

HISTORY AND SOCIOLOGY OF CLOTHING : SOME METHODOLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS pdf

1: Table of contents for The language of fashion

Table of contents. Contents Preface Part I. Clothing History 1. History and Sociology of Clothing. Some Methodological Observations 2. Language and Clothing 3.

The earliest writings on the subject were completed by sociologists attempting to construct a canon and a history of the discipline reaching into the distant past. This style of history remained important in sociology for a very long period in American sociology and was part of the original remit of the flagship journal of what was then called the American Sociological Society in This changed after with the generation of Robert Merton and Talcott Parsons but persisted in Europe as academic sociology was refounded in specific national academic settings as a taught field and in the light of a new internationalism. Historians began writing in earnest about the subject in the s and s. Although this line has blurred in recent years, there is a basic distinction between work that is historical in the sense of being based on archives and work that interprets books. Both are found here. Sociology has generally been less celebratory of its own history than psychology and lacks the rich autobiographical material that psychology has generated, but there is now a certain amount of online material, sometimes in the form of oral history interviews for university archives, that tells the stories of individual careers, and a small number of books that can serve as primary sources. Sociology also has a close relation to social reform, so the historian of sociology needs to understand the various reform movements and organizations that interacted with it. British developments paralleled American reform movements and require a similar approach. In Europe, there was also a social reform movement prior to Second World War, but it was eclipsed by the postwar welfare state and the ideological movements of the Left, which have a complex and largely unanalyzed relation to academic sociology. These relations are clearer in the context of the Frankfurt School, which was not a part of academic sociology originally but which later produced academic sociologists in Germany and elsewhere in Europe and influenced many sociologists internationally. This bibliography attempts to provide the rudiments of a background to researchers and students with an interest in this rich history. General Overviews General overviews of the history of social thought leading to and including the era of scientific sociology were characteristic of the early decades of sociology. This genre is virtually nonexistent today. However, some of these early anthologies still have considerable value as guides to relatively obscure figures in the history of sociology and as evidence of the thinking of their authors, who are now of historical interest. The differences in the books reflect very different interpretations of the past and different eras of interpretation. Among the major overviews are Sorokin , which makes shrewd observations that are still relevant today, and Ellwood , a bestseller with a public audience that paralleled standard American texts in the history of philosophy and the history of political theory but was side-lined during the postwar period. Barnes and Becker is even more comprehensive. Parsons was an attempt to reorient the canon and succeeded in doing so. McDonald provides a feminist reinterpretation of the canon, bringing in many women. The most recent major attempt at comprehensive coverage is Levine Coser was a standard source in the s, and the choices of subjects and interpretation reflect the era, but it remains valuable as an introduction to the thinkers in the canon of the time. Barnes, Harry Elmer, and Howard Becker. Social thought from lore to science. Masters of sociological thought: Ideas in historical and social context. Although this is a textbook, it was a dominant source for biographical interpretation in the s and remains accessible and readable. Originally published in A history of social philosophy. A bestseller in its time, this book explicates thinkers from the Enlightenment to the early 20th century by placing their thought in context and in relation to others. Visions of the sociological tradition. A large, reflexive, and very up-to-date reconsideration of the tradition. The early origins of the social sciences. Beginning with the Greeks, this book is concerned with recognizing feminist issues and women social thinkers. The structure of social action.

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2: History of Sociology - Sociology - Oxford Bibliographies

Some Methodological Observations 3 2 *Language and Clothing* 21 3 *Towards Sociology of Dress* 33 II *Systems and Structures* 4 4 *Blue is in Fashion This Year* 41 5 *From Gemstones to Jewellery* 59 6 *Dandyism and Fashion* 65 7 [An Early Preface to] *The Fashion System* 70 8 *Fashion, a Strategy of Desire* (round-table discussion with Jean Duvignaud and.

Indeed, the ubiquity of historical development of sociology. Though sociology draws on the Western tradition of rational inquiry established by the ancient Greeks, it is specifically the offspring of 18th- and 19th-century philosophy and has been viewed, along with economics and political science, as a reaction against speculative philosophy and folklore. Consequently, sociology separated from moral philosophy to become a specialized discipline. While he is not credited with the founding of the discipline of sociology, French philosopher Auguste Comte is recognized for having coined the term sociology. The founders of sociology spent decades searching for the proper direction of the new discipline. They tried several highly divergent pathways, some driven by methods and contents borrowed from other sciences, others invented by the scholars themselves. To better view the various turns the discipline has taken, the development of sociology may be divided into four periods: Founding the discipline Some of the earliest sociologists developed an approach based on Darwinian evolutionary theory. In their attempts to establish a scientifically based academic discipline, a line of creative thinkers, including Herbert Spencer, Benjamin Kidd, Lewis H. Tylor, and L. Hobhouse, developed analogies between human society and the biological organism. They introduced into sociological theory such biological concepts as variance, natural selection, and inheritance—asserting that these evolutionary factors resulted in the progress of societies from stages of savagery and barbarism to civilization by virtue of the survival of the fittest. Some writers believed that these stages of society could be seen in the developmental stages of each individual. Although the popularity of social Darwinism waned in the 20th century, the ideas on competition and analogies from biological ecology were appropriated by the Chicago School of sociology at the University of Chicago program focusing on urban studies, founded by Albion Small in to form the theory of human ecology that endures as a viable study approach. Replacing Darwinist determinism Since the initial interest in evolutionary theory, sociologists have considered four deterministic theories to replace social Darwinism. This search for new approaches began prior to World War I as emphasis shifted from economic theory to geographic, psychological, and cultural theory—roughly in that order. Economic determinism The first theory, economic determinism, reflects the interest many sociologists had in the thought of Karl Marx, such as the idea that social differentiation and class conflict resulted from economic factors. This approach had its greatest popularity in Europe, where it remained a strong influence on some sociologists until the s. It did not gain a significant foothold in the United States, because American society was thought to be socially mobile, classless, and oriented to the individual. This neglect of Marxism by American sociologists, however, was not due to scholarly ignorance. Sociologists of all periods had read Marx as well as Charles A. Instead, in the s, neo-Marxism—an amalgam of theories of stratification by Marx and Max Weber—gained strong support among a minority of sociologists. Their enthusiasm lasted about 30 years, ebbing with the breakup of the Soviet system and the introduction of postindustrial doctrines that linked class systems to a bygone industrial era. The persistence of social and economic inequality is now explained as a complex outcome of factors, including gender, race, and region, as well as global trade and national politics. Human ecology Representing the second theoretical area, human geographers—Ellsworth Huntington, Ellen Semple, Friedrich Ratzel, Paul Vidal de La Blache, Jean Brunhes, and others—emphasized the impact of climate and geography on the evolution of those societies that flourished in temperate zones. Their theories found no place in mainstream sociological thought, however, except for a brief period in the s when human ecology sought to explain social change by linking environmental conditions with demographic, organizational, and technological factors. Human ecology remains a small but vital part of sociology today. Social psychology Psychological theories

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emphasized instincts, drives, motives, temperament, intelligence, and human sociability in social behaviour and societal evolution. Social psychology modifies these concepts to explain the broader phenomena of social interaction or small group behaviour. Although American sociology even today retains an individualistic and therefore psychological bias, by the s sociologists had concluded that psychological factors alone could not explain the behaviour of larger groups and societies. Cultural theory Finally, cultural theories of the s emphasized human ability to innovate, accumulate, and diffuse culture. Heavily influenced by social and cultural anthropology , many sociologists concluded that culture was the most important factor in accounting for its own evolution and that of society. By cultural and social explanations of societal growth and change were accepted, with economic, geographic, and biopsychological factors playing subsidiary roles. Early schools of thought Early functionalism Scholars who established sociology as a legitimate social science were careful to distinguish it from biology and psychology, fields that had also begun to generalize about human behaviour. They did this by developing specific methods for the study of society. To Durkheim the interrelations between the parts of society contributed to social unityâ€”an integrated system with life characteristics of its own, exterior to individuals yet driving their behaviour. By positing a causal direction of social influence from group to individual rather than the reverse, the model accepted by most biologists and psychologists of the time , Durkheim gave a much-needed framework to the new science of sociology. Durkheim pointed out that groups can be held together on two contrasting bases: Radcliffe-Brown , developed a doctrine of functionalism that emphasized the interrelatedness of all parts of society. They theorized that a change in any single element would produce a general disturbance in the whole society. This doctrine eventually gained such a following among social anthropologists that some advocated a policy of complete noninterference, even with objectionable practices in preliterate societies such as cannibalism or head-hunting , for fear that eliminating the practice might produce far-reaching social disorganization. The functionalist-conflict debate American sociology began undergoing significant development in the s. The monumental growth of university enrollment and research after World War II was fueled by generous federal and private funding of research. Sociologists sought to enhance their status as scientists by pursuing empirical research and by conducting qualitative analysis of significant social problems. Many universities developed large research organizations that spurred important advances in survey research application, measurement, and social statistics. At the forefront were Columbia University focusing on cultural surveys and the University of Chicago specializing in quantitative analysis of social conditions and detailed studies of urban problems. The struggle over the meaningful use of statistics and theory in research began at this time and remained a continuing debate in the discipline. The gap between empirical research and theory persisted, in part because functionalist theory seemed divorced from the empirical research programs that defined midth-century sociology. Along with Robert K. Merton and others, Parsons classified such structures on the basis of their functions. This approach, called structural-functional analysis and also known as systems theory , was applied so broadly that Marion Levy and Kingsley Davis suggested it was synonymous with the scientific study of social organization. It also ignored the potential of the individual within society. Their interpretation of class conflict seemed consistent with the principal tenet of general conflict theory: Rising segmentation of the discipline The early schools of thought each presented a systematic formulation of sociology that implied possession of exclusive truth and that involved a conviction of the need to destroy rival systems. By the era of growth, optimism, and surface consensus in sociology had come to an end. The functionalist-conflict debate signaled further and permanent divisions in the discipline, and virtually all textbooks presented it as the main theoretical divide, despite Lewis A. Conflict is not necessarily negative, argued Coser in *The Functions of Social Conflict* , because it can ultimately foster social cohesiveness by identifying social problems to be overcome. In the late s, however, attention to other, everyday social processes such as those elaborated by the Chicago School competition, accommodation, and assimilation ceased appearing in textbooks. In its extreme form, conflict theory helped revive the critical theory of the Frankfurt School that wholly rejected all sociological theories of the time as proponents of the status quo. These theoretical divisions themselves

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became institutionalized in the study and practice of sociology, which suggested that debates on approach would likely remain unresolved. Major modern developments One of the consequences of the functionalist-conflict divide, recognized by the s as unbridgeable, was a decline in general theory building. Others were growing specialization and controversy over methodology and approach. Communication between the specialties also diminished, even as ideological disputes and other disagreements persisted within the specialty areas. New academic journals were introduced to meet the needs of the emerging specializations, but this further obscured the core of the discipline by causing scholars to focus on microsociological issues. Interestingly, theory building grew within the specialtiesâ€”fractured as they wereâ€”especially as international comparative research increased contact with other social sciences. Social stratification Since social stratification is the most binding and central concern of sociology, changes in the study of social stratification reflect trends in the entire discipline. The founders of sociologyâ€”including Weberâ€”thought that the United States, unlike Europe, was a classless society with a high degree of upward mobility. During the Great Depression , however, Robert and Helen Lynd , in their famous Middletown studies, documented the deep divide between the working and the business classes in all areas of community life. Lloyd Warner and colleagues at Harvard University applied anthropological methods to study the Social Life of a Modern Community and found six social classes with distinct subcultures: From the s to the s, research in social stratification was influenced by the attainment model of stratification, initiated at the University of Wisconsin by William H. Attempting to build a general theory, Gerhard Lenski shifted attention to whole societies and proposed an evolutionary theory in Power and Privilege demonstrating that the dominant forms of production hunting and gathering, horticulture, agriculture, and industry were consistently associated with particular systems of stratification. This theory was enthusiastically accepted, but only by a minority of sociologists. Addressing the contemporary world, Marion Levy theorized in Modernization and the Structures of Societies that underdeveloped nations would inevitably develop institutions that paralleled those of the more economically advanced nations , which ultimately would lead to a global convergence of societies. Wallerstein averred that advanced industrial nations would develop most rapidly and thereby widen global inequality by holding the developing nations in a permanent state of dependency. Having been challenged as a male-dominated approach, traditional stratification theory was massively reconstructed in the s to address the institutional gender inequalities found in all societies. Rae Lesser Blumberg, drawing on the work of Lenski and economist Esther Boserup, theorized the basis of persistent inequality in Stratification, Socioeconomic, and Sexual Inequality Janet Saltzman Chafetz took economic, psychological, and sociological factors into account in Gender Equity: An Integrated Theory of Stability and Change Traditional theories of racial inequality were challenged and revised by William Julius Wilson in The Truly Disadvantaged His book uncovered mechanisms that maintained segregation and disorganization in African American communities. Disciplinary specialization, especially in the areas of gender, race, and Marxism, came to dominate sociological inquiry. For example, Eric Olin Wright, in Classes , introduced a class scheme of occupational stratification based on ownership, supervisory control of work, and monopolistic knowledge. The nuanced differences between social groups were further investigated in Divided We Stand by William Form, whose analysis of labour markets revealed deep permanent fissures within working classes previously thought to be uniform. Some investigative specializations, however, were short-lived. Despite their earlier popularity, ethnographic studies of communities, such as those by Hunter, Warner, and the Lynds, were increasingly abandoned in the s and virtually forgotten by the s. Like economists, sociologists have increasingly turned to large-scale surveys and government data banks as sources for their research. Social stratification theory and research continue to undergo change and have seen substantive reappraisal ever since the breakup of the Soviet system. Interdisciplinary influences The significant growth of sociological inquiry after World War II prompted interest in historical and political sociology. Theoretical, Comparative and Historical Studies , and Arthur Stinchcombe in Constructing Social Theories made comparative studies of revolutions and proposed structural theories to explain the origins and spread of revolution. Sociologists who brought international and

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historical perspectives to their study of institutions such as education, welfare, religion, the family, and the military were forced to reconsider long-held theories and methodologies. As was the case in almost all areas of specialization, new journals were founded. Sociological specialties were enriched by contact with other social sciences, especially political science and economics. Political sociology, for example, studied the social basis of party voting and partisan politics, spurring comparison of decision-making processes in city, state, and national governments. Still, sociologists split along ideological lines, much as they had in the functionalist-conflict divide, with some reporting that decisions were made pluralistically and democratically and others insisting that decisions were made by economic and political elites. Eventually, voting and community power studies were abandoned by sociologists, and those areas were left largely to political scientists. From its inception, the study of social movements looked closely at interpersonal relations formed in the mobilization phase of collective action. Beginning in the s, scholars focused more deeply on the long-term consequences of social movements, especially on evaluating the ways such movements have propelled societal change. In short, countering the general trend, social movement research became better integrated into other specialties, especially in political and organizational sociology. Stratification studies and organizational sociology were broadened to include economic phenomena such as labour markets and the behaviour of businesses. Econometric methods were also introduced from economics.

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3: Observational methods in psychology - Wikipedia

If Kate begins her research with a theory, then forms hypotheses and makes some observations, what approach is she using? deductive If a sociologist collects data on only one high school in a study of the effectiveness of its parent-teacher association, he or she is using which of the following research methods?

Time sampling[edit] Time sampling is a sampling method that involves the acquisition of representative samples by observing subjects at different time intervals. These time intervals can be chosen randomly or systematically. If a researcher chooses to use systematic time sampling, the information obtained would only generalize to the one time period in which the observation took place. In contrast, the goal of random time sampling would be to be able to generalize across all times of observation. Depending on the type of study being conducted, either type of time sampling can be appropriate. However, time sampling is not useful if the event pertaining to your research question occurs infrequently or unpredictably, because you will often miss the event in the short time period of observation. In this scenario, event sampling is more useful. In this style of sampling, the researcher lets the event determine when the observations will take place. **Situation sampling**[edit] Situation sampling involves the study of behavior in many different locations, and under different circumstances and conditions. For this reason, situation sampling significantly increases the external validity of observational findings. Researchers may determine which subjects to observe by either selecting subjects systematically every 10th student in a cafeteria, for example or randomly, with the goal of obtaining a representative sample of all subjects. In this study, pairs of individuals were observed in college cafeterias, restaurants, airport and hospital waiting rooms, and business-district fast-food outlets. By using situation sampling, the investigators were able to observe a wide range of people who differed in age, sex, race, and socioeconomic class, thus increasing the external validity of their research findings. **Direct observational methods**[edit] **Observation without intervention**[edit] If researchers wish to study how subjects normally behave in a given setting, they will want to utilize observation without intervention, also known as naturalistic observation. This type of observation is useful because it allows observers to see how individuals act in natural settings, rather than in the more artificial setting of a lab or experiment. A natural setting can be defined as a place in which behavior ordinarily occurs and that has not been arranged specifically for the purpose of observing behavior. For instance, the IRB does not allow researchers interested in investigating verbal abuse between adolescent couples to place couples in laboratory settings where verbal abuse is encouraged. However, by placing oneself in a public space where this abuse may occur, one can observe this behavior without being responsible for causing it. Naturalistic observation can also be used to verify external validity, permitting researchers to examine whether study findings generalize to real world scenarios. Naturalistic observation may also be conducted in lieu of structured experiments when implementing an experiment would be too costly. Observation without intervention may be either overt meaning that subjects are aware they are being observed or covert meaning that subjects are not aware. There are several disadvantages and limitations to naturalistic observation. One is that it does not allow researchers to make causal statements about the situations they observe. For this reason, behavior can only be described, not explained. Furthermore, there are ethical concerns related to observing individuals without their consent. One way to avoid this problem is to debrief subjects after observing them, and ask for their consent then, before using the observations for research. This tactic would also help avoid one of the pitfalls of overt observation, in which observers ask for consent before observation has started. In these situations, when subjects know they are being watched, they may alter their behavior in an attempt to make themselves look more admirable. Naturalistic observation may also be time consuming, sometimes requiring dozens of observation sessions lasting large parts of each day to collect information on the behavior of interest. **Observation with intervention**[edit] Most psychological research uses observation with some component of intervention. Reasons for intervening include: **Participant observation**[edit] Participant observation is characterized as either undisguised or disguised. In undisguised

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observation, the observed individuals know that the observer is present for the purpose of collecting info about their behavior. This technique is often used to understand the culture and behavior of groups or individuals. This technique is often used when researchers believe that the individuals under observation may change their behavior as a result of knowing that they were being recorded. There are several benefits to doing participant observation. Firstly, participant research allows researchers to observe behaviors and situations that are not usually open to scientific observation. Furthermore, participant research allows the observer to have the same experiences as the people under study, which may provide important insights and understandings of individuals or groups. Firstly, participant observers may sometimes lose their objectivity as a result of participating in the study. This usually happens when observers begin to identify with the individuals under study, and this threat generally increases as the degree of observer participation increases. Secondly, participant observers may unduly influence the individuals whose behavior they are recording. This effect is not easily assessed, however, it generally more prominent when the group being observed is small, or if the activities of the participant observer are prominent. The dilemma here is of course that if informed consent were obtained from participants, respondents would likely choose not to cooperate. Structured observation is frequently employed by clinical and developmental psychologists, or for studying animals in the wild. One benefit to structured observation is that it allows researchers to record behaviors that may be difficult to observe using naturalistic observation, but that are more natural than the artificial conditions imposed in a lab. However, problems in interpreting structured observations can occur when the same observation procedures are not followed across observations or observers, or when important variables are not controlled across observations. This method represents the most extreme form of intervention in observational methods, and researchers are able to exert more control over the study and its participants. However, confounding may decrease internal validity of a study, and ethical issues may arise in studies involving high-risk. Indirect observational methods[edit] Indirect observation can be used if one wishes to be entirely unobtrusive in their observation method. This can often be useful if a researcher is approaching a particularly sensitive topic that would be likely to elicit reactivity in the subject. There are also potential ethical concerns that are avoided by using the indirect observational method. These remnants could be any number of items, and are usually divided into two main categories. Use traces indicate the use or non-use of an item. Fingerprints, for example, fall into the category of use traces, along with candy wrappers, cigarette cartons, and countless other objects. In contrast, products are the creations or artifacts of behavior. An example of a product might be a painting, a song, a dance or television. Whereas use traces tell us more about the behavior of an individual, products speak more to contemporary cultural themes. Examining physical trace evidence is an invaluable tool to psychologists, for they can gain information in this manner that they might not normally be able to obtain through other observational techniques. One issue with this method of research is the matter of validity. Archival records[edit] Archival records are the documents that describe the activities of people at a certain time point or time period. Running records are continuously updated. Episodic records, on the other hand, describe specific events that only happened once. Archival records are especially useful since they can be used as supplementary evidence for physical trace evidence. This keeps the whole data collection process of the observational study entirely unobtrusive. However, one must also be wary of the risk of selective deposit, which is the selective addition and omission of information to an archival record. There could be easily overlooked biases inherent in many archival records. Recording behavior[edit] There are both qualitative and quantitative means of recording observations. To communicate qualitative information, observers rely on narrative records. This may consist of video footage, audio recordings, or field notes. Video footage, for instance, is helpful in reducing the effect that the observers presence may have on subjects. Quantitative measures can be recorded through measurement scales. Observers may be interested in making checklists, marking how frequently a certain behavior occurs, or how long it lasts. Researchers can help foster higher interobserver reliability if they clearly define the constructs they are interested in measuring. If there is low inter-observer reliability, it is likely that the construct being observed is too ambiguous, and the observers are

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all imparting their own interpretations. Having a clear coding system is key to achieving high levels of inter-observer reliability. Observers and researchers must come to a consensus ahead of time regarding how behaviors are defined, and what constructs these behaviors represent. A "pause," for instance, was defined as three or more seconds of silence; a "laugh" coded for all positive affective reactions. Reactivity[edit] In observation studies, individuals may change their behaviour in response to being observed. Their behaviour is therefore no longer representative, as it has changed due to the presence of the observer. The main observer biases to be wary of are expectancy effects. When the observer has an expectation as to what they will observe, they are more likely to report that they saw what they expected. Using blind observers is an excellent technique. Observers are blind if they do not know the research hypotheses of the study. Studies for reference[edit] Hartup, W. American Psychologist, 29, Participant observation Rosenhan, D. On being sane in insane places. Science, , - The cycle of popularity: Interpersonal relations among female adolescents. Sociology of Education, 58 3 , Physical trace observation Friedman, M. Application of unobtrusive measures to the study of textbook usage by college students. Journal of Applied Psychology, 60, - The ecology of eating: Journal of Psychological Science, 14 5 , Structured observation Piaget, J. Deviancy training in male adolescent friendships. Behavior Therapy, 27,

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4: Introduction to Sociology/Sociological Methods - Wikibooks, open books for an open world

"Clothes," writes Keenan, "are society's way of showing where we belong in the order of things, our role and position in the social pageantry".

Social Movements Sociological Research: Designs, Methods Sociologists use many different designs and methods to study society and social behavior. Case study research In case study research, an investigator studies an individual or small group of individuals with an unusual condition or situation. Case studies are typically clinical in scope. On the positive side, case studies obtain useful information about individuals and small groups. On the negative side, they tend to apply only to individuals with similar characteristics rather than to the general population. Survey research Survey research involves interviewing or administering questionnaires, or written surveys, to large numbers of people. The investigator analyzes the data obtained from surveys to learn about similarities, differences, and trends. He or she then makes predictions about the population being studied. As with most research methods, survey research brings both advantages and disadvantages. Advantages include obtaining information from a large number of respondents, conducting personal interviews at a time convenient for respondents, and acquiring data as inexpensively as possible. Disadvantages of survey research include volunteer bias, interviewer bias, and distortion. Volunteer bias occurs when a sample of volunteers is not representative of the general population. Subjects who are willing to talk about certain topics may answer surveys differently than those who are not willing to talk. Distortion occurs when a subject does not respond to questions honestly. Observational research reduces the possibility that subjects will not give totally honest accounts of the experiences, not take the study seriously, fail to remember, or feel embarrassed. Observational research has limitations, however. Subject bias is common, because volunteer subjects may not be representative of the general public. Individuals who agree to observation and monitoring may function differently than those who do not. They may also function differently in a laboratory setting than they do in other settings. Correlational research A sociologist may also conduct correlational research. These factors can be characteristics, attitudes, behaviors, or events. Correlational research attempts to determine if a relationship exists between the two variables, and the degree of that relationship. A social researcher can use case studies, surveys, interviews, and observational research to discover correlations. In a negative correlation, one variable increases as the other decreases. In a nonexistent correlation, no relationship exists between the variables. People commonly confuse correlation with causation. When a correlation exists, changes in the value of one variable reflect changes in the value of the other. The correlation does not imply that one variable causes the other, only that both variables somehow relate to one another. To study the effects that variables have on each other, an investigator must conduct an experiment. Experimental research Experimental research attempts to determine how and why something happens. Experimental research tests the way in which an independent variable the factor that the scientist manipulates affects a dependent variable the factor that the scientist observes. A number of factors can affect the outcome of any type of experimental research. One is finding samples that are random and representative of the population being studied. Still another is controlling for extraneous variables, such as room temperature or noise level, that may interfere with the results of the experiment. Only when the experimenter carefully controls for extraneous variables can she or he draw valid conclusions about the effects of specific variables on other variables. An advantage of this method of research is the opportunity it provides to study what actually occurs within a community, and then consider that information within the political, economic, social, and religious systems of that community. Research with existing data, or secondary analysis Some sociologists conduct research by using data that other social scientists have already collected. The use of publicly accessible information is known as secondary analysis, and is most common in situations in which collecting new data is impractical or unnecessary. Sociologists may obtain statistical data for analysis from businesses, academic institutions, and governmental agencies, to name only a few sources. Or they may use historical or

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library information to generate their hypotheses.

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5: The Logic of Social Research, Stinchcombe

Six of the most popular sociological research methods (procedures) are the case study, survey, observational, correlational, experimental, and cross-cultural methods, as well as working with information already available.

Introduction[edit] The goal of this chapter is to introduce the methods employed by sociologists in their study of social life. This is not a chapter on statistics nor does it detail specific methods in sociological investigation. The primary aim is to illustrate how sociologists go beyond common sense understandings in trying to explain or understand social phenomena. They do not see the world as we normally do, they question and analyze why things happen and if there is a way to stop a problem before it happens. At issue in this chapter are the methods used by sociologists to claim to speak authoritatively about social life. There are dozens of different ways that human beings claim to acquire knowledge. A few common examples are: Choosing to trust another source for information is the act of making that source an authority in your life. Parents, friends, the media, religious leaders, your professor, books, or web pages are all examples of secondary sources of information that some people trust for information. People often claim to have learned something through an experience, such as a car accident or using some type of drug. Some physical skills, such as waterskiing or playing basketball, are acquired primarily through experience. On the other hand, some experiences are subjective and are not generalizable to all. Simple deduction is often used to discern truth from falsity and is the primary way of knowing used in philosophy. I might suggest that if I fall in a swimming pool full of water, I will get wet. If that premise is true and I fall in a swimming pool, you could deduce that I got wet. Many people who live in societies that have not experienced industrialization decide what to do in the future by repeating what was done in the past. Even in modern societies, many people get satisfaction out of celebrating holidays the same way year after year. Fast-paced change in modern societies, however, makes traditional knowledge less and less helpful in making good choices. Some people claim to acquire knowledge believed to be valid by consulting religious texts and believing what is written in them, such as the Torah, the Bible, the Koran, the Bhagavad Gita, or the Book of Mormon. Others claim to receive revelations from a higher power in the form of voices or a general intuitive sense of what one should do. The scientific method combines the use of logic with controlled experience, creating a novel way of discovery that marries sensory input with careful thinking. By adopting a model of cause and effect, scientists produce knowledge that can explain certain phenomena and even predict various outcomes before they occur. These methods of claiming to know certain things are referred to as epistemologies. An epistemology is simply a way of knowing. In Sociology, information gathered through science is privileged over all others. That is, information gleaned using other epistemologies will be rejected if it is not supported by evidence gathered using the scientific method. The Scientific Method[edit] A scientific method or process is considered fundamental to the scientific investigation and acquisition of new knowledge based upon verifiable evidence. In addition to employing the scientific method in their research, sociologists explore the social world with several different purposes in mind. Like the physical sciences i. This approach to doing science is often termed positivism though perhaps more accurately should be called empiricism. The positivist approach to social science seeks to explain and predict social phenomena, often employing a quantitative approach where aspects of social life are assigned numerical codes and subjected to in-depth analyses to uncover trends often missed by a casual observer. This approach most often makes use of deductive reasoning , which initially forms a theory and hypothesis, which are then subjected to empirical testing. Unlike the physical sciences, sociology and other social sciences, like anthropology also often seek simply to understand social phenomena. Max Weber labeled this approach Verstehen , which is German for understanding. This approach, called qualitative sociology, aims to understand a culture or phenomenon on its own terms rather than trying to develop a theory that allows for prediction. Qualitative sociologists more frequently use inductive reasoning where an investigator will take time to make repeated observations of the phenomena under study, with the hope of coming to a thorough and grounded

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understanding of what is really going on. Both approaches employ a scientific method as they make observations and gather data, propose hypotheses, and test or refine their hypotheses in the formulation of theories. These steps are outlined in more detail below. Sociologists use observations, hypotheses, deductions, and inductions to understand and ultimately develop explanations for social phenomena in the form of theories. Predictions from these theories are tested. If a prediction turns out to be correct, the theory survives. If not, the theory is modified or discarded. The method is commonly taken as the underlying logic of scientific practice. Science is essentially an extremely cautious means of building a supportable, evidenced understanding of our natural and social worlds. The essential elements of a scientific method are iterations and recursions of the following four steps: The systematic, careful collection of measurements, counts or categorical distinctions of relevant quantities or qualities is often the critical difference between pseudo-sciences, such as alchemy, and a science, such as chemistry. Scientific measurements are usually tabulated, graphed, or mapped, and statistical manipulations, such as correlation and regression, performed on them. The measurements might be made in a controlled setting, such as a laboratory, or made on more or less inaccessible or unmanipulatable objects such as human populations. The measurements often require specialized scientific instruments such as thermometers, spectrometers, or voltmeters, and the progress of a scientific field is usually intimately tied to their invention and development. These categorical distinctions generally require specialized coding or sorting protocols that allow differential qualities to be sorted into distinct categories, which may be compared and contrasted over time, and the progress of scientific fields in this vein are generally tied to the accumulation of systematic categories and observations across multiple natural sites. In both cases, scientific progress relies upon ongoing intermingling between measurement and categorical approaches to data analysis. Measurements demand the use of operational definitions of relevant quantities. That is, a scientific quantity is described or defined by how it is measured, as opposed to some more vague, inexact or idealized definition. The operational definition of a thing often relies on comparisons with standards: In short, to operationalize a variable means creating an operational definition for a concept someone intends to measure. Similarly, categorical distinctions rely upon the use of previously observed categorizations. A scientific category is thus described or defined based upon existing information gained from prior observations and patterns in the natural world as opposed to socially constructed "measurements" and "standards" in order to capture potential missing pieces in the logic and definitions of previous studies. In both cases, however, how this is done is very important as it should be done with enough precision that independent researchers should be able to use your description of your measurement or construction of categories, and repeat either or both. The scientific definition of a term sometimes differs substantially from its natural language usage. For example, sex and gender are often used interchangeably in common discourse, but have distinct meanings in sociology. Scientific quantities are often characterized by their units of measure which can later be described in terms of conventional physical units when communicating the work while scientific categorizations are generally characterized by their shared qualities which can later be described in terms of conventional linguistic patterns of communication. Measurements and categorizations in scientific work are also usually accompanied by estimates of their uncertainty or disclaimers concerning the scope of initial observations. The uncertainty is often estimated by making repeated measurements of the desired quantity. Uncertainties may also be calculated by consideration of the uncertainties of the individual underlying quantities that are used. Counts of things, such as the number of people in a nation at a particular time, may also have an uncertainty due to limitations of the method used. Counts may only represent a sample of desired quantities, with an uncertainty that depends upon the sampling method used and the number of samples taken see the central limit theorem. Hypothesis Development[edit] A hypothesis includes a suggested explanation of the subject. In quantitative work, it will generally provide a causal explanation or propose some association between two variables. If the hypothesis is a causal explanation, it will involve at least one dependent variable and one independent variable. In qualitative work, hypotheses generally involve potential assumptions built into existing causal statements, which may be examined in a natural setting. Variables are measurable

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phenomena whose values or qualities can change e. A dependent variable is a variable whose values or qualities are presumed to change as a result of the independent variable. In other words, the value or quality of a dependent variable depends on the value of the independent variable. Of course, this assumes that there is an actual relationship between the two variables. If there is no relationship, then the value or quality of the dependent variable does not depend on the value of the independent variable. An independent variable is a variable whose value or quality is manipulated by the experimenter or, in the case of non-experimental analysis, changes in the society and is measured or observed systematically. Perhaps an example will help clarify. Promotion would be the dependent variable. Change in promotion is hypothesized to be dependent on gender. Scientists use whatever they can use their own creativity, ideas from other fields, induction, deduction, systematic guessing, etc. There are no definitive guidelines for the production of new hypotheses. The history of science is filled with stories of scientists claiming a flash of inspiration, or a hunch, which then motivated them to look for evidence to support, refute, or refine their idea or develop an entirely new framework.

Prediction[edit] A useful quantitative hypothesis will enable predictions, by deductive reasoning, that can be experimentally assessed. If results contradict the predictions, then the hypothesis under examination is incorrect or incomplete and requires either revision or abandonment. If results confirm the predictions, then the hypothesis might be correct but is still subject to further testing. Predictions refer to experimental designs with a currently unknown outcome. A prediction of an unknown differs from a consequence which can already be known.

Testing[edit] Once a prediction is made, a method is designed to test or critique it. The investigator may seek either confirmation or falsification of the hypothesis, and refinement or understanding of the data. Though a variety of methods are used by both natural and social scientists, laboratory experiments remain one of the most respected methods by which to test hypotheses. Scientists assume an attitude of openness and accountability on the part of those conducting an experiment. Detailed record keeping is essential, to aid in recording and reporting on the experimental results, and providing evidence of the effectiveness and integrity of the procedure. They will also assist in reproducing the experimental results. This is a diagram of the famous Milgram Experiment which explored obedience and authority in light of the crimes committed by the Nazis in World War II. In experiments where controls are observed rather than introduced, researchers take into account potential variables e. On the other hand, in experiments where a control is introduced, two virtually identical experiments are run, in only one of which the factor being tested is varied. This serves to further isolate any causal phenomena. For example in testing a drug it is important to carefully test that the supposed effect of the drug is produced only by the drug. Doctors may do this with a double-blind study:

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Some of the observation criteria fall under communication, being a constructivist, understanding to activate prior knowledge, interaction and concluding with a review and an assessment of some kind. Teacher should work to increase students' motivation on learning and use systematic instruction throughout the lesson plan.

History of sociology Social interactions and their consequences are the subject of sociology. Field Museum of Natural History in Chicago. Sociology, in studying society, including economic, political and cultural systems, has origins in the common stock of human knowledge and philosophy. Social analysis has been carried out by scholars and philosophers at least as early as the time of Plato. There is evidence of Early Muslim sociology from the 14th century: Ibn Khaldun, in his *Muqaddimah* the introduction to a seven volume analysis of universal history advanced social philosophy in formulating theories of social cohesion and social conflict. Sociology emerged as a scientific discipline in the early 19th century as an academic response to the challenges of modernity and modernization, such as industrialization and urbanization. Sociologists hoped not only to understand what held social groups together, but also to develop responses to social disintegration and exploitation. The word sociology was coined by French thinker Auguste Comte in from the Latin: Comte hoped to unify all studies of humankind - including history, psychology and economics. His own sociological scheme was typical of the 19th century; he believed all human life had passed through the same distinct historical stages theology, metaphysics, positive science and that, if one could grasp this progress, one could prescribe the remedies for social ills. Like Comte, these figures did not consider themselves only "sociologists". Their works addressed religion, education, economics, law, psychology, ethics, philosophy, and theology, and their theories have been applied in a variety of academic disciplines. Their influence on sociology was foundational. The Department of History and Sociology at the University of Kansas was established in [1],[2], and the first full fledged independent university department of sociology was established in at the University of Chicago by Albion W. Small, who in founded the *American Journal of Sociology* [3]. Positivism, Sociological positivism, and Antipositivism. The emphasis on empiricism and the scientific method sought to provide an incontestable foundation for any sociological claims or findings, and to distinguish sociology from less empirical fields such as philosophy. This methodological approach, called positivism aspires to explanation and prediction. A non-trivial share of sociologists reject these goals. A second push away from scientific positivism was cultural, even sociological. As early as the 19th century, positivist and naturalist approaches to studying social life were questioned by scientists like Wilhelm Dilthey and Heinrich Rickert, who argued that the natural world differs from the social world because of unique aspects of human society such as meanings, symbols, rules, norms, and values. These elements of society inform human cultures. This view was further developed by Max Weber, who introduced antipositivism humanistic sociology. Based on the pragmatic social psychology of George Herbert Mead, Herbert Blumer and other later Chicago school inspired sociologists developed symbolic interactionism. In Europe, in the inter-war period, sociology generally was attacked both by increasingly totalitarian governments and rejected by conservative universities. At the same time, originally in Austria and later in the U. Also, members of the Frankfurt school some of whom moved to the U. In the s in the U. Since World War II, sociology has been revived in Europe, although during the Stalin and Mao eras it was suppressed in the communist countries. In the midth century, there was a general but not universal trend for American sociology to be more scientific in nature, due partly to the prominent influence at that time of structural functionalism. Sociologists developed new types of quantitative research and qualitative research methods. In the second half of the 20th century, sociological research has been increasingly employed as a tool by governments and businesses. Parallel with the rise of various social movements in the s, theories emphasizing social struggle, including conflict theory which sought to counter structural functionalism and neomarxist theories, began to receive more attention. In the late 20th century, some sociologists embraced postmodern and poststructuralist philosophies. Increasingly,

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many sociologists have used qualitative and ethnographic methods and become critical of the positivism in some social scientific approaches. Much like cultural studies, some contemporary sociological studies have been influenced by the cultural changes of the 20th century Continental philosophy, literary studies, and interpretivism. Others have maintained more objective empirical perspectives, such as by articulating neofunctionalism and pure sociology. Others began to debate the nature of globalization and the changing nature of social institutions. These developments have led some to reconceptualize basic sociological categories and theories. For instance, inspired by the thought of Michel Foucault, power may be studied as dispersed throughout society in a wide variety disciplinary cultural practices. In political sociology, the power of the nation state may be seen as transforming due to the globalization of trade and cultural exchanges and the expanding influence of international organizations Nash However, the positivist tradition is still alive and influential in sociology, as evidenced by the rise of social networks as both a new paradigm that suggests paths to go beyond the traditional micro vs. The influence of social network analysis is pervasive in many sociological subfields such as economic sociology see the work of Harrison White or Mark Granovetter for example , organizational behavior, or historical sociology. Throughout the development of sociology, controversies have raged about how to emphasize or integrate concerns with subjectivity, objectivity, intersubjectivity and practicality in theory and research. One outcome of such disputes has been the ongoing formation of multidimensional theories of society, such as the continuing development of various types of critical theory. Another outcome has been the formation of public sociology, which emphasizes the usefulness of sociological analysis to various social groups. They also study the social interactions of people and groups, trace the origin and growth of social processes, and analyze the influence of group activities on individual members and vice versa. The results of sociological research aid educators, lawmakers, administrators, and others interested in resolving social problems, working for social justice and formulating public policy. Sociologists research macro-structures and processes that organize or affect society, such as race or ethnicity, gender, globalization, and social class stratification. They study institutions such as the family and social processes that represent deviation from, or the breakdown of, social structures, including crime and divorce. And, they research micro-processes such as interpersonal interactions and the socialization of individuals. Most sociologists work in one or more specialties, such as social stratification, social organization, and social mobility; ethnic and race relations; education; family; social psychology; urban, rural, political, and comparative sociology; sex roles and relationships; demography; gerontology; criminology; and sociological practice. In short, sociologists study the many faces of society. At times, sociology does integrate the insights of various disciplines, as do other social sciences. Initially, the discipline was concerned particularly with the organization of complex industrial societies. Recent sociologists, taking cues from anthropologists, have noted the "Western emphasis" of the field. In response, sociology departments around the world are encouraging the study of many cultures and multi-national studies. Sociological theory refers to theories developed by sociologists, though the term has been used synonymously with social theory, as in Swingewood and Ritzer and Goodman Social theory is interdisciplinary as it generally includes ideas from multiple fields, such as anthropology, economics, theology, history, philosophy, and others. Many sociologists use both sociological theory and interdisciplinary social theory. The boundaries between these are sometimes fuzzy due to overlaps in origins and content. Social theories developed almost simultaneously with the birth of the sociology itself. In the 19th century three great, classical theories of social and historical change were created: Although the majority of 19th century social theories are now considered obsolete, they have spawned modern social theories, including multilineal theories of evolution neoevolutionism, sociobiology, theory of modernisation, theory of post-industrial society or the theory of subjectivity. In the 20th century, sociologists developed sociological theories which were based in the institutions and literature of professional sociology. Modern sociological theories include conflict theory, structural functionalism and more recently neofunctionalism , and symbolic interactionism. At the same time, sociologists have continued to use and contribute to interdisciplinary social theories. Some types of social theory commonly used in sociology include feminist

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theory, neomarxism, network theory, postmodern theory, poststructuralist theory, rational choice theory, and systems theory Ritzer and Goodman There is a tension in the discipline between more abstract theory and more empirical theory. Some social and sociological theories tackle very large-scale social trends and structures using hypotheses that cannot be easily falsified and require support by historical or philosophical interpretations. Social theories about modernity or globalization are two examples. Some theorists, such as deconstructionists or postmodernists, may argue that any systematic type of social scientific research theory is inherently flawed. In empirical social research, empirical findings can provide support for sociological theories and vice versa. For instance, statistical research grounded in the scientific method may find a severe income disparity between women and men performing the same occupation. This finding supports the complex social theories of feminism or patriarchy. A sociological perspective see sociological imagination has through the years appealed to students and others dissatisfied with the status quo because it carries the assumption that societal structures may be arbitrary or controlled by specific powerful groups, thus implying the possibility of change. Quantitative methods and qualitative methods are two main types of social research methods. Sociologists often use quantitative methods -- such as social statistics or network analysis - to investigate the structure of a social process or describe patterns in social relationships. Sociologists also often use qualitative methods - such as focused interviews, group discussions and ethnographic methods - to investigate social processes. Sociologists also use applied research methods such as evaluation research and assessment. Archival research - Facts or factual evidences from a variety of records are compiled. Content Analysis - The contents of books and mass media are analyzed to study how people communicate and the messages people talk or write about. Historical Method - This involves a continuous and systematic search for the information and knowledge about past events related to the life of a person, a group, society, or the world. Interviews - The researcher obtains data by interviewing people. If the interview is non-structured, the researcher leaves it to the interviewee also referred to as the respondent or the informant to guide the conversation. Life History - This is the study of the personal life trajectories. Through a series of interviews, the researcher can probe into the decisive moments in their life or the various influences on their life. Longitudinal study - This is an extensive examination of a specific group over a long period of time. Observation - Using data from the senses, one records information about social phenomenon or behavior. Qualitative research relies heavily on observation, although it is in a highly disciplined form. Participant Observation - As the name implies, the researcher goes to the field usually a community , lives with the people for some time, and participates in their activities in order to know and feel their culture. For example, those researchers who are concerned with statistical generalizability to a population will most likely administer structured interviews with a survey questionnaire to a carefully selected probability sample. By contrast, those sociologists, especially ethnographers, who are more interested in having a full contextual understanding of group members lives will choose participant observation, observation, and open-ended interviews. Many studies combine several of these methodologies. The relative merits of these research methodologies is a topic of much professional debate among practicing sociologists. For example, the quantitative methods may help describe social patterns, while qualitative approaches could help to understand how individuals understand those patterns. An example of using multiple types of research methods is in the study of the Internet. The Internet is of interest for sociologists in various ways:

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7: Scientific Method for Sociology

Sociologists examine the world, see a problem or interesting pattern, and set out to study it. They use research methods to design a study—perhaps a detailed, systematic, scientific method for conducting research and obtaining data, or perhaps an ethnographic study utilizing an interpretive framework.

While survey methods have been used since the early days of sociology, they became a core method after World War II: During the late 20th and early 21st centuries, survey research has become progressively more sophisticated and has benefited from developments in a wide range of disciplines including statistics, cognitive psychology, computer programming, and technological advances such as telephones and the Internet. Survey research has been used throughout the world and has become an important basis for comparative social analysis. While the fundamentals of survey research are well established—collections of structured data usually with a structured questionnaire and the statistical analysis of the interrelationships of variables—the practice of survey research is constantly changing. Our knowledge of how to ask good questions continues to develop, the means by which questionnaires are administered are being transformed as technology changes, and the challenges of obtaining good information increase as response rates decline. Our ability to analyze data continues to evolve as computer software enables survey researchers to develop complex survey designs and interrogate the data in ever more sophisticated ways. General Overviews Marsh provides an unusual overview of the survey method that focuses on its epistemological foundations. More typical overviews are texts aimed at different audiences. Moser and Kalton has stood the test of time since being first published in Babbie and Fowler have been widely used among undergraduates, while de Vaus and Fink are aimed more at postgraduate students. The practice of social research. Widely used and highly accessible introduction to various social research methods including survey research. It provides a good context within which to understand surveys. Surveys in social research. Widely used text among postgraduate students. Provides an easy to understand and practical guide to conducting, analyzing, and critically evaluating surveys. A sixth edition is due in How to design survey studies. A set of ten volumes with each volume dedicated to topics that are typically a chapter in introductory texts. Volumes include question design, different methods of administering questionnaires, and sampling. Two volumes provide elementary introductions to survey analysis. Lepkowski, Eleanor Singer, and Roger Tourangeau. Provides an up-to-date revision of the popular first edition. This is an intermediate level overview of the main topic areas in conducting and evaluating survey data, but it does not venture into survey analysis. It is appropriate for postgraduate-level courses. The contribution of surveys to sociological explanation. She responds to the anti-survey perspective found in parts of sociology and argues that these critiques are ill conceived and misunderstand what survey research can accomplish in achieving sociological understanding. Survey methods in social investigation.

8: Francis Dadoo — Department of Sociology and Criminology

The history of sociology is both a traditional area of sociology itself and a part of the history of the social sciences as studied by intellectual historians and historians of science. The earliest writings on the subject were completed by sociologists attempting to construct a canon and a history.

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The Department of History and Sociology at the University of Kansas was established in [1],[2], and the first full fledged independent university department of sociology was established in at the University of Chicago by Albion W. Small, who in founded the American Journal of Sociology [3].

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