what we might call culture. Chimpanzees, for example, learn behavior through observing and imitating others, a point proved by observing the different eating practices among chimpanzees in the same species but raised in different groups. Others have observed elephants picking up the dead bones of other elephants and fondling them, perhaps evidence of grieving behavior. Dolphins are known to have a complex auditory language. And most people think that their pets communicate with them. Apparently, humans are not unique in their ability to develop systems of communication. But some scientists generally conclude that animals lack the elaborate symbol-based cultures common in human societies. Perhaps, as even Charles Darwin wrote, «The difference in mind between man and the higher animals, great as it is, certainly is one of degree and not of kind». Studying animal groups reminds us of the interplay between biology and culture. Human biology sets limits and provides certain capacities for human life and the development of culture. Similarly, the environment in which humans live establishes the possibilities and limitations for human society. Nutrition, for instance, is greatly influenced by environment, thereby affecting human body height and weight. Not everyone can swim like Michael Phelps or lob a tennis ball like Venus and Serena Williams, but with training and conditioning, people can enhance their physical abilities. Biological limits exist, but cultural factors have an enormous influence on the development of human life.

Exercises

1) *Answer the questions below using the following phrases:*

In my view/ in my opinion/to my mind

- Is it possible to find words to define something so vast as the way of life of a people?
- Does a person who "looks Korean" and who has lived in the United States most of his or her life belong to Korean or American culture?
- Is eating rice for breakfast a behavior that makes someone Korean?
- Is an ability to speak Korean a characteristic that makes someone
- Korean?
- Are ethnic Koreans who speak English or Spanish not Korean?

Text 2. CULTURAL DIVERSITY

Read only the title. Predict 5 vocabulary items the article will contain.

Is cultural diversity good or bad? Come up with three arguments supporting each position.

Skim the article. Write down what the main theme of the text is.

It is rare for a society to be culturally **uniform**. As societies develop and become more complex, different cultural traditions appear. The more complex the society, the more likely its culture will be internally varied and diverse. The United States, for example, hosts enormous cultural diversity stemming from religious, ethnic, and racial differences, as well as regional, age, gender, and class differences. Currently, more than 12.5 percent of people in the United States are foreign born. In a single year, immigrants from more than 100 countries come to the United States (U.S. Census Bureau 2009). Whereas earlier immigrants were predominantly from Europe, now Latin America and Asia are the greatest sources of new immigrants. One result is a large increase in the number of U.S. residents for whom English is the second language. Cultural diversity is clearly a characteristic of contemporary American society. The richness of American culture stems from the many traditions that different groups have brought with them to this society, as well as from the cultural

forms that have emerged through their experience within the United States. Jazz, for example, is one of the few musical forms indigenous to the United States. An indigenous art form refers to something that originated in a particular region or culture. However, jazz also has roots in the musical traditions of slave communities and African cultures. Since the birth of jazz, cultural greats such as Ella Fitzgerald, Count Basie, Duke Ellington, Billie Holiday, and numerous others have not only enriched the jazz tradition but have also influenced other forms of music, including rock and roll. Strongly influenced by instruments of culture such as television, the fashion industry, and Anglo-European traditions and includes diverse elements such as fast food, Christmas shopping, and professional sports. It is also a culture that emphasizes achievement and individual effort.

Text 3. SUBCULTURES

What subcultures do you know?

Do you personally belong to a subculture?

Subcultures are the cultures of groups whose values and norms of behavior differ to some degree from those of the **dominant culture.** Members of subcultures tend to interact frequently with one another and share a common worldview. They may be identifiable by their appearance (style of clothing or adornments) or perhaps by language, dialect, or other cultural markers. You can view subcultures along a continuum of how well they are integrated into the dominant culture. Subcultures typically share some elements of the dominant culture and coexist within it, although some subcultures may be quite separated from the dominant one. This separation occurs because they are either unwilling or unable to **assimilate** into the dominant culture, that is, share its values, norms, and beliefs. Rap and hip-hop music first emerged as a subculture where young African Americans developed their own style of dress and music to articulate their resistance to the dominant White culture. Now, rap and hip-hop have been **incorporated** into **mainstream** youth culture. Indeed, they are now global phenomena, as cultural industries have turned hip-hop and rap into a profitable commodity. Even so, rap still expresses an oppositional identity for Black and White youth and other groups who feel marginalized by the dominant culture. Some subcultures retreat from the dominant culture, as do the Amish, some religious cults, and

some communal groups. In these cases, the subculture is actually a separate community that lives as independently from the dominant culture as possible. Other subcultures may coexist with the dominant society, and members of the subculture may participate in both the subculture and the dominant culture. Subcultures also develop when new groups enter a society. Puerto Rican immigration to the U.S. mainland, for example, has generated distinct Puerto Rican subcultures within many urban areas. Although Puerto Ricans also partake in the dominant culture, their **unique heritage** is part of their subcultural experience. Parts of this culture are now entering the dominant culture. Salsa music, now heard on mainstream radio stations, was created in the late 1960s by Puerto Rican musicians who were expressing the contours of their working-class culture. The themes in salsa reflect the experience of barrio people and mix the musical traditions of other Latin music, including rumba, mambo, and cha-cha. As with other subcultures, the boundaries between the dominant culture and the subculture are permeable, resulting in cultural change as new groups enter society.

Exercises

1) Match the terms from A with their definitions from B:

A: 1) norms, 2) popular culture, 3) ethnocentrism, 4) counterculture, 5) values, 6) culture shock, 7) mores, 8) culture, 9) taboos.

B: a) subculture created as a reaction against the values of the dominant culture;

b) the complex system of meaning and behavior that defines the way of life for a given group or society;

c) the feeling of disorientation that can come when one encounters a new or rapidly changed cultural situation;

d) the belief that one's in-group is superior to all out-groups;

e) strict norms that control moral and ethical behavior;

f) the specific cultural expectations for how to act in a given situation;

g) the beliefs, practices, and objects that are part of everyday traditions;

h) those behaviors that bring the most serious sanctions;

i) the abstract standards in a society or group that define ideal principles.

UNIT VI

SEXUAL POLITICS

Text

Do «double standards» (different standards for sexual behavior apply to men and women) flourish in your country?

What does sexual politics refer to?

Skim the article. Write down what the main theme of the text is.

Explain any unknown words you meet in the text. What do the words in bold type in the text mean?

Patterns of sexuality reflect the social organization of society. When you understand this, you also see that sex is related to other social factors – such as race, class, and gender – and you see how sexuality is connected to social institutions and social change.

Sexual politics refers to the link between sexuality and power, not just within individual relationships. The **feminist** movement first linked sexuality to the status of women in society, pointing to the possible exploitation of women within sexual relationships. Sexual politics also refers to the high rates of **violence** against women and sexual **minorities** and the privilege and power accorded to those presumed to be heterosexual. The feminist and gay and lesbian liberation movements have put sexual politics at the center of the public's attention by challenging gender role stereotyping and sexual oppression. Among other things, this has profoundly changed public knowledge of gay and lesbian sexuality. Gay, lesbian, and feminist scholars have argued, and many now concur, that homosexuality is not the result of **psychological deviance** or personal **maladjustment** but is one of several alternatives for happy and intimate social relationships. The political mobilization of many lesbian women and gay men and the willingness of many to make their sexual identity public have also raised public awareness of the civil and personal rights of gays and lesbians. These changes make other changes in intimate relations possible. The Influence of Race, Class, and Gender Sexual behavior follows gendered patterns, as well as patterns established by race and class relations. Gender expectations emphasize passivity for women and assertiveness for men in sexual encounters. The «**double standard**» is the idea that different standards for sexual behavior apply to men and women. Although this idea is weakening

somewhat, men are still stereotyped as sexually overactive; women, less so. Women who openly violate this cultural double standard by being openly sexual are then cast in a negative light as «loose», as if the appropriate role for women is the opposite of «loose», say, «secured» or «caged». The double standard forces women into polarized roles as «good» girls or «bad» girls. The belief that women who are raped must have somehow brought it on themselves rests on the images of women as temptresses. Contrary to popular belief, men do not have a stronger sex drive than women. Men are, however, socialized more often to see sex in terms of performance and achievement, whereas women are more likely socialized to associate sex with intimacy and affection. This double standard also applies in what is now known as the «hooking up» culture among young people. Hooking up is the term used to describe casual sexual relations ranging from kissing to sexual intercourse, relationships that occur without any particular commitment. Although the popular image of hooking up is that it is totally free and without constraint, in fact there are very gendered norms within this behavior. Women who «hook up» too frequently or with too many different partners are likely to be judged «slutty». Men who do the same things are not judged in the same way. They may be seen as «players», but there is not the same shame or attribution of guilt that is targeted at women. Sexual politics are also integrally tied to race and class inequality in society. You can see this in the sexual **stereotypes** associated with race and class. Latinas are stereotyped as either «hot» or «virgins»; Latin men are stereotyped as «hot lovers»; African American men are stereotyped as overly virile; Asian American women are stereotyped as compliant and submissive, but passionate. Class relations also produce sexual stereotypes of women and men. Working-class and poor men may be stereotyped as dangerous, whereas working-class women may be disproportionately labeled «sluts». You could see sexual politics play out during the **public outcry** when a young, unmarried woman on public assistance delivered octuplets, following in vitro fertilization. The young woman, Nadya Suleman (dubbed «Octomom» by the media), was already the mother of six children. She was completely scorned in the media for having poor judgment as a mother. At the very same time, a reality TV show, Jon and Kate Plus Eight, depicted a family with eight children as fun and lovable, not despicable and undeserving as was the case with Nadya Suleman. You can

understand this seeming contradiction in a frame of sexual politics. Nadya Suleman was unmarried, an Iraqi immigrant, and also on public assistance – thus judged more harshly than the heterosexual, middleclass Gosselin family in Jon and Kate Plus Eight. This example illustrates a point often made by sociologists: class, race, and gender hierarchies historically depict people of color and certain women as sexually promiscuous and uncontrollable .During slavery, for example, the sexual abuse of African American women was one way that slave owners expressed their ownership of African American people. Access to women slaves' sexuality was seen as a right of the slave owner. Under slavery, racist and sexist images of Black men and women were developed to justify the system of slavery. In other contexts, poor women and women of color are the groups most vulnerable to sexual violence and exploitation. Becoming a prostitute, or otherwise working in the se artist, pornographic actress, or other sex-based occupation), is often the last resort for women with limited options to support themselves. Women who sell sex also are condemned for their behavior more so than their male clients – further illustration of how gender stereotypes mix with race and class exploitation. Why, for example, are women, and not their male clients, arrested for prostitution? Although the Uniform Crime Statistics data do not report on the arrest rates of customers, prostitutes themselves claim that only about 10 percent of those arrested for prostitution are customers and that women of color are more likely to be arrested for prostitution than are White women, even though they are a smaller percentage of all prostitutes. Although these are not scientific data, they suggest the role that gender and race play in how laws against prostitution are enforced.

Exercises

1) *Debate:* Over time in a society, sexual attitudes become more permissive.

2) Are people in your age group generally sexually conservative or sexually liberal?

3) What factors influence young people's attitudes about sexuality?

4) Do you think heterosexuality is enforced?

5) Give examples of homophobia and heterosexism as you observe in routine social behavior.

UNIT VII

RESEARCH

What research methods are you aware of?

What methods are most frequently used in sociology?

Read the texts and think about how you would prefer to conduct your research? What methods will you chose and why?

Skim the article. Write down what the main theme of the text is.

Explain any unknown words you meet in the text. What do the words in bold type in the text mean?

Sociological research is the tool sociologists use to answer questions. There are various methods that sociologists use to do research, all of which involve rigorous observation and careful analysis. Sociologist Mitch Duneier (1999) examined several questions about a group of homeless people by living with them. Duneier was engaged in what is called **participant observation** – a sociological research technique in which the researcher actually becomes simultaneously both participant in and observer of that which she or he studies. In another example of participant observation, sociologist Peter Moskos (2008), as research for his doctoral dissertation, actually went through a police academy and spent two years as a beat policeman in a major American city, thus subjecting himself to both the rigid discipline of the police force as well as the dangers of the street in this role. There are other kinds of sociological research that sociologists do as well. Some approaches are more structured and focused than participant observation, such as survey research. Other methods may involve the use of official records or interviews. The different approaches used reflect the different questions asked in the first place. Other methods may require statistical analysis of a large set of quantitative information. Either way, the chosen research method must be appropriate to the sociological question being asked. (In the Doing Sociological Research boxes throughout this book, we explore different research projects that sociologists have done, showing what question they started with, how they did their research, and what they found.) However it is done, research is an engaging and demanding process. It requires skill, careful observation, and the ability to think logically about the things that spark your sociological curiosity.

Text 2. SOCIOLOGY AND SCIENTIFIC METHOD

Sociological research derives from what is called the scientific method, originally defined and elaborated by the British philosopher Sir Francis Bacon (1561–1626). The scientific method involves several steps in a research process, including observation, hypothesis testing, analysis of data, and generalization. Since its beginnings, sociology has attempted to **adhere to** the scientific method. To the degree that it has succeeded, sociology is a science; yet, there is also an art to developing sociological knowledge. Sociology aspires to be both scientific and humanistic, but sociological research varies in how strictly it adheres to the scientific method. Some sociologists test hypotheses; others use more open-ended methods, such as in Duneier's study of homeless men or in Moskos's study of police officers on the beat. Science is **empirical**, meaning it is based on careful and systematic observation, not just on conjecture. Although some sociological studies are highly quantitative and statistically sophisticated, others are qualitatively based, that is, based on more interpretive observations, not statistical analysis. Both quantitative and qualitative studies are empirical. Sociological studies may be based on surveys, observations, and many other forms of analysis, but they always depend on an empirical underpinning. Sociological knowledge is not the same as philosophy or personal belief. Philosophy, theology, and personal experience can deliver insights into human behavior, but at the heart of the scientific method is the notion that a theory must be **testable**. This requirement distinguishes science from purely humanistic pursuits such as theology and literature. One wellspring of sociological insight is deductive reasoning. When a sociologist uses deductive reasoning, he or she creates a specific research question about a focused point that is based on a more general or universal principle . Here is an example of deductive reasoning: One might reason that because Catholic doctrine forbids abortion, Catholics would then be less likely than other religious groups to support abortion rights. This notion is «deduced» from a general principle (Catholic doctrine). You could test this notion (the research question) via a survey. As it turns out, the testing of this hypothesis shows that it is incorrect: Surveys show that Catholics are more likely to support abortion rights than are other religious groups. Inductive reasoning –

another source of sociological insight – reverses this logic: that is, it arrives at general conclusions from specific observations. For example, if you observe that most of the demonstrators protesting abortion in front of a family planning clinic are evangelical Christians, you might infer that strongly held religious beliefs are important in determining human behavior. Again, inductive reasoning would begin with one's observations. Either way – **deductively** or **inductively** – you are engaged in research.

Text 3. QUANTITATIVE VERSUS QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

DO sociologists prefer qualitative or quantitative research? Why do you think so? Recollect some research papers you have read? What methods do they adhere to?

The research design often involves deciding whether the research will be qualitative or quantitative or perhaps some combination of both. **Quantitative** research is that which uses numerical analysis. In essence, this approach reduces the data into numbers, for example, the percentage of teenage mothers in California. **Qualitative** research is somewhat less structured than quantitative research, yet still focuses on a central research question. Qualitative research allows for more interpretation and nuance in what people say and do and thus can provide an in-depth look at a particular social behavior. Both forms of research are useful, and both are used extensively in sociology. Some research designs involve the testing of hypotheses. A **hypothesis** (pronounced is a prediction or a hunch, a tentative assumption that one intends to test). If you have a research design that calls for the investigation of a very specific hunch, you might formulate a hypothesis. Hypotheses are often formulated as if–then statements. For example: Hypothesis: If a person's parents are racially prejudiced, then that person will, on average, be more prejudiced than a person whose parents are relatively free of prejudice.

Not all sociological research follows the model of hypothesis testing, but all research does include a plan for how **data will be gathered**. Data can be qualitative or quantitative; either way, they are still data. Sociologists often try to convert their observations into a quantitative. Sociologists frequently design research to test the influence of one variable on another. A variable is a characteristic that can have more than one value or score. A variable can be relatively

straightforward, such as age or income, or a variable may be more abstract, such as social class or degree of prejudice. In much sociological research, variables are analyzed to understand how they influence each other. With proper measurement techniques and a good research design, the relationships between different variables can be discerned. In the example of student athletes given above, the variables you use would likely be student graduation rates, gender, and perhaps the sport played. In the hypothesis about race prejudice, parental prejudice and their child's prejudice would be the two variables you would study. An **independent variable** is one that the researcher wants to test as the presumed cause of something else. The **dependent variable** is one on which there is a presumed effect. That is, if X is the independent variable, then X leads to Y, the dependent variable. In the previous example of the hypothesis, the amount of prejudice of the parent is the independent variable, and the amount of prejudice of the child is the dependent variable. In some sociological research, **intervening** variables are also studied – variables that fall between the independent and dependent variables. Sociological research proceeds through the study of concepts. A **concept** is any abstract characteristic or attribute that can potentially be measured. Social class and social power are concepts. These are not things that can be seen directly, although they are key concepts in the field of sociology. When sociologists want to study concepts, they must develop ways of "seeing" them. Variables are sometimes used to show more abstract concepts that cannot be directly measured, such as the concept of social class. In such cases the variables are **indicators –** something that points to or reflects an abstract concept. An indicator is a way of «seeing» a concept. An example is shown on the United Nations' human development index. Here, the human development index is composed of several indicators, including life expectancy and educational attainment, combined to show levels of well-being. «Level of well-being» is the concept. The **validity** of a measurement (an indicator) is the degree to which it accurately measures or reflects a concept. To ensure the validity of their findings, researchers usually use more than one indicator for a particular concept.

Another technique is to have a variety of people gather the data to make certain the results are not skewed by the tester's appearance, personality, and so forth. The researcher must be sensitive to all

factors that affect the reliability of a study. Sometimes sociologists want to gather data that would almost certainly be **unreliable** if the **subjects** (the people in the study) knew they were being studied. Knowing that they are being studied might cause people to change their behavior, a phenomenon in research known as the **Hawthorne** effect – an effect first discovered while observing work groups at a Western Electric plant in Hawthorne, Illinois. The work groups increased their productivity right after they were observed by the researchers – an effect not noticed at first by the researchers themselves.

Exercises

1) Answer the questions below:

- Is sociological research scientific?
- What is the difference between qualitative research and quantitative research?
- Can sociology be value free?

Is the research based on a truly random scientific sample, or is it biased?

- Who benefits from the study's conclusions?
- If you wanted to conduct research that would examine the relationship between student alcohol use and family background, what measures, or indicators, would you use **to get at the two variables: alcohol use and family background?**
- How might you design your study?

GLOSSARY

absolute poverty: the situation in which individuals live on less than $365 a year, or $1.00 a day

age discrimination: different and unequal treatment of people based solely on their age

assimilation: process by which a minority becomes socially, economically, and culturally absorbed within the dominant society

bureaucracy: a type of formal organization characterized by an authority hierarchy, a clear division of labor, explicit rules, and impersonality

capitalism: an economic system based on the principles of market competition, private property, and the pursuit of profit

census: a count of the entire population of a country

communism: an economic system where the state is the sole owner of the systems of production

core countries (core nations): within world systems theory, those nations that are more technologically advanced

counterculture: subculture created as a reaction against the values of the dominant culture

cultural capital: (also known as social capital) cultural resources that are socially designated as being worthy (such as knowledge of elite culture) and that give advantages to groups possessing such capital

cultural diffusion: the transmission of cultural elements from one society or cultural group to another

culture: the complex system of meaning and behavior that defines the way of life for a given group or society

culture lag: the delay in cultural adjustments to changing social conditions

culture shock: the feeling of disorientation that can come when one encounters a new or rapidly changed cultural situation

democracy: system of government based on the principle of representing all people through the right to vote

demography: the scientific c study of population

deviance: behavior that is recognized as violating expected rulesand norms

discrimination: overt negative and unequal treatment of the members of some social group or stratum solely because of their membership in that group or stratum

diversity: the variety of group experiences that result from the social structure of society

economy: the system on which the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services is based

emigration (vs. immigration): migration of people from one society to another

ethnocentrism: the belief that one's in-group is superior to all out-groups

extended families: the whole network of parents, children, and other relatives who form a family unit and often reside together

extreme poverty: the situation in which people live on less than $275 a year, or 75 cents a day

family: a primary group of people – usually related by ancestry, marriage, or adoption – who form a cooperative economic unit to care for any offspring (and each other) and who are committed to maintaining the group over time

first-world countries: industrialized nations based on a market economy and with democratically elected governments

glass ceiling: popular concept referring to the limits that women and minorities experience in job mobility

globalization: increased economic ,political, and social interconnectedness and interdependence among societies in the world

government: those state institutions that represent the population and make rules that govern the society

greenhouse effect: a rise in the earth's surface temperature caused by heat trapped by excess carbon dioxide in the atmosphere; global warming

gross national income (GNI): the total output of goods and services produced by residents of a country each year plus the income from nonresident sources, divided by the size of the population

group: a collection of individuals who interact and communicate, share goals and norms, and who have a subjective awareness as "we"

human capital theory: a theory that explains differences in wages as the result of differences in the individual characteristics of the workers

hypothesis: a statement about what one expects to find in research

ideology: a belief system that tries to explain and justify the status quo

immigration (vs. emigration): the migration of people into a society from outside it (also called in-migration)

income: the amount of money brought into a household from various sources during a given year (wages, investment income, dividends, etc.)

internalization: a process by which a part of culture becomes incorporated into the personality

international division of labor: system of labor whereby products are produced globally, while profits accrue only to a few

kinship system: the pattern of relationships that defi ne people's family relationships to one another

labor force participation rate: the percentage of those in a given category who are employed

law: the written set of guidelines that define what is right and wrong in society

life chances: the opportunities that people have in common by virtue of belonging to a particular class

life expectancy: the average number of years individuals and particular groups can expect to live

matriarchy: a society or group in which women have power over men

median income: the midpoint of all household incomes

Medicaid: a governmental assistance program that provides health care assistance for the poor, including the elderly in the US

minority group: any distinct group in society that shares common group characteristics and is forced to occupy low status in society because of prejudice and discrimination

mores: strict norms that control moral and ethical behavior

multinational corporation: corporations that conduct business across national borders

nationalism: the strong identity associated with an extreme sense of allegiance to one's culture or nation

norms: the specific cultural expectations for how to act in a given situation

nuclear family: family in which a married couple resides together with their children

pluralism: pattern whereby groups maintain their distinctive culture and history

popular culture: the beliefs, practices, and objects that are part of everyday traditions

postindustrial society: a society economically dependent upon the production and distribution of services, information, and knowledge

poverty line: the figure established by the government to indicate the amount of money needed to support the basic needs of a household

relative poverty: a definition of poverty that is set in comparison to a set standard

revolution: the overthrow of a state or the total transformation of central state institutions

role: behavior others expect from a person associated with a particular status

second-world countries: countries with state-managed economies and typically without a democratically elected government

segregation: the spatial and social separation of racial and ethnic groups

sex trafficking: refers to the practice whereby women, usually very young women, are forced by fraud or coercion into commercial sex acts

social change: the alteration of social interaction, social institutions, stratification systems, and elements of culture over time

social class: the social structural hierarchical position groups hold relative to the economic, social, political, and cultural resources of society

social institution: an established and organized system of social behavior with a recognized purpose

social mobility: a person's movement over time from one class to another

social movement: a group that acts with some continuity and organization to promote or resist social change in society

social stratification: a relatively fixed hierarchical arrangement in society by which groups have different access to resources, power, and perceived social worth; a system of structured social inequality

social structure: the patterns of social relationships and social institutions that make up society

socialism: an economic institution characterized by state ownership and management of the basic industries

socialization: the process through which people learn the expectations

of society socialization agents: those who pass on social expectations

society: a system of social interaction that includes both culture and social organization

sociology: the study of human behavior in society

state: the organized system of power and authority in society

status: an established position in a social structure that carries with it a degree of prestige

stereotype: an oversimplified set of beliefs about the members of a social group or social stratum that is used to categorize individuals of that group

taboos: those behaviors that bring the most serious sanctions

terrorism: the unlawful use of force or violence against persons or property to intimidate or coerce a government or population in furtherance of political or social objectives

third-world countries: countries that are poor, underdeveloped, largely rural, and with high levels of poverty; typically governments in such countries are autocratic dictatorships and wealth is concentrated in the hands of a small elite

transnational family: families where one parent (or both) lives and works in one country while the children remain in their country of origin

urbanization: the process by which a community acquires the characteristics of city life

values: the abstract standards in a society or group that define ideal principles

work: productive human activity that produces something of value, either goods or services

xenophobia: the fear and hatred of foreigners.

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