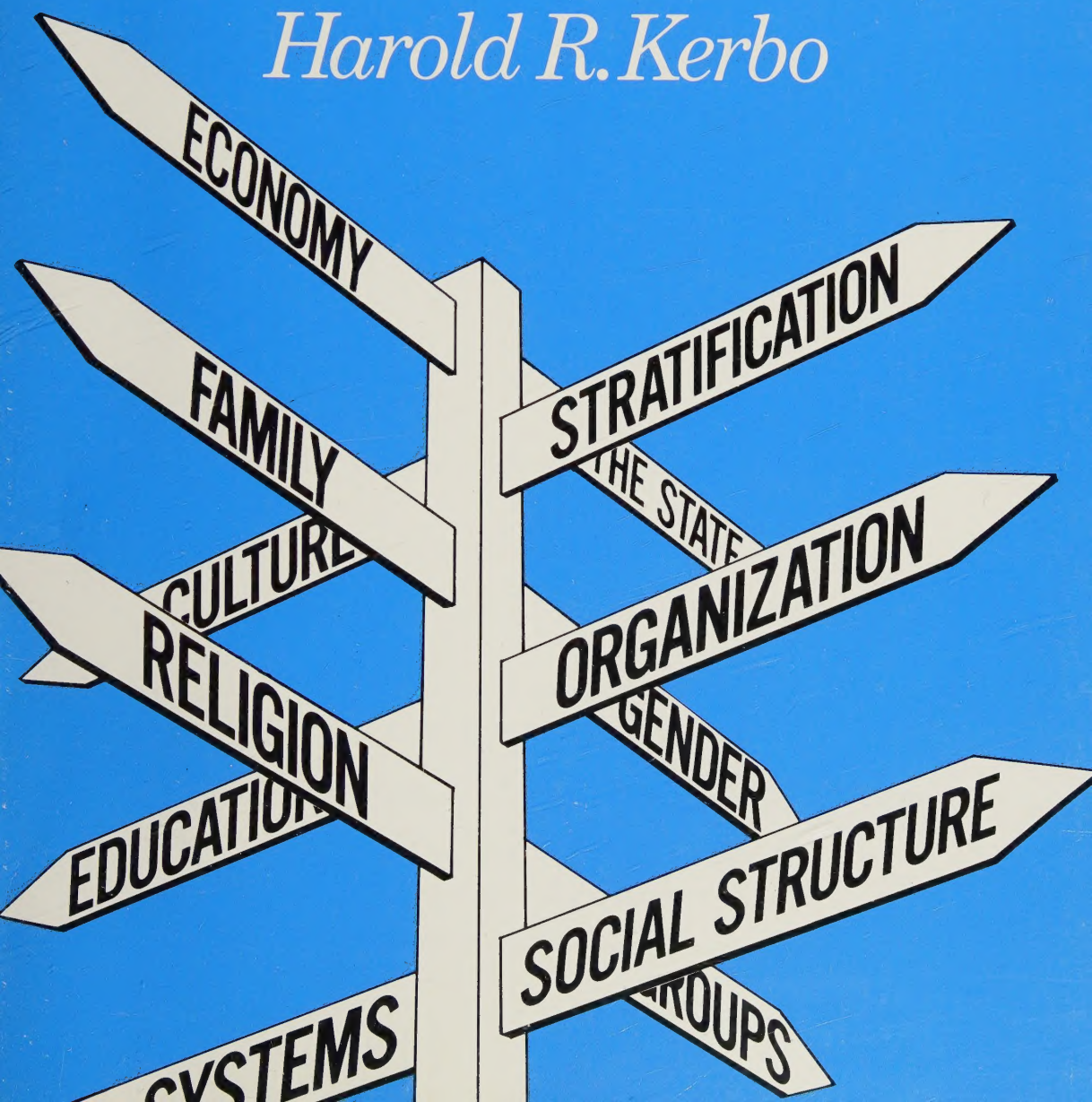


INSTRUCTOR'S MANUAL
*Prepared by Thomas P. Dunn, Ph.D.,
and Sandra L. Dunn, M.S.*

SOCIOLOGY

Social Structure and Social Conflict

Harold R. Kerbo





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*Instructor's Manual
to Accompany*

Sociology

Social Structure and Social Conflict

Harold R. Kerbo

California Polytechnic State University

MACMILLAN PUBLISHING COMPANY
New York

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PREFACE

This Instructor's Manual is designed to assist those instructors who adopt Harold R. Kerbo's Sociology: Structure and Social Conflict as a textbook for use in an introductory sociology course. Each chapter consists of the following:

Chapter Outline: The outline provides a detailed overview of the organization, content, and perspective of the chapter.

Glossary Terms and Definitions: These are the important concepts used in the chapter. Page numbers have been included for your convenience.

Key People: Listed are the scholars whose work is given prominent consideration in the chapter. Page numbers have been included for quick reference.

Essay Questions: These questions reflect the major topics covered in the chapter. They are sufficiently general to allow for some flexibility on the part of the student, but each question calls for some specific information that can be evaluated in the grading process.

Pop Quiz Questions (True/False and Fill in the Blank): These questions are designed to measure general knowledge of the material contained in the chapter. They may be used to encourage students to read the assigned chapters on a regular basis. (Page numbers included.)

Lecture Resources (Discussion Questions): These questions are designed to stimulate thinking by asking for students' opinions on key, and sometimes controversial, issues introduced in the chapter

We hope that these materials will be helpful as you prepare to use Kerbo's new and exciting textbook, and that they will continue to be a valuable resource throughout the semester.

TPD
SLD

CHAPTER 1

THE NATURE OF HUMANS AND HUMAN SOCIETIES

Chapter Outline

- I. The Sociological Perspective
Society may be defined as habitually interacting groups of humans with a common culture, a common territory, and relative autonomy.
Sociology may be defined as the scientific study of human societies and human behavior in groups. Thus, the subject matter of sociology is characterized by its breadth, with an emphasis on the group rather than the individual. As a discipline, sociology attempts to build a general understanding of group behavior that can be applied to many aspects and areas of group behavior.
- II. How Sociologists Study Societies
Those who are not schooled in the social sciences often "explain" behavior via quasi-theories, which are theories not developed in an objective, scientific manner. Quasi-theories are inadequate because of their limited focus, biased derivation and susceptibility to cultural assumptions. Therefore, sociologists reject quasi-theories and opt instead for knowledge produced by the scientific method, which is an objective method of gaining and evaluating information.
- III. Where Sociologists Look
 - A. Human biology:
There is evidence that the human biological base helps us understand some important aspects of human behavior. Sociologists, however, have long favored explanations of human behavior that are related to the social environment, learning, tradition, and culture. Sociobiology is an expanding new field which rejects the extreme position that humans are far different from other animals and argues that to understand human behavior today we must understand the earliest human environment. Some of the less controversial claims

of sociobiologists focus on selfishness, conflict, cooperation, and intelligence. In evaluating sociobiology, most sociologists believe that not much of what we do can be understood with biological explanations.

B. The individual level of analysis:

Unlike other animals, humans differ greatly in terms of their self-concepts, world views, personalities, inner conflicts, and behavioral tendencies. However, an analysis of family size and crime reveals that individualistic explanations are not very helpful. Therefore, although psychology may be more relevant to our personal lives, sociology examines larger issues, such as crime, that affect many people.

C Social structure and the sociological level of analysis:

Sociologists are often concerned with the effects of social structure on groups, on the individual, and then on how these individuals add up to societal level characteristics or trends. An example of this would be Durkheim's classic study of suicide.

D. Conclusion:

Although something can be learned from biological and psychological explanations of behavior, it is the group level that is of the most interest to sociologists.

IV. Divergent Sociological Perspectives

Sociology, like any other scientific discipline, is characterized by disagreements among its practitioners.

A. Macro vs micro: some sociologists prefer to study human behavior at the societal level (macro analysis), while others favor focusing on small groups and the individual (micro level analysis).

B. Material vs nonmaterial: all sociologists will agree that both factors do shape human societies but they differ as to which comes first.

C. The orientation of the text is toward a macro level of analysis with an emphasis on material rather than nonmaterial factors that influence human societies.

V. Divergent Theoretical Perspectives

A theoretical perspective may be defined as a

map or model that directs our attention and simplifies the complex social reality by focusing on the most important factors operating in the society that provide answers to our questions. Although there are considerable disagreements among sociologists as to their relative importance, the three theoretical perspectives that are favored by the largest number of sociologists are: symbolic interaction theory, functional theory, and conflict theory.

A. Symbolic interaction theory:

Symbolic interaction theory is a micro level theory that has a focus on social psychology and face-to-face interaction among people in everyday life. Its basic points include the following:

1. People act in terms of shared meanings.
2. The symbolic meanings people acquire come from interaction with others.
3. To understand human societies you must consider how individuals in everyday interaction maintain and reproduce shared meanings and social networks.

Labeling theory is a variation of symbolic interaction theory, and is concerned with how labels are projected on to people, and how people develop self-images, then act as these self-images suggest they should act.

Dramaturgical theory is Goffman's variant of symbolic interaction theory, and is primarily concerned with how people make social interaction possible with many complex and unstated rules.

B. Functional theory:

Functional theory is a macro level theory which stresses that society must be seen as an overall system of interrelated parts which work together for the good of society. Although prominent among the early sociologists (Comte, Durkheim) and, until recently, most respected among contemporary sociologists (particularly Soviet sociologists), the theory has some weaknesses that limit its value:

1. Explanations of social change are weak.
2. It tends to overlook major divisions and conflicts within the society.
3. Its emphasis on value consensus in society ignores many important questions.

C. Conflict theory:

Conflict theory is a macro level theory which attempts to explain social reality by focusing on:

1. The nature of conflict underlying, and built into, human societies.
2. Group conflicts, rather than individual conflicts.
3. Society as a setting where individuals or groups come together to cooperate with some and compete with others.
4. Social order and cooperation among humans in large societies which is based on some form of conflict.
5. Social change as a basic feature of human societies.
6. Power, inequality, and who (or which group) is favored by the status quo.

Glossary Terms and Definitions

society - habitually interacting groups of humans, with a common culture, a common territory, and relative autonomy. (p.8)

sociology - the scientific study of human societies and human behavior in groups. (p.8)

science - an objective method of gaining and evaluating information. (p.10)

habitual interaction - groups of people who have formed common, lasting patterns of behavior. (p.8)

sociobiology - an expanding new field that emphasizes biological heritage in explaining behavior. (p.12)

natural selection - a slow process of biological evolution in which those species most adapted and therefore most equipped to survive in their particular niche in the environment pass their genes to the next generation. (p.13)

macro level - a level of analysis which focuses on a more general or wider sociological perspective. (p.20)

micro level - a level of analysis which focuses on small groups and the individual. (p.21)

symbolic interaction theory - a micro level theory with

a focus on social psychology and face-to-face interaction among people in everyday life.(p.22)

functional theory - a macro level theory that views society as an overall system of interrelated parts.
(p.24)

conflict theory - a macro level theory that views society as primarily a setting for group conflicts.
(p.25)

Key People

Pierre van den Berge (p.11)
Charles Darwin (p.12)
Emile Durkheim (p.17)
Max Weber (p.21)
Karl Marx (p.21)
George Herbert Mead (p.22)
W. I. Thomas (p.23)
Erving Goffman (p.23)
Auguste Comte (p.23)
Bronislaw Malinowski (p.24)
Lewis Coser (p.25)
Gaetano Mosca and Vilfredo Pareto (p.25)
Georg Simmel (p.25)

Essay Questions

1. Describe in detail the sociological perspective. How does it differ from the psychological perspective?
2. What is sociobiology? Briefly summarize at least three of the basic claims of sociobiologists with respect to human behavior.
3. List and briefly describe the three major theoretical perspectives utilized by sociologists.
4. Summarize in detail the perspective to be used throughout your text with respect to 1) level of analysis, and 2) overall theoretical orientation.

Pop quiz Questions - True/False

1. Sociology is the scientific study of human individuals. (false)(p.8)

2. Quasi-theories are those typically used by sociologists to explain behavior. (false)(p.9)
3. As with all animals, natural selection has resulted in biological influences on human behavior.(true)(p.26)
4. Your text favors a macro perspective, a materialist view, and historical-comparative methods of analysis. (true)(p.27)
5. Of the three major sociological theories, conflict theory is favored by the author of your text. (true)(p.27)

Pop Quiz Questions - Fill in the blank

1. Human behavior can be examined at different levels. The lowest level, we might say, is BIOLOGICAL.(p.9)
2. More accurately, however, SCIENCE can be defined as an objective method of gaining and evaluating information.(p.10)
3. In the very old "nature versus nurture" debate, sociologists have long favored the NURTURE side of the argument.(p.12)
4. A primary point of SOCIOBIOLOGY is that to understand human behavior today, we must understand the earliest human environment.(p.12)
5. An early sociological master, Emile Durkheim, has given us one of the best examples of a sociological level of analysis. In the late 1800's Durkheim studied a subject seemingly far removed from a sociological level of analysis, namely SUICIDE. (p.17)

Lecture Resources

(Questions for class discussion)

1. Why do sociologists disagree on so many aspects of their discipline? Is this disagreement basically helpful or harmful to sociology?
2. What can you ascertain about the perspectives of the author of your text simply by reading Chapter 1.

3. The author of your text suggests that non-sociologists conduct their daily lives on the basis of "quasi-theories." What quasi-theories do you utilize on a regular basis? What quasi-theories do you see other people utilizing on a regular basis? What are the problems with relying on this type of knowledge?

CHAPTER 2

THE STUDY OF HUMAN SOCIETIES

Chapter Outline

- I. The Development of Social Science
The most crucial ingredient for the emergence and spread of social science was free inquiry, which is the ability to challenge old accepted explanations without fear of punishment, and which has been rare throughout history. Intellectual mobilization led the way for the emergence of social science in the 1700's. There was a decline in the power of the old elites, increased travel led to new ideas and the exchange of those ideas, industrialization led to social disruption and social problems followed, and finally, a model of scientific analysis was established in the physical sciences. All of these factors were influential in the development of social science.

- II. The Development of Sociology in Europe
The spread of sociology in the 1800's required and received: social and political climate changes, career opportunities, new information sources, increased literacy brought about by the invention of the printing press, new wealth, rapidly expanding educational systems, and new sources of historical and cross-cultural data. Early sociologists include:
 - A. Henri de Saint Simon, who used the term science politique.
 - B. Auguste Comte is known as the father of sociology, primarily because he was the first to use the term sociology. He called for a new Positivist Society based upon scientific analysis to determine what policies were best for society. The sociologists would be "priests" of the religion of humanity.
 - C. Karl Marx was a social scientist and a political activist with critical views of capitalism who called for the establishment of a socialist state. The focus of Marxian theory is group conflict over the material aspects

- of life - often called historical materialism. He was, and continues to be, controversial.
- D. Max Weber is one of the most respected figures from the classical period of sociology. He rejected blending sociology with political activism and called for a "value free" sociology. His macro level theory focused on power and conflict and stressed cultural factors in the development of capitalism. His micro level theory, verstehen, stressed understanding social action by considering the social meanings and motivations of individual participants in the society. One of his most consistent themes was that of the growth and significance of bureaucracies, which he referred to as "iron cages."
- E. Emile Durkheim favored a functional theory of sociology, and viewed society as similar to a biological organism with interrelated parts. He rejected extensive political activism, and was respected for his work on research methods. His research for, and work on Suicide is very well-known.

III. The Development of Sociology in the United States
Following World War I, the United States became the home for major sociological research in the world due to: the migration of many European social scientists to the United States; the country's growth which had led to the building of more and more universities, which in turn could sustain the growth of sociology. Basically, however, the United States became the home for major sociological research by default because the political and economic disruptions and totalitarian governments in Europe created a poor environment for free enquiry.

In this country, the rapid change from an agrarian economy to an industrial nation resulted in family disruption, poverty, and visible crime (all excellent subjects for sociologists to study).

New political movements emerged. First, the populist movement, which was primarily rural and directed to the needs of farmers. Later, the progressive movement became strong. Supporters were urban, educated, middle class individuals, who sought reform of crime, poverty, family breakdown, etc. They were not radicals, but were conservatives with traditional values.

A major change for American sociology came in the 1960's. The number of sociologists and students grew dramatically due to: college aged "baby boomers" who needed more college courses, a renewed interest in social reforms, and more research and graduate training being funded by the federal government. Conflict theory became popular and C. Wright Mills was a central figure in the 1960's (White Collar, The Power Elite, The Sociological Imagination).

During the 1980's the interest in sociology is lower than in the 1960's but higher than in the 1950's. There has been a recognition of the value of sociological research for government policies, but while consultants are providing information for governments they are not necessarily shaping policies. Most sociologists are trained to teach and to conduct basic research, and most Ph.D. sociologists are employed in educational institutions.

Social scientists in the United States are often criticized as working for the affluent and the powerful. Some reasons for this way of thinking are that poverty programs which were instituted in the 1960's were begun because the "poor" were rioting, and not because the "poor" needed help. Once the rioting and other urban violence threatened the affluent something was done to prevent the disruption. "Project Camelot" was created by the U.S. military with the goal of helping keep in power Latin American governments that favored U.S. economic interests. Many sociologists were hired to do research, the basic goal of which was to prevent lower class groups from achieving democracy and economic change in these poor countries. There are serious ethical questions involved with this kind of research.

IV. Sociology in the Soviet Union

Sociology as an academic discipline was not allowed to exist in the Soviet Union until the late 1950's - after the death of Stalin. Tight controls still exist (the first President of the Soviet Sociological Association was the editor of Pravda), and sociology is used as a propaganda tool. Sociological research can help with policy implementation, or with deciding among policy alternatives which already have the support of powerful interest groups. The wealth and advantages of the Soviet elite are ignored, and most

research involves: crime, population changes, family problems, deviance, educational opportunities, social mobility, material inequalities.

V. Social Research Methods

In a basic research design, the goal is to isolate cause and effect, and to learn how substances behave under certain conditions. In a classical experimental design, a substance is isolated in a laboratory and the researcher allows the interaction between the stimuli (independent variable) and the substance, in order to study the resulting change/effect (dependent variable) in the substance. The researcher tries to keep total control of all variables and allow only one possible cause to be released at a time. The example given is that of plant growth in a laboratory. The author refers to the cycle of scientific research and theory testing.

Social researchers have many unique problems which are not relevant in the natural sciences.

These problems include the following:

- A. It is often not possible to study subjects in a laboratory setting.
- B. Subjects can think or respond to manipulation.
- C. Past experiences/influences cannot easily be controlled and affect the subject's responses.
 - 1. Post hoc research is a method whereby the scientist tries to control for these external influences (sex, race, education, religion, etc.)
- D. Multiple causation.
- E. Ethical limitations.
- F. Scientific objectivity - scientists are human and may bring preconceived ideas to the experimental situation.

Varieties of sociological research methods are all concerned with: data collection and data analysis. Data collection is the process of collecting information (via: interview, questionnaire, content analysis, historical records, etc.) Data analysis is the processing of information, which may be qualitative or quantitative, descriptive or explanatory.

Types of experiments include:

- A. Laboratory experiments are the most common. Subjects are brought into the laboratory setting and asked to respond to some controlled condition or task so that their responses may be recorded (eg. The Milgram Study).

- B. Field experiments are conducted in a more or less natural setting.
- C. Survey research has been the most popular method since W.W.II.
- D. Historical and comparative methods have had renewed interest and use in recent years due to the expanded ability that computers have brought to the analysis of data.
- E. Participant observation involves direct, long term observation.

The strengths and weaknesses include:

- A. Laboratory experiments allow more control over the variables but it is an artificial setting. It is also time consuming.
- B. Surveys allow conclusions to be generalized due to the large numbers of cases used, but it is difficult to answer macro level questions, and all but superficial questions.
- C. Historical and comparative data can answer macro level questions but cases are limited and good data is scarce.
- D. Participant observation gives more detailed information, but it is difficult to generalize, time consuming, and may not be objective due to observer bias.

It is important to realize that any methodology is only as good as the care and diligence of those conducting the research, therefore, all research must be made available for criticism. When studying people, it is important to keep in mind that just "being studied" can have an effect on subject responses (the Hawthorne Effect).

Glossary Terms and Definitions

classical experimental design - the ideal scientific method, isolation of a substance in a laboratory to allow the characteristics or behavior of the subject to be studied.(p.41)

dependent variable - what the researcher is trying to explain, i.e. the effect.(p.41)

independent variable - any substance or condition which is manipulated by the researcher to cause an effect in the experiment/study.(p.41)

inductive research - constructing an explanation from observations or the results of an experiment.(p.41)

deductive research - devising research to test a working theory for accuracy.(p.42)

hypothesis - specific prediction which can be tested.
(p.42)

operationalization - concrete definitions and indicators for the variables suggested in a hypothesis.(p.42)

measurement - a method of indicating amounts, degrees, or conditions of a variable.(p.42)

post hoc research - necessary in order to control (sort out) the effects of previous or past influences on the subject (education, race, sex, religion, etc.).(p.43)

descriptive analysis - presents a profile of the subject.(p.44)

explanatory analysis - (causal analysis) attempts to show causal relations more directly.(p.44)

quantitative analysis - relies extensively on numbers and statistics, often more cases are used.(p.44)

qualitative analysis - relies more on verbal descriptions than on statistics.(p.44)

mean, median, mode - measures of central tendency.(p.46)

correlation coefficient - tells the degree of association or covariance, if any, of two or more variables.
(p.46)

multiple correlations - many possible causes for a particular effect, statistics allow the researcher to determine the strongest cause.(p.47)

significance level - the probability that the correlation coefficient shows an accurate relationship between two or more variables.(p.47)

experiment - used to determine the effects of independent variables controlled by the researcher.(p.45)

the Hawthorne Effect - the influence on subjects of just being studied.(p.45)

survey research - a form of post hoc research which tries to uncover causal relationships that have

already happened, uses questionnaires.(p.49)

random sample - reflects the general characteristics of the population to be studied and selection allows that all people in the target population have an equal opportunity of being selected.(p.49)

historical and comparative methods - through controlled comparisons among nations or regions the similarities and/or differences reveal patterns that suggest causal relationships.(p.50)

participant observation - the researcher goes into the subject's own environment for direct, long term observation and often participates in activities along with those being studied.(p.52)

Key People

Reinhard Bendix (p.32)
Rousseau, Hobbes, Locke and Smith (p.32)
Henri de Saint-Simon (p.33)
Auguste Comte (p.33)
Ferdinand Tönnies (p.34)
Georg Simmel (p.34)
Herbert Spencer (p.34)
Vilfredo Pareto (p.34)
Karl Marx (p.34)
Max Weber (p.35)
Emile Durkheim (p.36)
Edward Ross and Lester Ward (p.37)
Robert Merton and Talcott Parsons (p.38)
C. Wright Mills (p.38)
Stanley Milgram (p.48)
Gustave Le Bon (p.52)
Leon Festinger (p.52)

Essay Questions

1. What is the major ingredient necessary for the growth of social science? Briefly discuss the factors necessary to sustain the growth of sociology, beginning in the 1800's in Europe.
2. Identify at least three of the "founding fathers" of sociology and briefly summarize the contributions made by each of them to the fledgling discipline.

3. Describe the major changes in American sociology in the 1960's and explain the reasons for those changes.
4. Summarize in detail the major ethical problems associated with research in the social sciences.
5. Identify and summarize the major features of the research design which your text refers to as "...the model or ideal for any science."

Pop Quiz Questions - True/False

1. Sociology and the other social sciences did not fully emerge until the late 1700's or 1800's. (true) (p.32)
2. After World War I, the United States took the lead in sociological research. (true) (p.37)
3. The most basic research design is classical experimental research. (true) (p.41)
4. According to your text, the three most important of the early "classical" sociologists were Comte, Spencer, and Durkheim. (false) (p.55)
5. Contemporary sociology is characterized by a diversity of theories and methodologies. (true) (p.55)

Pop Quiz Questions - Fill in the blank

1. You will remember that sociology has been called the SCIENTIFIC study of human societies. (p.31)
2. Although there are many, one ingredient is clearly the most crucial for the emergence and spread of social science: FREE INQUIRY. (p.31)
3. The first major research university for American sociology during the early 1900's was at the University of CHICAGO. (p.37)
4. A basic goal of scientific research in any discipline is to isolate CAUSE and EFFECT. (p.40)
5. Especially since World War II, the most popular methodology among sociologists has been SURVEY

Lecture Resources

(Questions for class discussion)

1. How does the information about human social behavior endorsed by sociologists differ from the information suggested by "common sense?" Are there any similarities between these two types of knowledge?
2. What are the basic problems encountered by sociologists who attempt to use the scientific method in studying social behavior? Can these problems ever be adequately overcome so that sociology can claim to be a truly "scientific" discipline?
3. Since the subject matter of sociology is so multi-dimensional should sociology even try to be a science?

CHAPTER 3

MATERIAL CULTURE AND THE EVOLUTION OF HUMAN SOCIETIES

Chapter Outline

- I Culture and the Diversity of Human Societies
Humans are unique in their ability to adapt without genetic change. Unlike other species, such as insects, whose adaptability lies in the massive numbers of offspring they produce, human adaptability is derived from superior intelligence. Culture, the learned part of human behavior may be divided into two elements: material and nonmaterial. By material culture we mean all of the material products of humans, including art, tools, buildings, weapons, and all kinds of technology. Nonmaterial culture refers to all of the nonmaterial products of humans, including all kinds of beliefs, values, ideologies, religions, and languages. The focus of this chapter is on material culture, and especially on human technologies and the behavior specifically related to material technology.
- II. An Introduction to the Materialist Perspective
The fact that humans are a biological organism must not be overlooked when studying human societies. The materialistic view states that the material environment and the technology created by humans to adapt this material environment to human needs are most important in shaping human societies.
 - A. Heise, et al (1976) examined 51 characteristics of small societies and found that six technology-related factors had more influence over the other factors.
 - B. Sawyer (1967) studied 236 characteristics from 82 nations with populations of 800,000 or more and found that two of the three most important factors were related to technology and environment.The materialistic perspective also implies some kind of evolutionary model of societal development.

III. A History of Human Societies

Although the earth is estimated to be 4 to 5 billion years old, and humans have existed for 500,000 years, stable human settlements have existed for less than 10,000 years. This section traces the development of human societies based on two types of evidence, 1) the archeological record and 2) contemporary societies that resemble those of the early humans.

Hunting and gathering societies, those who obtain their subsistence by hunting animals and/or gathering edible plants found naturally in the environment, have characteristics which include: crude dwellings, a few crude tools and the use of fire for cooking and protection. The outcomes of hunting and gathering technology include the fact that the people are nomadic or semi-nomadic, there is a minimum of material possessions, there is general political equality with informal or part-time leadership. Kinship is the primary and most developed subsystem, and kin groups perform many of the functions normally performed by other institutions. Families are male dominated and monogamous.

During the Neolithic revolution, 10,000-15,000 years ago, major changes in human societies took place. The causes of these changes include the population growth, and the ever increasing scarcity of food. The major result of the changes was the development of agriculture as a means of subsistence.

Horticultural societies are societies based on agriculture which emerged during the Neolithic revolution. Increased population and cities emerged as a result of food surpluses produced by improved horticultural methods. Specialized subgroups developed (religion, politics, and the military). This was due to the division of labor necessitated by improved horticultural technology. There was a rise in inequality due to the uneven distribution of surpluses. Burial practices reveal that material possessions were buried with the dead. Housing structures also reflect social inequality.

Agrarian societies developed about 3,000 BC in the Middle East as a result of the invention of the plow. Initial changes in the social order were minimal, however, as time progressed, enormous inequities in riches and power came into being and the "elites" were born:

- A. Economic elites owned the land vital to everyone's well-being.
- B. State and political elites emerged to control the other major aspects of social living.
- C. Religion and religious elites emerged in support of the political elites.
- D. Warfare and military elites emerged in the process of rulers acquiring political power and continued to exist in support of that power.

During this time, population and urbanization showed tremendous increases as a result of improved means of travel and military technology. The industrial revolution brought a new stage in the development of human societies about 250 years ago. It differed from previous stages with respect to the manufacture of goods outside the neighborhoods concerned, in a factory, and by a machine. The industrial revolution began in Europe, primarily in England. The key factor was the technological innovation of the times which allowed for an increased amount of goods to be produced for the purpose of trade.

"Materialists" and "nonmaterialists" differ as to what changes were the most important during this time.

In industrial societies, the shift to an industrial mode of production led to wide-ranging changes in the characteristics of human societies: the nature of work, urbanization, increased division of labor, increased political and material inequalities (although there are some who believe that the trend has been reversed within industrial societies), and the form of conflict has changed.

- IV. Evolutionary Perspectives and Social Change
- Early evolutionary theories include 1) optimistic theories of Comte, Spencer, and Marx, and 2) cyclical or pessimistic theories of Pareto, Spengler, and Toynbee. The new evolutionary theory tries to avoid the rigidity and "blind judgement" of the early theories and generally proposes that:
- A. Societies tend to increase in complexity.
 - B. There are no precise stages of social evolution.
 - C. The increase in complexity results from conflict for resources.

- D. The stimuli for social change are both internal and external.
- E. Material factors tend to produce more social change than nonmaterial factors.
- F. Social change should not be considered to be "progress."

Glossary Terms and Definitions

culture - the learned part of human behavior.(p.61)

material culture - all of the material products of humans, including art, tools, buildings, weapons, and all kinds of technology.(p.61)

nonmaterial culture - all of the nonmaterial products of humans, including all kinds of beliefs, values, ideologies, religions, and language.(p.61)

cultural lag - a condition in which the values and beliefs shaped by the previous type of technology or material environment may in some ways conflict with a new technology or material environment.(p.64)

hunting and gathering societies - societies in which the primary means of attaining basic necessities involve hunting animals and/or gathering edible plants found naturally in the environment.(p.65)

Neolithic revolution - the transformation from hunting and gathering societies to horticultural societies.
(p.67)

agrarian societies - are societies that are characterized by extensive agricultural production made possible through the use of sophisticated tools, such as the plow.(p.71)

horticultural societies - societies that are characterized by the use of simple tools in the agricultural process.(p.67)

capital - the products of human labor which are used to produce other goods, that is, factories and machines.(p.75)

evolutionary theories - the belief that societies pass through a series of stages.(p.78)

Social Darwinism - Herbert Spencer's evolutionary theory of change that proposes that "survival of the fittest" is the driving force leading to progress.(p.79)

cyclical theories - theories of social change which propose that change proceeds through cycles, with history roughly repeating itself, and with no real accumulative progress.(p.80)

Key People

Richard Leakey and Roger Lewin (p.62)

William F. Ogburn (p.64)

John Pfeiffer (p.64)

Gerhard Lenski and Jean Lenski (p.66)

Marshall Sahlins (p.66)

Max Weber (p.76)

Auguste Comte (p.78)

Herbert Spencer (p.78)

Karl Marx (p.79)

Oswald Spengler and Arnold Toynbee (p.80)

Vilfredo Pareto (p.80)

Essay Questions

1. Define culture and explain the difference between material and nonmaterial culture. Why is human culture the key to understanding the uniqueness of man?
2. Describe the materialistic perspective on culture. What evidence can be offered in support of the materialistic perspective?
3. Identify and briefly describe the major types of societies that were being created by human beings prior to the industrial revolution.
4. List at least three causes of the industrial revolution, and describe in detail the essential features of industrial societies.
5. Present an overview of the evolutionary perspective on social change and differentiate between the earlier and more recent evolutionary theories.

Pop Quiz Questions - True/False

1. For tens of thousands of years, humans existed with hunting and gathering technologies. (true) (p.81)
2. Humans are clearly among the least adaptable organisms ever to populate the earth. (false) (p.61)
3. The product of human intelligence that directs human behavior and allows for adaptability is generally called society. (false) (p.61)
4. Most social scientists regard the Neolithic revolution as the earliest, most important event in the evolution of human societies. (true) (p.67)
5. Of the general theories of social change presented in your text, your author prefers to use the cyclical model in guiding his outline of history. (false) (p.82)

Pop Quiz Questions - Fill in the blank

1. The product of human intelligence that directs human behavior and allows for adaptability is generally called CULTURE. (p.61)
2. Homo sapiens sapiens (the human animal that populates the world today) emerged only about 4,000 years ago. (p.64)
3. Most social scientists regard the NEOLITHIC revolution as the earliest, most important event in the evolution of human societies. (p.67)
4. MAX WEBER in his classical work, The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism made the most famous nonmaterialistic case for the use of capitalism and industrialism in Europe. (p.76)
5. Virtually all the early important figures in sociology developed a theory of social CHANGE. (p.77)

Lecture Resources

(Questions for class discussion)

1. How does culture give man an advantage over the other animals? Are there any negative aspects that arise as a result of mans being dominated by culture rather than instincts?
2. We clearly live in a world characterized by rapid social change. Which of the theories presented in Chapter 3 provides the best understanding of the current situation situation and offers the best predictions for the future?

CHAPTER 4

CULTURE: THE NONMATERIAL FOUNDATIONS OF HUMAN SOCIETIES

Chapter Outline

I. The Nature of Culture

Culture is defined as the learned part of human behavior.

A. The human brain:

Although the brains of our homo ancestors have been distinct from apelike brains for at least three million years, the human brain is still similar to that of all animals. The human brain is made up of:

1. R-complex: the basis of aggressive behavior, territoriality, ritual, and social hierarchies.
2. Limbic system: the part of the brain which we share with other mammals, a primary base for emotions of all kinds.
3. Neocortex: the most important part of the brain, found among higher mammals like primates, first appeared tens of millions of years ago but has changed substantially from that time, the most important functions are thought, reason, and similar complex processes. The ability to develop human culture is found in the neocortex.

B. Language:

Language may be defined as communication by means of a system of symbolic signs. These symbolic signs have no inherent meaning, and should be distinguished from natural signs, which cannot convey ideas. Verbal language could have originated over one million years ago. Written language emerged about 3,500 BC. The importance of language for the development of culture cannot be overly stressed. It both reflects what is most important to a group of people and limits and shapes their knowledge and world views. All languages must be seen as relative to the social setting or culture in which they are located (linguistic relativity). By studying the

language of a people, we can learn something about their overall culture. (Example: Eskimos and the word "snow" and the Japanese and the word "rice")

The idea that language can shape and limit knowledge is controversial when taken to the extreme, as done in the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis.

Most of what animals do is directed by biological instincts. There are, however, some animals that possess elementary components of culture (chimps in particular).

II. Elements of Culture

A. Norms:

Norms may be defined as general rules of behavior that people are expected to follow. Norms may be very important (mores) such as "thou shalt not kill," or they may be of lesser importance (folkways) such as "do not stare at people in an elevator." Norms have certain characteristics. They are not always rigid and there is a range of acceptable behaviors (boundaries). They may be modified depending upon the situation (situational). There are positive rewards for complying with certain norms and punishment for deviance (sanctions). Norms that have been formalized by the state and are backed by formal state authority are called laws (formality).

Cultural universals:

General cultural elements, like norms, are found in all societies. Specific norms, however, vary so significantly from society to society as to preclude their being considered cultural universals. The disorientation that results from being transported into a different culture is known as culture shock.

B. Values:

Values are general and abstract principles or beliefs that tend to carry strong emotional appeal.

1. National character provides a unique mixture of values that appear to characterize a society, but there are limitations on the concept. These include the fact that values are not equally accepted by all members of the society, some values are more general and more impor-

tant than others. Because the more important values tend to be highly abstract they can be interpreted differently by groups within the society, and important values often come into conflict with each other. The unequal distribution of power in a society is frequently more important than general values.

2. Value integration is the concept of a worldwide tendency for the major values to shape most aspects of a society. The limitations to this concept include the fact that social reality may not fit the value, not all groups equally support the same values, seemingly incompatible values from another society have been copied without undue conflict, and the concept of value integration itself may be caused more by the force of the material culture than by the force of major values.
3. Subcultures are distinctive subgroups that live within the more general national culture, accepting most of the national values, but either rejecting many of the dominant values and/or having many additional, unique values of their own. Subcultures are frequently based upon ethnic or racial differences, but other common bases might include: a unique environment, occupation, belief system, or life style.
4. Other elements of nonmaterial culture include: language; belief systems (ideology, mythology); and shared symbols, tastes, and styles.

III. In Order and Conflict: the Dual Nature of Culture

- A. Order and adaptation: other animals, such as bees, have social orders based on biological programming, but humans derive order and unity from their nonmaterial culture.
- B. Cultural diversity exists in part because culture is an adaptation to the material and social environments, which may differ for two or more groups of people. Human evolution and worldwide migration produced significantly different human environments. The borrowing of culture traits as previously isolated cultures came into contact with each

other is known as cultural diffusion.

- C. Nonmaterial culture and human contact produce the potential for conflict as well as cooperation (eg. wars based on religious beliefs).
 - 1. Internal conflict relations: although nonmaterial culture produces social order the questions of who's social order and what kind of social order must also be resolved.
 - 2. External conflict relations involve ethnocentrism and cultural relativism.

Glossary Terms and Definitions

belief systems - a set of beliefs or explanations of some aspect of the world (material or social) that are shared by a group of people (ideology, mythology).(p.96)

culture - the learned part of human behavior.(p.85)

natural signs - a form of communication common among animals which cannot convey abstract ideas.(p.87)

symbolic signs - symbols which in and of themselves have no meaning.(p.86)

linguistic relativity - the notion that language both reflects what is most important to a group of people and limits and shapes the knowledge and world views of people.(p.87)

norms - general rules of behavior that people are expected to follow.(p.89)

laws - rules that have been formalized by the state and are backed by formal state authority.(p.92)

cultural universals - elements of culture that exist in every society.(p.94)

culture shock - a disorientation that occurs when experiencing a new and different culture.(p.94)

values - general and abstract principles or beliefs that tend to carry a strong emotional appeal.(p.94)

individualism - a general value orientation that stresses that the individual and his or her needs are more important than the wider group and its needs.(p.94)

collectivism - a general value orientation that stresses the importance of group needs as opposed to individual needs.(p.94)

value integration - the notion that the major values in a society will shape most aspects of that society.(p.96)

subcultures - groups within a society which are distinct enough to be identified as different from the larger society.(p.97)

ideologies - modern political or religious belief systems.(p.98)

mythologies - the belief system of people in hunting and gathering or horticultural societies.(p.98)

symbols - elements of human language that represent an object or idea.(p.99)

cultural diffusion - occurs when one society borrows a culture trait from another society.(p.102)

ethnocentrism - the ability to dislike people from other cultures seen as different.(p.104)

cultural relativism - the recognition that other people have legitimately differing values due to different needs and historical forces.(p.104)

Key People

Edward Taylor (p.85)

Jane van Lewick-Goodall (p.87)

Edward Sapir (p.88)

George Homans (p.89)

William Graham Sumner (p.89)

Edgar Snow (p.105)

Essay Questions

1. What makes the development of human culture possible? Make sure that your answer is specific and complete.
2. Describe in detail the similarities and differences of communication in humans and animals.

3. Identify and define the major components of non-material culture.
4. Present the sociological argument in support of the notion that humans are not the only animals possessing culture.
5. Explain in detail the "dual nature of culture."

Pop Quiz Questions - True/False

1. Natural signs cannot communicate abstract ideas. (true) (p.87)
2. Most of what animals do is directed by biological instincts. (true) (p.88)
3. General rules of behavior that people are expected to follow are known as values. (false) (p.89)
4. The fact that you are expected to say "fine" when an acquaintance asks how you are is an example of norms known as mores. (false) (p.89)
5. A person who subscribes to the notion of cultural relativity would most likely be highly ethnocentric. (false) (p.105)

Pop Quiz Questions - Fill in the blank

1. The idea that language can shape and limit knowledge is controversial when taken to the extreme, as done in the SAPIR-WHORF hypothesis. (p.88)
2. Most of what animals do is directed by biological INSTINCT. (p.88)
3. NORMS are the general rules of behavior that people are expected to follow by other members of the culture. (p.89)
4. Rules, and especially important rules, require enforcement mechanisms. Norms are "backed up" with SANCTIONS. (p.92)
5. Humans are the only animals to create a complex symbolic LANGUAGE. (p.105)

Lecture Resources

(Questions for class discussion)

1. Are humans the only animals that possess culture?
If not, what aspects of human culture serve to distinguish humans from other species?
2. Discuss some of the more prominent folkways, mores, and laws surrounding the university subculture.

CHAPTER 5

SOCIAL STRUCTURE: GROUPS AND ORGANIZATIONS

Chapter Outline

- I. Social Structure and Institutions
Social structure may be defined as a system of social relations among individuals within groups and among groups or categories of people in a society. The position of a person in specific groups and organizations is known as their status, and a person's most important position is known as a master status. Individuals have roles in the society. These are norms and behavior expectations associated with a status position, and most individuals have more than one role. Role strain occurs when the roles of one specific status are difficult to follow at the same time. Role conflict occurs when the role expectations of two or more positions are in conflict. Institutions may be defined as clusters of norms centered around important tasks in the society. They constitute the merger between culture and social structure. There are several institutions in the society, each related to a particular important collective task (family, economy, polity, religion, education).
- II. The Merger of Technostructure, Culture and Social Structure
Material culture (technostructure) has a central position in the merger of culture and social structure; namely, the shaping of basic institutions in the society. Group conflicts shaped by the technostructure also play an important part in shaping institutions.
- III. Groups
A group may be defined as two or more people who interact with other members of the group over an extended period of time, forming more or less ordered and lasting relationships. There are several types of groups:
 - A. Non-groups:
 1. Social aggregates are collections of

- individuals who have not formed lasting group ties.
- 2. Social categories contain people with common characteristics (such as all university students).
- B. Groups:
 - 1. Primary groups are small groups in which personal ties are very strong among the members.
 - 2. Secondary groups are groups that are formed for specific, limited purposes and do not have strong emotional ties.
- C. Group formation often has problems with the free-rider or with mobilization.
 - 1. Free-rider problem: these are people who benefit from the actions of like-minded individuals but do nothing to advance the group's cause.
 - 2. Mobilization groups: groups intentionally formed by its members to act upon some common interest or interests.

IV. Outcomes of Group Structure

Groups may be made up of dyads (two person groups), triads (three person groups), or the groups may be larger. Moving from dyads to triads results in several important changes, including the fact that the number of possible interaction patterns increase and that power relations become more complicated. Moving on to even larger groups gradually increases the complexity, and if the group is to be maintained a new means of providing social organization must be created.

Communication networks are detailed in Figure 5.5

- A. Group boundary maintenance:

Similar boundary characteristics have the same effects on groups, no matter what type of group is involved. A main intent of having open boundaries may be to expand membership (as is the case with many religious groups or political parties). The outcomes of closed boundaries may include: higher group prestige, more group unity, stronger personal relationships in the group, and control of important characteristics of the members.
- B. Out-group conflict:

This type of conflict helps to maintain group boundaries, has a unifying effect, and produces more intolerance within the group.

V. Groups in Historical Context

German concepts for two distinct types of societies were made famous by Ferdinand Tönnies:

- A. Gemeinschaft refers to a small community environment where most people know each other rather well, and where family contacts are more extensive, with most people living close to their extended relatives.
- B. Gesellschaft refers to a society in which many more social contacts are through secondary groups, with people who are not well-known and even strangers.
- C. Outcomes of the shift to gesellschaft include: greater value diversity, life-styles, and more freedom to follow different life-styles. Primary group contacts have not been reduced; rather, secondary groups have simply grown.

VI. Bureaucratic Organizations

According to Weber, the characteristics of modern bureaucratic organizations include: rather explicit rules, laws, or administrative regulations; a hierarchy of offices with differing levels of authority; management based on written documents; bureaucratic officials who are expected to have special training. The activity of the bureaucracy demands the full working capacity of the office holder. Bureaucracy follows general rules, which are more or less stable, more or less exhaustive, and which can be learned.

Historically, bureaucratic organizations arose, in part, to serve collective needs more efficiently (example: 18th Century France). Today, modern industrial societies operate with huge state and corporate bureaucracies (example: the U.S. Federal Government). The main task of a bureaucracy is to coordinate and control people (example: Antonio's research on the expansion of the Roman state).

The major problems with bureaucratic organizations are that they are legalistic and impersonal, people cannot always be categorized and treated alike, and there is trained incapacity built into them. According to Lyapsky, street-level bureaucracies exist at lower levels and lack clear measures of performance. Above all, bureaucracies have no inherent morality and will work for anybody who knows how to control them.

Glossary Terms and Definitions

social structure - a system of social relations among individuals within groups and among groups or categories of people in a society.(p.110)

status - the position of a person in specific groups and organizations.(p.110)

master status - a person's most important status position.(p.110)

roles - norms and behavior expectations associated with a status position.(p.111)

role strain - occurs when the roles of one specific status are difficult to follow at the same time.(p.111)

role conflict - occurs when the role expectations of two or more positions are in conflict.(p.111)

institutions - clusters of norms centered around important tasks in the society (family, religion, economy, polity, education).(p.111)

groups - two or more people who interact with other members of the group over an extended period of time, forming more or less ordered and lasting relationships. (p.115)

social aggregate - collections of people who have not formed lasting group ties.(p.115)

primary groups - small groups in which personal ties are very strong among the members.(p.115)

secondary groups - groups that are formed for specific, limited purposes and do not have strong emotional ties. (p.115)

free-rider problem - people who benefit from the actions of like-minded individuals but do nothing to advance the cause.(p.119)

dyads - two person groups.(p.120)

triads - three person groups.(p.120)

gemeinschaft - a small community environment where most people know each other rather well, and where family

contacts are more extensive, with most people living very close to their extended relatives.(p.126)

gesellschaft - a society in which many more social contacts are through secondary groups, with people who are not well-known and even strangers.(p.127)

bureaucratic organizations - organizations characterized by rational and formalized procedures which produce greater efficiency in accomplishing collective goals.(p.127)

street-level bureaucracies - lower level bureaucratic organizations that specialize in public services.(p.132)

Key People

Georg Simmel (p.111)
William Graham Sumner (p.125)
Ferdinand Tönnies (p.126)
Max Weber (p.128)
Robert Merton (p.132)
Michael Lipsky (p.132)

Essay Questions

1. Define social structure and describe its major components.
2. Define the sociological concept of "social group" and briefly describe the basic types of groups.
3. Define bureaucracy and briefly describe the six major characteristics of bureaucracy.
4. Present a short history of bureaucratic organization.
5. Describe in detail the major strengths and weaknesses of bureaucratic organizations.

Pop Quiz Questions - True/False

1. In his study of communes in the United States, Kanter found that those communes which existed for a long period of time were less concerned with boundary maintenance and allowed unrestricted

growth of their membership. (false) (p.125)

2. In addition to increasing in-group loyalty, out-group conflict produces more intolerance within. (true) (p.125)
3. Ferdinand Tönnies' classic concept of Gesellschaft refers to a small community environment where most people know each other well and where family contacts are more extensive. (false) (p.127)
4. It was Max Weber, more than anyone else, who recognized the positive and negative aspects of modern bureaucracies. (true) (p.127)
5. According to your text, bureaucratic organizations have been at the center of conflict in modern societies. (true) (p.134)

Pop Quiz Questions - Fill in the blank

1. A person's most important status position (or positions) is sometimes called a MASTER status. (p.110)
2. Some of the roles of one specific status may be difficult to follow at the same time. This condition is called role STRAIN. (p.111)
3. Thus, when we refer to "the family" we mean the family as an INSTITUTION - the clustering of norms related to caring for the young (as well as the family's other functions). (p.112)
4. The members of SECONDARY groups do not have strong emotional ties, and the groups are formed for more specific limited purposes. (p.115)
5. There is a growing number of bureaucratic organizations that specialize in public services that contain some special problems. Lipsky calls these organizations STREET-LEVEL bureaucracies. (p.132)

Lecture Resources

(Questions for class discussion)

1. What are the various roles that are associated with the status position of 1) university student and,

2) faculty member. What are some examples of role strain and role conflict that are directly related to these positions?

2. What are the characteristics of a college or university that would allow us to classify it as a bureaucracy? Give some examples of "exceptional cases" which are not easily handled by the university administration.

CHAPTER 6

POPULATION AND URBANIZATION

Chapter Outline

I. Population

Population may be defined as the people who make up a society. The study of population characteristics and change is known as demography.

A. Population characteristics include:

1. Age distribution, which shows the distribution of a population according to the numbers of people in each age category. (Mexico is a typical Third World Nation, the United Kingdom is typical of an advanced industrial nation, and the United States has been dominated by the effects of W.W.I and the Great Depression.)
2. Sex ratios show the ratio of men to women in a society. There is great variation in sex ratios world-wide.
3. Migration occurs when people change their primary residence from one geographical area to another. Internal migration occurs within the same geographical area, such as a nation or state, and external migration is migration that crosses geographical boundaries, such as nations or states. Push and pull factors influence a person's desire to leave one geographic area or attract them to another area.
4. Fertility and mortality are primary demographic variables which affect other population characteristics. The crude birth rate is the number of births in a given year per 1,000 people in the society. The crude death rate is the number of deaths in a given year per 1,000 people in the society. The fertility rate is the number of births per 1,000 women of child bearing age in the society.

B. The U.S. population: a short history:

1. Upon the arrival of Columbus, there were approximately 1 million people living in North America.

2. The first European settlement at Jamestown, Va in 1607 had only about 100 settlers (today there are about 240 million people living in the U.S.).
 3. About 50 million people have migrated to the U.S. since 1776.
 4. The crude birth rate and fertility rate have been declining since the 1800's.
 5. The "baby boom" after W.W.II was a notable exception to the downward trend.
- B. Population as a social force:
- The effects of age distribution include the fact that rates of serious crime in the U.S. have varied according to the number of young men in the society. The standard of living varies according to fluctuations in the Gross National Product and population growth. Unemployment relates to age distribution to the extent that there are variations in the number of people looking for jobs.
- Compared to other groups, blacks in the U.S. have a higher rate of many kinds of social problems. A major contributing factor to their problems appears to have been the disrupting effects of massive internal migration. Other effects of the "baby boom" include: the strain on the social security system, the fact that educational institutions (that geared up to accommodate the "boomers" in the 1960's) may be affected by the decreasing number of college age people, and the fact that there is now a "baby boom echo" - the children of those people born during the baby boom.
- There is a generational conflict between generations that is produced by changing social conditions and differences in material interests.
- C. Social and material influences on population:
- Technology and economics have led to industrialization, birth control, war, medical care improvements, and increased food production and sanitation. All of these things have influenced population.
- Malthus put forth the first extensive theory of population change in 1798. His primary point was that the supply of food increases in an arithmetic ratio, but population increases in a geometric ratio. Thus, he believed that there would always be overpopula-

tion (too many people for the food supply) unless growth was held in check by some social means. So far, at least, Malthus has been shown to be incorrect.

The demographic transition refers to fluctuations in population size that result from industrialization:

Stage one: high birth rates and high death rates produce low growth.

Stage two: high birth rates and low death rates produce rapid population increases.

Stage three: low birth rates and low death rates produce low growth, if any.

D. World population trends:

The major question pertaining to population growth at present is, will the less industrialized and under developed nations go through the demographic transitions as did the already developed nations? The pessimistic assessment is that underdeveloped countries will not undergo industrialization. The optimistic assessment cites the fact that for the first time since detailed figures have been kept, the rate of world population growth did slow somewhat in the previous decade (from an annual growth rate of 2.0 percent to 1.7 percent). It must be stressed that world population is not the primary cause of world hunger. The problem is not a shortage of food, but the unequal distribution of food.

II. Urbanization

Urbanization may be defined as the tendency for a greater concentration of a population in cities. A city is a physical area, with a concentration of people living more or less permanently in the area, who are not primarily engaged in agriculture, and urban is the style of life associated with cities. A Metropolitan area is a central city and its nearby suburbs. The Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA) includes counties with at least one city of 50,000 or more of population. The study of the relationship between the physical environment and human behavior is known as human ecology.

A. The emergence and evolution of the city:
The development of early agriculture some 10,000 years ago made human settlements

slowly increase in number. The first "cities" were probably more like small villages with huts of baked mud and baked reeds, comparable to a beaver's nest. An example of such a city would be Jarmo in what is now Northern Iraq. As agricultural methods advanced, when the plow and irrigation brought more abundant food, civilizations and cities expanded. True cities emerged about 6,000 years ago, and were primarily centers for religion, commerce and political administration. The population of these first great cities was quite large (upwards of 200,000). With the fall of the Roman Empire, about 1,500 years ago, the urban advance found earlier in Europe and the Middle East declined. There was a rebirth of the city in Europe between 1100 and 1300 AD, but the next major development did not occur until the Industrial Revolution. By 1950, thirty percent of the world's population lived in cities of 5,000 or more, and by the year 2,000 over half of the world population is expected to live in urban areas.

The United States was a relatively new nation in the late 1800's and its cities grew more slowly than the cities in Europe, however, by the early 1900's we find the existence of the metropolis. The large U.S. cities grew with two sources of immigration: the first from abroad and the second from internal migration. After 1945, another urban trend appeared for the U.S. - suburbanization, or the moving of people from the central cities into smaller communities outside the urban area.

B. Community power structures:

There has been a long tradition of community power studies by American sociologists (eg. Floyd Hunter's study of community power in Atlanta, Ga, and Robert Dahl's study of New Haven, Ct.) Since cities are not undifferentiated areas, people in the different territories are often in conflict over what urban policies will be established.

C. Urban ecology: the study of the relationship between humans and their urban environment. Early studies by American sociologists were concerned with the spatial development of cities. The studies were dominated by descriptions of Chicago, by the sociologists at the University of Chicago, who identified

several types of spatial development (concentric zones, which resembled the development in Chicago; sector theory; and multiple nuclei theory).

Many early sociologists considered the urban environment harmful to humans, but unlike animal studies, studies of crowded urban conditions among humans have not shown a consistent relationship between crowding and various mental problems. The primary reason that conditions such as crowding do not always cause problems for humans, in contrast to non-human animals, is that our intelligence and culture have allowed us to make adjustments. When we move from the broader city environment to a person's more immediate physical environment, however, we find more significant effects on human behavior (many of which are negative).

D. Urban problems:

Inherent self-interests and the demands of capitalism make U.S. cities less likely to receive the support they need to deal with their problems. The underlying public material supports which make urban living possible (the infrastructure) is badly in need of expansion and repair in most U.S. cities. The stress on private wealth at the expense of public needs and the "tax revolt" of the late 1970's have compounded the problem.

The American reliance on the automobile (an inefficient mode of transportation in crowded urban areas) contributes greatly to the problem of transportation. The lack of adequate mass transit systems can be traced to the post W.W.II decision to build highway systems rather than mass transit systems.

A lack of housing and unaffordable housing led to an estimated two million homeless people in the U.S. in 1984. Housing policies of the U.S. government (such as tax deduction allowances and the rapid construction of large poorly constructed public housing projects in the 1960's) have served to make the housing situation even worse.

Glossary Terms and Definitions

demography - the study of population characteristics

and change.(p.138)

sociology of population - the demographic perspective which focuses on how population characteristics influence the society.(p.138)

sex and age ratios - population characteristics which deal with the numbers of persons in each age category and the relative number of males and females.(p.140)

migration - occurs when people change their primary residence from one geographical area to another.(p.140)

crude birth rate - the number of births in a given year per 1,000 people in the society.(p.143)

crude death rate - the number of deaths in a given year per 1,000 people in the society.(p.143)

fertility rate - the number of births per 1,000 women of child bearing age in the society.(p.144)

demographic transition - fluctuations in population size that result from industrialization.(p.150)

urbanization - the tendency for a greater concentration of a population in cities.(p.153)

human ecology - the study of the relationship between the physical environment and human behavior.(p.153)

city - a physical area, with a concentration of people living more or less permanently in the area, who are not engaged in agriculture.(p.153)

urban - the style of life associated with cities.(p.153)

metropolitan - a central city and its nearby suburbs.
(p.153)

Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA) - counties with at least one city of 50,000 or more population.(p.153)

suburbanization - the movement of people from the central cities into smaller communities outside the urban area.(p.157)

urban ecology - the study of the relationship between humans and their urban environment.(p.159)

concentric zones - the spatial development pattern of a city which contains a central business district, a class residential zone, an upper-class area, and a commuter zone. (p.159)

urban infrastructure - the underlying public material: water lines, sewers, roads, bridges, and so forth. (p.162)

Key People

Thomas Malthus (p.150)
Lewis Mumford (p.153)
V. Gordon Childe (p.155)
Hugh Thomas (p.156)
Floyd Hunter (p.157)
Robert Dahl (p.158)
Harvey Molotch (p.159)
John Kenneth Galbraith (p.162)

Essay Questions

1. Present an overview of the field of demography. Be sure that your answer includes its two major forms and important topics of interest.
2. Present a brief historical overview of the growth of the United States population.
3. Define and explain the major consequences of the "baby boom" generation.
4. Describe in detail the perspectives of Thomas Malthus concerning the growth of population.
5. Define urban ecology and trace its development beginning with the classic studies by American sociologists at the University of Chicago.
6. List and describe the major problems associated with urbanization.

Pop Quiz Questions - True/False

1. A primary reason for the comparative lack of mass transit in the United States is the political choice made after World War II to fund an extensive

highway system rather than mass transit. (true)
(p.163)

2. Housing policies by the U.S. government have, for the most part, made the housing situation worse. (true) (p.164)
3. In his famous study of community power structure in Atlanta, Ga., Floyd Hunter found that city politics were dominated by a small business elite. (true) (p.157)
4. The process of urbanization has created many problems in all industrial societies, though in many respects the problems are now much worse in the United States than in other countries. (true) (p.162)
5. Considering only the age distribution of a society we cannot tell much about its past and future. (false) (p.164)

Pop Quiz Questions - Fill in the blank

1. A society cannot exist without the people who make it up, and collectively we refer to these people who are members of a society as its POPULATION. (p.137)
2. The study of population characteristics and change is called DEMOGRAPHY. (p.138)
3. MIGRATION occurs when people change their primary residence from one geographic area to another. (p.140)
4. The CRUDE birth rate is the number of births in a given year per 1,000 people in the society. (p.143)
5. The first extensive theory of population change was put forth in 1798 by THOMAS MALTHUS. (p.150)

Lecture Resources

(Questions for class discussion)

1. According to the text, "although population characteristics shape the nature of societies, their

dominant cultural and material substructure also shapes population characteristics." What are the dominant cultural and material aspects of American society which have shaped our population in the past? Are there any recent social changes which might result in major alterations in the American population in the future?

2. What are the major problems facing American cities today? Which of these, if any, are also being experienced by rural communities? How are rural communities affected by urban problems?

CHAPTER 7

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY: SOCIALIZATION, SOCIAL INTERACTION, AND CROWDS

Chapter Outline

I. The Socialization Process

Socialization is the process through which our cultural heritage is transmitted. An old debate among those contemplating human nature centers around nature versus nurture as contributing factors to the process. Those who feel that nature must be stressed argue that humans are mostly a product of their biology, while those who feel that nurture is more important claim that humans are born with the potential to be anything, with culture and learning determining what the person becomes. The theory of cultural determinism stresses that almost everything humans do is learned. Although some reservations about the efficacy of the nurture/cultural determinism argument have been expressed in recent years (by Freeman in 1983, Wrong in 1961) sociologists remain primarily concerned with the parts of human character which are nurtured.

Several developmental theories of socialization exist, including those of Piaget (who introduced four primary stages of cognitive development), and Kohlberg (who states that children go through important stages in moral development).

A. Development of the "self"

The "self" may be defined as the image we have of ourselves, our abilities, and our character, which guides how we behave and what we do. There is evidence that humans are the only animals to fully develop a self-concept, and sociologists view the self-concept as a significant factor in determining behavior.

C. H. Cooley introduced the concept of the looking glass self, which is the self we develop as a result of seeing our actions reflected in the responses of others.

G. H. Mead expanded the ideas of Cooley to include the introduction of the concept of

the "I" (the spontaneous aspect of self) and the "me" (which is comparable to the looking glass self). Through development of the self the person is placed in the context of his/her society, learns what others expect of them, and the roles they are expected to play.

B. Socialization agents:

There are several kinds of socialization which take place throughout a person's lifetime.

Primary: the basic form of socialization in which language, etc. are learned.

Anticipatory: involves learning a future role.

Developmental: the learning of new skills in adulthood.

Resocialization: occurs when there has been a major break from what has been acquired during primary socialization.

The family is the most important agent of socialization, especially for young children. Peer groups are second in importance. Schools feature a hidden curriculum which socializes the child with respect to obedience, respect for authority, and the dominant values of the society. The mass media influences people's attitudes and beliefs.

C. The conflict perspective on the socialization process, unlike the functional perspective which emphasizes that socialization creates stability and makes society possible, focuses on issues such as what type of social order (and who's social order) is promoted; are the social control mechanisms used in the process desirable for all concerned; and do parents represent the ruling class and make children conform to their values.

II. Social Interaction: the micro level events which provide the basis for the abstractions that constitute the macro level analysis

A. The power of the group:

Milgram showed that variation in group cohesion can result in variation in compliance on the part of naive subjects.

Asch showed that individual perception and autonomy can be influenced by group experience. Group decision making influences virtually every aspect of modern social living.

B. Interaction in everyday life: the perspectives of Erving Goffman.

Goffman's dramaturgical theory refers to hu-

man interaction as a stage production or drama. Role performances provide the basis for judging ourselves and others, and we try to control the impressions others have of us (impression management) so as to enhance our role performance. However, multiple expectations for each role make this difficult, and multiple roles add to the difficulty by introducing even more possibilities for conflicting expectations.

The front stage: where roles must be performed before an "audience."

The back stage: a place where the person can perform his/her roles in the absence of an audience.

- III. Collective Behavior: group behavior that is relatively unplanned and spontaneous. Social movements are organized and long lasting groups which are trying to create or resist social change. Some sociologists regard them as too normative to be included as collective behavior.
- A. Early views of crowds:
Early social scientists, such as Gustave Le Bon, discussed collective behavior in very negative terms. Contemporary studies, however, indicate that crowds are often not irrational and guided only by destructive emotional urges (Couch, 1968; Rudé, 1964).
- B. Theories of collective behavior:
Contagion theory: Blumer's theory which focuses on an "emotional circular reaction" which intensifies excitement in a crowd.
Emergent norm theory: Turner and Killian's theory that new norms emerge within the context of a crowd which redefine what is expected of people.
Rational calculus theory: Berk's theory which argues that individuals in crowds make more or less rational decisions about their risk versus rewards.
Convergence theory: Miller's theory which focuses on the process by which people with similar characteristics are pulled together to form a crowd.
Value added theory: Smelser's theory which describes five stages in the development of collective behavior, each of which adds a new value, making the outbreak of collective behavior more likely (structural conduciveness,

structural strain, generalized belief, precipitating event, and mobilization).

Glossary Terms and Definitions

socialization - the process through which human beings acquire their cultural heritage.(p.170)

cultural determinism - the belief that almost everything humans do is learned.(p.171)

the self - the image we have of ourselves, our abilities and our character, which guides how we behave and what we do.(p.172)

the looking glass self - the self that develops as a result of seeing one's actions reflected in the responses of others.(p.173)

the "I" and "me" - the active, spontaneous aspect of the self ("I") and the internalized reflections of others ("me").p.173)

primary socialization - the basic form of socialization in which language, cultural norms, basic personality, and a world view is developed.(p.174)

anticipatory socialization - the learning of a future role that a person will have or would like to have.
(p.174)

developmental socialization - the socialization that builds upon the primary socialization of a person's younger years.(p.174)

resocialization - the socialization that occurs following a major break from what has been acquired in a person's primary and developmental socialization.(p.174)

hidden curriculum - that part of the school experience that teaches obedience, respect for authority, and the dominant values of the society.(p.176)

mass society - a society in which the ideas, life styles, and values of the people have become more and more similar because the socialization of these people is so dominated by a common mass media exposure.(p.178)

dramaturgical theory - a theory which refers to human

interaction as a stage production or drama.(p.183)

role performance - behavior associated with the performance of a rôle.(p.183)

impression management - controlling the impressions others have of oneself so as to enhance role performance.(p.183)

collective behavior - group behavior that is relatively unplanned or spontaneous.(p.185)

social movements - organized and long lasting groups which are trying to create or resist social change.(p.185)

contagion theory - a theory of collective behavior which focuses on an emotional circular reaction which intensifies excitement in a crowd.(p.186)

emergent norm theory - a theory of collective behavior that emphasizes the emergence of new norms within the context of a crowd which redefines what is expected of people.(p.186)

rational calculus theory - a theory of collective behavior which argues that individuals in crowds make more or less rational decisions about their risk versus rewards.(p.187)

value added theory - a theory which describes five stages in the development of collective behavior, each of which adds a new value, making the outbreak of collective behavior more likely.(p.187)

Key People

Kingsley Davis (p.170)
Franz Boas (p.170)
Margaret Mead (p.171)
Jean Piaget (p.172)
Lawrence Kohlberg (p.172)
W. I. Thomas (p.172)
Charles Horton Cooley (p.173)
George Herbert Mead (p.173)
George Gerbner (p.178)
Stanley Milgram (p.182)
Solomon Asch (p.182)
Irving Janis (p.183)

Erving Goffman (p.183)
James Weller and Enrico Quarantelli (p.185)
Gustave Le Bon (p.186)
Herbert Blumer (p.186)
Neil Smelser (p.187)

Essay Questions

1. What is the "nature versus nurture" debate? What is the position of mainstream sociology on this issue and what arguments are used to support this position?
2. Compare and contrast the theories of George Herbert Mead and Charles Horton Cooley concerning the nature and development of the "self."
3. Present in detail the functionalist and conflict perspectives on the process of socialization.
4. Summarize in detail the views of Erving Goffman on everyday social interaction.
5. Define collective behavior and briefly describe its major forms.
6. Identify and briefly describe the five major theories of collective behavior.

Pop Quiz Questions - True/False

1. Through interaction with others we come to see ourselves as others see us, thus leading to a socially acquired self-concept. (true)(p.187)
2. There are many agents of socialization in modern societies. (true)(p.189)
3. According to your text, the socialization process serves to promote equality in society. (false)(p.189)
4. As a result of its deterioration in recent years, the family is no longer the most important socialization agent in society. (false)(p.174)
5. The hidden curriculum in schools serves to provide children with technical information and other

kinds of knowledge so that the young can become contributing members of society. (false) (p.176)

Pop Quiz Questions - Fill in the blank

1. The primary focus of this text has been and will continue to be MACRO sociology. (p.169)
2. The SELF can be described as the image we have of ourselves, our abilities and our character, which guides how we behave and what we do. (p.172)
3. Charles Horton Cooley recognized that the self is a social product that comes from interactions with others. Through what he called a LOOKING-GLASS self we see our actions reflected in the responses of others. (p.173)
4. Although it is true that the most important stages of socialization occur during CHILDHOOD, socialization is a lifelong process. (p.173)
5. The master of this perspective on everyday interaction was Erving Goffman, whose books on the subject are highly interesting and readable. His perspective is often called by the awkward term DRAMATURGICAL theory. (p.183)

Lecture Resources

(Questions for class discussion)

1. Following the perspectives of Mead and Cooley, how actively should parents become involved in shaping the self-concepts of their children? What are the alternatives?
2. Using either a recent and well publicized event (riot, protest march, incident of crowd behavior at an athletic event) or a famous historical example, such as the Jonestown tragedy, lead the class in a discussion of how the various theories of collective behavior might be used to explain the participants' behavior.

CHAPTER 8

SOCIAL CONTROL AND DEVIANCE

Chapter Outline

I. Social Control

Social control may be defined as the repression of social conflict which allows predictability and security in the process of daily living.
(eg. norms and laws)

A. Methods of social control:

There are basically three methods of external social control. Force is expensive and needs the use of weapons and many personnel. It is also inefficient and cannot be used to control those who must work independently or creatively. It is the method used when all else fails. (eg. the criminal justice system)
Material rewards are used as a method of social control, especially in industrial/capitalist nations, where desire for gains leads to compliance.

Ignorance is an effective means of social control, and information control allows selective information supporting specific groups to influence opinions. The mass media guides the views of many people.

Internal methods of social control (values, attitudes, self-images) are the least expensive and most efficient. They are dependent upon the socialization process.

Ideologies, belief systems which guide behavior, may be political, economic, religious, or a combination of all three. Counter ideologies call for rejection of elites. The struggle for minds is intense and leads to close monitoring of school materials.

Collective rituals, which are often historical or religious, celebrate important aspects or values of the society (eg. July 4 and Christmas). The elites try to control collective rituals and often emphasize an outside threat (real or imagined) to create unity - out-group conflict tends to produce in-group solidarity.

Those who reject their position in life after self-evaluation, especially the lower classes, are a potential source of disorder. Those who accept lower positions often have a lower self-evaluation. Employment is an important variable in self-evaluation. There are limits to social control. Social control and obedience are seldom complete. The power of those in authority is often frightening (eg. the Milgram Study).

II. Deviance

Deviance, or the breaking of the rules or norms of the society, ranges from minor infractions to very serious infractions. Specific deviance varies from society to society and even from situation to situation. Power and influence may prevent an act of deviance from being labeled as such.

A. Deviance and society:

The nature of deviance is defined by society in terms of what is most valued in that society. Deviance is necessary to every society so that the "good people" know that they are good (because there are "bad" people). Punishment shows which norms are most important in the society at the time.

B. The selection process:

Who is defined as deviant depends upon the characteristics of the society as well as the individual. Not everyone who commits a deviant act becomes known as a deviant. Power and influence are important factors because people use power to hide their deviance. If the deviant does not disrupt the lives of others he or she is less likely to come to the attention of officials.

C. Crime:

Crime is defined as an intentional act which is in violation of a law. This is a legal definition. Political systems define what is crime - for instance, to poison an individual is a crime but to dump dangerous chemical waste near drinking water was not, until recently, considered a criminal act. Legal codes were developed to control random individual vengeance, to regulate conflicts, to promote social order by defining what can and cannot be done. They are favorable to those with power.

- D. Types of crime:
Traditional - (street crime) transgressions against people or property accepted by all societies as crimes.
Organized - supported by a criminal organization with a hierarchy of authority figures. Traditional crimes are committed, plus there are threats and bribes. These organizations are very effective at hiding criminal activities with legal front operations.
White collar - criminal acts committed in the course of otherwise legitimate occupational activities. They are the most costly in terms of property loss. Recently, there has been an increase in violent white collar crime (eg. chemical dumping).
Political - committed with intent to produce or resist change in the general society, not for personal gain. "One person's freedom fighter is another person's vicious criminal."
- E. Crime rates (traditional crime):
The Uniform Crime Report - lists crimes which are reported to the police, and underestimates the crime rate due to the fact that many more crimes are committed which are unreported.
The National Crime Survey - is a standard social survey.
Serious crimes listed in these reports are: murder, rape, robbery, aggravated assault, burglary, larceny theft, auto theft, plus an eighth crime of arson was recently added. Crime rates are shown as a rate per 100,000 population to allow for comparisons across time periods and varied population sizes. The rates show the changes in the levels of crime from year to year. Serious crime and violent crime has increased in the U.S. over the past ten years.
- F. Characteristics of criminals:
Overwhelmingly, most criminals are male and young. The poor and minorities have higher arrest rates. Murders are committed mostly by relatives or close friends of the victim, which suggests that effective gun control would reduce the murder rate.
- G. Demographics:
The baby boom generation meant more young males in the 1960's and 1970's, and during that time there was an increase in crime. There has also been an increase in the

divorce rate, and in the number of single parent families.

III. Explanations of Crime and Deviance

- A. Quasi-theories are non-scientific ways to approach understanding individual acts of deviance. Social scientists believe that deviance cannot be fully understood without the examination of wider social conditions. Residual deviance, that which does not fit into quasi-theories, leads people to apply labels such as "crazy" and is dealt with by mental health professionals.
- B. Biological theories of deviance:
Lombroso believed characteristics such as body shape and facial characteristics were related to criminal activity.
The XYY chromosome theory argues that the extra Y chromosome in some males indicated a tendency toward criminal activity, due to the fact that a slightly higher percentage of males in prisons have the extra chromosome. In cases of mental illness, biological precursors are accepted, however, environmental stressors also influence mental stress.
- C. Social stress and anomie theory:
Social stress is experienced when a condition exists which creates frustration or psychological stress for the individual (eg. poverty, inequality). It can, but does not always have to, lead to deviance.
Inequality, if great, can lead to conflict between those at the top and those at the bottom with frustration and anger among those at the bottom. This, in turn, may lead to crime. Other stressors include: family conflict, pressure at work or school. Stress can lead to low self-esteem, which can lead to deviance.
Anomie is defined as normlessness or a contradiction between norms or between norms and actual conditions in society. Anomie leads to deviance when society places great emphasis on success, but society does not provide adequate means to achieve success among some segments of the population. The U.S. has the highest level of inequality among the industrialized nations and no more equality of opportunity than the other nations. It is the large gap, plus the high material aspir-

ations for all levels of society, and not poverty per se, which produces a tendency toward crime.

D. Control theories:

Control theories focus on why people are less bonded to the society to begin with. Bonding occurs via: attachment to others (parents, teachers), involvements (at work, school, church), commitments or support of the values of the society. The greater the degree of bonding, the less likely a person feels the need to turn to deviance.

E. Culture and learning:

Cultural influences involve t.v. violence and pornographic materials.

Learning: Sutherland's Differential Association Theory states that deviant behavior must be learned from others.

Differing sub-cultural values are learned, as are lower class subcultural values, and the differences between them and those of the people in the dominant culture can often lead to deviance.

F. Labeling theories:

Labeling theories have been the most popular in recent years, and are useful in understanding how people come to accept themselves as deviant. They work on a social psychological level, and build on the work of G.H. Mead. Primary deviance - most people commit deviant acts but do not consider themselves to be deviant.

Secondary deviance - when the person comes to view him or her self as deviant.

Matza's theory of the process leading to secondary deviance: the ban, transparency, apprehension, being cast, exclusion, display of authority (includes degradation ceremonies) building an identity.

G. Conflict theories:

Conflict theorists see deviance as acts which are committed by the relatively powerless which create problems for the more powerful. These acts are more likely to be against the law and these laws enforced. They argue that the laws are made by the affluent members of the society, and that it is the poor and the minorities who are more often arrested and given longer prison sentences.

Employment: the upper class is motivated by

the goals and aims of the organization; the middle class is motivated by direct rewards; but the lower class have less influence on how things get done and are more likely to break the rules.

The socialization of children is influenced by the parent's work experience. Working class parents are more authoritarian, which leads to alienation from their children. In Japan, delinquency is found in the middle class. The homogeneity of the population leads to less in-group/out-group conflict, and less material inequality.

IV. Solutions to Crime

- A. Get tougher - longer prison terms, more executions, hire more police.
- B. Reduce underlying social conditions which help breed crime - poverty, habitual criminals.
- C. Generally, few methods tried so far have had overall success. The problems with a more efficient police force would lead some civil liberties to be violated. The most effective way to reduce crime would be "B" but this would lead to higher taxes and higher prices for food and goods. Headstart has been shown to reduce crime somewhat, but after years of neglect and poverty, it has not been possible to change young adults from their criminal ways.

Glossary Terms and Definitions

criminal justice system - police, courts, prisons.(p.196)

deviance - breaking the rules or norms of a society.
(p.203)

crime - an intentional act which is in violation of a law.(p.206)

traditional crime - the type recognized by all societies as crime (murder, robbery, rape, etc.)(p.206)

organized crime - supported by criminal organizations with a hierarchy of authority figures, includes all of the traditional crimes, plus bribery and threats, and is often hidden by legal front operations.(p.207)

white collar crime - crimes committed by a person in the course of his or her otherwise legitimate occupational activities.(p.207)

political crime - crimes committed with the intent to produce or resist change in the general society.(p.207)

residual deviance - deviance which does not fit elsewhere (mental illness).(p.211)

anomie - normlessness or a contradiction between norms or between norms and actual conditions in society.(p.213)

differential association theory - Sutherland's theory that deviant behavior must be learned in interaction with people who are already deviant.(p.214)

labeling theory - some people are selected and treated as deviant and come to view themselves as such.(p.215)

primary deviance - acts of deviance which everyone has committed.(p.215)

secondary deviance - deviance of a person who has come to view him or herself as deviant.(p.215)

degradation ceremonies - used to shape or control, for example: body searches, aspects of basic training for the military.(p.217)

Key People

Emile Durkheim (p.195)

Karl Marx (p.199)

Stanley Milgram (p.202)

Edwin Sutherland (p.214)

Walker Miller (p.215)

George Herbert Mead (p.215)

Edwin Lemert (p.215)

David Matza (p.215)

Erving Goffman (p.217)

Mark Colvin and John Pauly (p.218)

Essay Questions

1. Define social control and explain why all societies need at least some form of social control.

2. Compare and contrast internal versus external means of social control.
3. According to your text, "societies need some deviance." Explain in detail the positive aspects of deviant behavior.
4. Present in detail the conflict perspective on deviant behavior.
5. Summarize Kerbo's views on the various "solutions" to the problem of crime in America.

Pop Quiz Questions - True/False

1. All societies require social organization and social order if life for the large number of people making up society is to be possible. (true) (p.222)
2. No society is ever totally successful in controlling deviance, nor would a society want to be so successful. (true) (p.222)
3. All individuals who have committed deviant acts are perceived as deviants. (false) (p.222)
4. The extent of traditional crime in the United States is measured by the FBI through crimes reported to police and social surveys. (true) (p.222)
5. Sociologists agree about the most important causes of crime and deviance. (false) (p.223)

Pop Quiz Questions - Fill in the blank

1. In the earliest human societies, social control was the exclusive task of the KINSHIP system. (p.194)
2. Despite more formal legal rights with respect to police restrictions, the UNITED STATES has a larger prison population (per population size) than any other major Western industrial nation. (p.197)
3. By the INTERNAL means of social control we are referring to the attitudes, values, and self-

images people have developed that make them follow the rules, but at times also allow them to be easily manipulated and controlled by others.(p.201)

4. We can define DEVIANCE as breaking the rules or norms of a society, either through behavior or beliefs that are prohibited or by failing to do what is required by the norms.(p.203)
5. WHITE-COLLAR crime involves crime committed by a person in the course of his or her otherwise legitimate occupational activities.(p.207)

Lecture Resources

(Questions for class discussion)

1. According to your text, "we have seen how, in fact, societies need some deviance in order to define their normative boundaries." Try to identify some current behaviors that serve to define the normative boundaries in American society. Who are some individuals in our society whose behavior can be viewed as "positive deviance?" Are there people in our society who are acknowledged negative deviants and yet are allowed to continue with their behavior/life-style? If so, why?
2. What modifications in the American criminal justice system are needed in order to provide more equitable treatment for all segments of our society? Is it likely that these changes will ever occur? Why or why not?
3. Compare the criminal justice systems of the United States and Japan. Would you like to see more of the methods used in Japan used in this country in order to put more criminals behind bars. Why or why not?

CHAPTER 9
SYSTEMS OF SOCIAL STRATIFICATION

Chapter Outline

- I. The Nature of Social Stratification
All animals have a method of deciding dominance, which involves a hierarchy and/or territoriality. Human systems are characterized by both hierarchy and territoriality and feature an immense variety of ranking systems. In order to understand human systems one must understand the underlying characteristics of the society, with an emphasis on group conflict. Some basic concepts include:
Social inequality - an unequal distribution of valued goods, services, honor, or position in the society.
Social stratification - a system of social relationships and rules that leads to an unequal distribution of valued goods, services, honor, and positions.
Ascription - people are placed in ranks due to criteria they cannot influence, such as rank of their parents at birth, sex, race, or religious heritage.
Achievement - placing people in ranks in such a way that they can have some control over their placement.
Social mobility - movement up or down in social rank.
Multidimensional view of stratification - ranking people on the basis of economic factors, status, and power.
Class - ranking people based on their ownership or non-ownership of the means of production and/or economic skill level.
Status-honor - prestige or respect that comes from living up to certain values and ideas; thus status-honor is an element of life-style.
Party-power - the ability to influence others through organization, as in a political party or control in a bureaucracy.
- A. Types of stratification systems:
Primitive communal systems were the first systems of stratification. They were used

by the first humans and are used by contemporary hunting and gathering societies, and feature open ranks, placement through achievement, status-honor, as the primary form of inequality.

Slavery is a system of stratification which includes the economic ownership of other humans. Generally, ranks were closed, ascription was the main form of placement, and there was a relatively high level of inequality among the people in the society. The U.S. form of slavery was untypical in that it featured a rigid racist belief system. Historically, there have been three major ways of falling into slavery: birth, capture, and debt.

The caste system of stratification has almost complete ascriptive placement and rigidly closed ranks. This system has existed in its extreme form in only a few places, most notably in India. The Indian caste system features four major castes, with Brahmans and Kshatriyas on top; many subcastes and "out-castes" exist who are without formal caste and rank. Although it was made illegal after W.W.II, the caste system remains a powerful force in India today.

The estate system of stratification is based on land ownership, with extensive ascription and very low rates of mobility between ranks. It was found in its most complete form during the Middle Ages in Europe, and is comprised of three broad ranks: the first estate is the priestly class, the second estate is the land holding nobility or aristocracy, and the third estate contains the commoners. This system has existed in many agricultural societies around the world, including Japan prior to the 1600's.

The Asian system is a system of stratification that developed in relation to agricultural production that required extensive irrigation and resulted in the early development of an elite based on political position as well as land ownership (eg. in China). Not all Asian countries had an Asian system. Class systems of stratification are based on economic factors and feature achievement-oriented placement and extensive social mobility. The upper class consists of the

wealthiest families who own huge amounts of capital. The middle class consists of people who work in more skilled, non-manual occupations. The working class consists of skilled to unskilled manual (physical) workers.

II. The History of Inequality

The description of stratification presented above has implied change throughout history and was designed to provide insights into how and why our own stratification system emerged. Lenski's evolutionary perspective suggests that the level of inequality and general type of stratification system in a society is related to the level of technology and the level of economic surplus in that society. Beginning with the simple technology and low inequality found in hunting and gathering societies, the trend has been one of technological growth and increased inequality. About 250 years ago, the technological advances of the Industrial Revolution produced a reduction in the overall level of material inequality. However, inequality in industrial societies like our own continues to be very high.

III. Theories of Social Stratification

- A. The Marxian evolutionary theory has been referred to as an historical-materialistic perspective. By materialistic we mean that it stresses that the material forces (subculture), especially economic forces, are most important in shaping the society. Included are: the means of production, the relations of production, the superstructure, and the substructure. Marx believed that as the substructure of society changed, the superstructure would be led to change:
1. Initially, those who own and control the means of production will be dominant in the stratification system.
 2. With industrialization comes a new substructure and a new wealthy class.
 3. In capitalist industrial societies there emerges an upper class (capitalists) which is able to dominate the substructure and a working class that must depend upon the upper class for jobs and basic necessities.
 4. In the last stages of capitalism there

would be monopoly capitalism and another change in the substructure (private ownership and collective production).

5. This situation would give workers potential power, eventually allowing workers to eliminate capitalists, resulting in collective ownership and collective production (communism).

Critique of Marxian theory:

Marx failed to recognize the growth of the middle class and the subsequent reduction of the power of workers in their conflict with capitalists. Higher incomes and consumerism has made most workers much less critical of capitalism than Marx predicted. Also, Marx did not foresee the growth of bureaucratic organizations which provide the base for many new middle class occupations, neither did he predict the growth of the state.

- B. Functional theories of social stratification: The functional theory of stratification deals with how the system benefits the overall society and its people. The Davis-Moore theory argues that inequality operates to place the most talented people in the most important positions in the society. It also assumes that some positions are more important than others and require special skills and that only a few people in the society have the talent to be trained for the most important positions. The conversion of talents into skills requires a long training period and sacrifice by those receiving the training, and in order to induce the people to make the sacrifice their future position must carry high rewards.

Occupational prestige:

If the functional theory of stratification is accurate, we would expect people to rank the prestige of occupations in terms of their level of skill and training required. However, such variables as wealth and rewards (which are frequently unrelated to the scarcity of talent for and social value of that occupation) have been found to be major factors in occupational rankings. Thus, the Davis-Moore theory also assumes a free market that does not often exist. Finally, research has shown that values or ideals are the primary factors producing social stratification and

inequality.

- C. Conflict theories of social stratification: There are several varieties of conflict theories (Marx, Weber, Dahrendorf) that can be merged to provide a better understanding of our own system of stratification. From Marxian theory we may agree that economic conflicts are among the most important, especially in capitalist societies. From Weber we can accept the view that conflicts in modern societies are often mediated through, or are created by, bureaucratic organizations. And, from functional theory, we can accept that status distinctions are important, that there is an occupational structure based on skill level that influences the distribution of rewards, and that a supply and demand relation does explain some of the distribution of rewards within this occupational structure.

IV. Class Systems

Class systems are characterized by rankings which are not clear cut, with no sharp dividing lines between classes and movement between classes.

Class divisions in the U.S.:

Upper class - includes the super rich who own huge amounts of capital.

Corporate class - a powerful group of interrelated corporate managers who control or help run the biggest corporations in the world.

Middle class - consists of college educated people who hold white-collar or non-manual jobs.

Working class - includes those who work in manual occupations, doing physical labor to build a product or run a machine.

Lower class - contains those we consider "poor" in our society, who, if they are employed, tend to have very unskilled jobs in industries where employment is very insecure.

A. A comparative view of class systems:

If a stratification system set limits on income inequality, nations with a class system should have roughly similar income distributions. The data tend to suggest this notion. Communist nations do have less income inequality than do capitalist nations, but they are nowhere near equality. The major difference producing less income inequality in communist nations is the property structure. The mater-

ial standard of living in most communist nations tends to be lower in comparison with the Western industrial nations. Comparative rates of social mobility: Given other types of stratification systems, the rate of social mobility in the U.S. class system looks very extensive; given the desires of those low in the class system social mobility may look very limited. Studies of social mobility have shown that all class systems have such mobility, but that it is somewhat varied among those nations (with the U.S. being among those nations at or near the top in terms of mobility).

Glossary Terms and Definitions

social inequality - an unequal distribution of valued goods, services, honor, or positions in the society. (p.229)

social stratification - a system of social relationships and rules that leads to an unequal distribution of valued goods, services, honor, and positions. (p.229)

ascription - placing people in ranks because of criteria they cannot influence, such as rank of their parents at birth, sex, or religious heritage. (p.229)

achievement - placing people in ranks in such a way that they can have some control over their placement. (p.229)

social mobility - movement up or down in social rank. (p.230)

multidimensional view of stratification - ranking people on the basis of economic factors, status, and honor. (p.230)

class - ranking based on ownership or non-ownership of the means of production and/or economic skill level. (p.230)

status-honor - prestige or respect that comes from living up to certain values and ideals thus, status-honor is an element of life-style. (p.230)

party-power - the ability to influence others through

organization, as in a political party or control of a bureaucracy.(p.230)

primitive communalism - the form of stratification system found among the first humans and in contemporary hunting and gathering societies which features open ranks, placement through achievement, status-honor as the primary form of inequality and an overall low level of inequality.(p.231)

slavery - a system of statification which includes the economic ownership of other humans, generally closed ranks, ascription as the main form of placement and a relatively high level of inequality among the people in the society.(p.231)

caste system - a system of stratification with almost complete ascriptive placement and rigidly closed ranks.(p.232)

feudal or estate system - a stratification system based on land ownership, with extensive ascription and very low rates of mobility between ranks.(p.233)

Asian system - a system of stratification that developed in relation to agricultural production that required extensive irrigation and resulted in the early development of an elite based on political position as well as ownership.(p.237)

class system - a system of stratification which is based primarily on economic factors and features achievement-oriented placement and extensive social mobility.(p.237)

upper class - consists of the wealthiest families who own huge amounts of capital.(p.237)

corporate class - a recent category of stratification which includes a powerful group of interrelated corporate managers who control or help run the biggest corporations in the world.(p.251)

middle class - consists of people who work in more skilled, nonmanual occupations.(p.237)

working class - consists of skilled to unskilled manual (physical) workers.(p.237)

lower class - contains those we consider "poor" in our

society, who, if they are employed, tend to have very unskilled jobs in industries where employment is very insecure. (p.237)

historical materialism - the Marxian theory of stratification which focuses on the economic substructure that determines who owns and controls the means of production. (p.241)

substructure - the underlying material and economic forces that shape a society. (p.241)

means of production - the types of technology (hunting and gathering, agricultural, or industrial) that are found in a society. (p.241)

relations of production - the human relations in the production process; who controls the work, who owns the land or factories, and who determines the way in which workers are organized. (p.241)

superstructure - all aspects of society (such as the family system, political system, or religious system) which are not found in the substructure. (p.241)

monopoly capitalism - one of the last stages of capitalism in which there have been changes in the relations of production which lead to the formation of the communist society. (p.242)

Key People

Pierre van den Berge (p.227)

Karl Marx (p.230)

Max Weber (p.230)

Gerhard Lenski (p.238)

Kingsley Davis and Wilbert Moore (p.243)

Talcott Parsons (p.244)

Mark Abrahamson (p.246)

Essay Questions

1. Compare and contrast the stratification system of humans with those of other animals.
2. Describe in detail at least four of the major systems of social stratification found throughout the world.

3. Compare and contrast the functional and conflict theories of social stratification.
4. Present a detailed comparison of the stratification systems in capitalistic and communistic countries.
5. Summarize Lenski's historical analysis of social stratification.

Pop Quiz Questions - True/False

1. Humans can be compared with other animals in all respects. (false) (p.228)
2. Social stratification and social inequality refer to essentially the same social phenomenon. (false) (p.229)
3. Only a few basic types of stratification systems have existed throughout human history. (true) (p.231)
4. The caste system was most completely found in Europe during the Middle Ages. (false) (p.233)
5. In contrast to all other systems, except primitive communal societies, there is much more social mobility and achievement-oriented placement in a class system. (true) (p.237)

Pop Quiz Questions - Fill in the blank

1. By SOCIAL STRATIFICATION we mean a system of social relationships and rules that leads to an unequal distribution of valued goods, services, honor, and positions. (p.229)
2. ASCRPTION means that people are placed in ranks because of criteria they cannot influence, such as rank of their parents at birth, sex, race, or religious heritage. (p.229)
3. By STATUS-HONOR Weber meant prestige or respect that comes from living up to certain values and ideals. (p.230)
4. In contrast to all other systems except primitive communal societies, we find much more SOCIAL

MOBILITY and achievement-oriented placement in a class system. (p.237)

5. The materialist side of Marxian theory stresses that material, especially economic, forces are the most important in shaping society. These underlying material forces are often called the SUBSTRUCTURE. (p.241)

Lecture Resources

(Questions for class discussion)

1. The predominant system of social stratification in the United States is the class system. It has been argued, however, that the history of race relations in America tends to approximate a caste system. How might we best describe the social reality of stratification in America today?
2. The occupational prestige scale presented in your text is based on survey data gathered in the early 1960's. How do you think these rankings would hold up if a similar survey were conducted today? What new occupations need to be added to the list and where might we predict that they would be ranked in today's society?

CHAPTER 10

THE ECONOMY

Chapter Outline

I. The Nature of the Economy

Prior to W.W.II, the U.S. experienced remarkable health economically. In the 1970's the economy was in serious trouble and in the early 1980's the U.S. experienced the worst economic conditions since the Great Depression of the 1930's. By the mid-1980's some improvement was seen, but unemployment and poverty were still very high, and dangerous trends in the economy surfaced (huge government spending deficits and worsening balance of trade figures). In 1970, the Gross National Product was the highest in the world, but in 1978 it ranked only fifth, with unemployment rates of over seven percent that year and 10.8 percent in 1983. Inflation was 12 percent in 1975, 13 percent in 1980, and down in 1983 (but with massive unemployment). The economic growth figures show 0.1 percent between 1974-78 (with 3.2 percent for Japan, 3.0 percent for Germany and for France). In 1985 they were 2.3 percent (but 4.6 percent for Japan). Real income was lower in the 1980's than in 1965, and only 20 percent of new families could afford to own a home in the U.S. Unemployment was high during these years, and statistics show that for every 1 percent of unemployment in the U.S. there are approximately 37,000 deaths due to suicide, family violence, poor health, child abuse, and mental illness. Causes for the economic problems include: high taxes, government involvement, powerful unions, high welfare benefits, less dedicated work force, etc.

A. The economy:

The economy may be defined as the system by which humans go about producing, attaining, and distributing goods and services. Economic systems create subdivisions within the society. There is a division of labor, and the occupations are classified as: upper non-manual (white collar), such as doctors,

lawyers, and accountants; lower non-manual, such as salesclerks, secretaries, and bookkeepers; upper-manual (blue-collar), such as plumbers and electricians; and lower-manual, such as those who serve fast food. There are three basic types of industries: primary industries attain or produce natural resources or raw materials (mining, agriculture, lumber); secondary industries shape raw materials into manufactured goods (auto and electronics); and tertiary industries, which provide services (selling goods, banking, education, healthcare). The latter are considered to be growth industries. Many of the secondary industries have been forced to close down in recent years, and the term of "rust bowl" has been used to describe the effects.

B. Types of economic systems:

The classification of economic systems is via the mode of production - technical means of production as well as their relations of production:

Capitalism - private ownership of the means of production, where free competition is assumed to exist, worker input is via unions and worker representation. Monopoly capitalism is where a few very large companies dominate the economy.

Communism - the state has almost total control of the economy, little worker input.

Democratic socialism - less private ownership of major industries, workers are able to influence the economy via democratic political systems.

Market socialism - the state owns almost all major industries but allows local decision making and market forces to influence production.

C. Capitalist economic theory:

Capitalists believe that growth and prosperity are best achieved via private ownership and free competition, with the political system uninvolved. Problems arise due to overproduction, exploitation of workers, wide up and down economic cycles, and monopolies. In order to prevent these problems (especially monopolies and economic cycles), John Maynard Keynes argued for more state involvement. His Keynesian theory was the basis for the

Roosevelt New Deal. Supply-side economics rejects Keynesian economics and calls for less government involvement.

II. A Comparative Historical View of Industrialization Issues and Trends

During the Great Depression unemployment was 24.9 percent (1933), and wages were cut by one third for those still working. The response by the unemployed was to riot, and to elect F. D. Roosevelt in 1932. His New Deal called for more government involvement in the economy with restrictions on banks, socialized agriculture, and new labor laws.

During the post W.W.II years the U.S. was dominant due to the devastation in Europe and Japan, but in the 1970's the erosion of that dominance began to take place, and by 1984 there was huge unemployment, foreign trade imbalance, and government deficits.

A. Structural trends in capitalist economic systems:

Economic activity is dominated by a few huge corporations. This results in reduced competition, extensive political power, less innovation, less flexibility, and fewer new technologies.

Corporate ownership and control:

Corporations are "joint stock" companies which are owned by many investors. Executive officers make day-to-day decisions but answer to a board of directors, who approve major policies. The directors are voted into office by the stockholders. Institutional investors control extensive stock in many large companies (eg. pension fund investments). Directors are often on the board of more than one company (interlocking directorates), and directors may come together to sit on the board of a third corporation (indirect interlocking directorates). Corporations share the same top personnel, stock control influence, and business interests. This new class of corporate elites are affluent individuals, and the "inner group" of this corporate class have ties with the community, education, charities, and political organizations, and thus share a great deal of power.

Dual economy:

Dual economies exist where economic growth

and concentration are uneven around the nation and between industries. There are two major classes of industries. Core industries such as the auto and defense industries, are dominated by large corporations, with less competition, higher profits, stable growth, more unionization, higher wages, and fewer lay-offs. Periphery industries have no large corporate dominance, tend to operate in reverse direction of core industries, and women and minorities are more likely to be employed in periphery industries.

Multinational corporations:

Multinational corporations are those which have extensive investments and trade in more than one nation. The impact of the growth of this type of corporation has been improved world trade, low wages and lost jobs at home in labor intensive industries.

Advancing technologies:

The U.S. has been less likely to introduce new technologies (such as computers and micro-chips) and this has resulted in the "rust bowl" from the closing of many industries. The solution is to become more high-tech, but the problem is that this will result in a further loss of jobs.

B. An end to U.S. economic dominance: some causes:

1. Supply-side economics stresses increased production and productivity, less government involvement, lower taxes for corporations, and cuts in welfare programs to reduce the welfare budget and to lower wages. Supporters claim that this will have a "trickle down" effect so that everyone benefits.
2. Critique of supply-side economics:
Government is less involved in regulating industry than in any East European country or Japan, and people in the U.S. pay less income tax than in most other industrialized nations. The wealthy pay less tax now than in 1960, and even with higher profits, there is no guarantee that the money will be reinvested in this country. This country spends less on welfare benefits than almost any other industrial nation. No simple relationship exists between economic growth,

unemployment, poverty and inequality. There is actually very little, if any, "trickle down" effect.

3. Some causes of economic decline:

Huge corporate conglomerates become fat and lazy, and are unprepared to compete in foreign markets.

Corporate financing in the U.S. is via the sale of shares to stockholders who are interested in short-term dividends, whereas in Japan it is via bank loans regulated by the government and concerned more with long-term health of the business. Multinational corporations can produce goods cheaper abroad and this leads to a loss of jobs at home (no trickle down). Complacency has led to outdated production methods, with little or no use of the available new technologies.

A great deal of money is put into military spending which is capital intensive, the end product (eg. tanks) lie unproductive and do not add to the future economic growth, research and development in arms takes away funds from non-military production.

III. The Nature of Work

Historically, there was no separation between home activities and work activities.

Marx believed that humans have a need to produce and have a positive identification with the product of their labor.

Mills stated that most people today are alienated from their work.

Bell stated that capitalism is undermining the value of work.

A. Worker alienation:

There are higher levels of alienation among lower skilled workers. Studies have shown that control of the work process is important in avoiding alienation, as is the complexity of the job (the more complex the job the more satisfaction), however, trends have been toward assembly line types of tasks which have led to greater dissatisfaction and alienation.

Glossary Terms and Definitions

gross national product - (GNP) the annual value of all

goods and services produced in a society, usually considered in terms of the size of the population.(p.265)

real income - actual buying power of income after inflation and taxes.(p.265)

economy - the system by which humans go about producing, attaining, and distributing goods and services.(p.266)

division of labor - people have come to perform very distinct economic roles within the society.(p.266)

primary industries - industries involved in attaining or producing natural resources or raw materials.(p.267)

secondary industries - shaping raw materials into manufactured goods (auto and electronics).(p.267)

tertiary industries - providing services (selling, banking, education, healthcare).(p.267)

mode of production - includes the means of production and relations of production.(p.269)

means of production - the types of technology (hunting and gathering, agricultural, or industrial) that are found in a society.(p.269)

relations of production - the human relations in the production process; who controls the work, who owns the land or factories, and who determines the way in which workers are organized.(p.269)

capitalism - an economic system where the means of production are privately owned and operated for profit and of free competition.(p.269)

monopoly capitalism - where the economy is dominated by a few very large corporations.(p.270)

communism - an economic system where the state has almost total control of the economy.(p.272)

democratic socialism - a system where there is much less private ownership of the means of production, and where people have influence over economic bureaucracies via democratic political systems.(p.272)

market socialism - a system where the state owns all of the important means of production, but allows local

decision making and market forces to determine what is produced and how.(p.272)

Keynesian economics - maintains that the state does have a role to play in the economy to prevent monopolies, to smooth out cycles of inflation and depression via government spending and taxes.(p.273)

corporation - joint stock companies where many people own parts of the company by their ownership of stock.(p.279)

interlocking directorates - important means of corporate linkage. A person on the board of directors of one large corporation is simultaneously on the board of directors of one or more other corporations.(p.281)

dual economy - large corporations dominate in some industries (auto) but not in others where the firms and the profits are smaller and competition is much greater.(p.283)

core industries - dominated by large corporations; more growth, profits, unionization; higher wages; fewer lay-offs; less competition.(p.283)

periphery industries - no large corporation dominance, tend to operate in reverse direction of core industries, women and minorities more likely to be employed.(p.285)

multinational corporations - corporations which have extensive trade and investments in more than one nation.(p.285)

supply-side economics - stresses increased production and productivity, less government involvement, lower welfare benefits.(p.288)

Key People

Karl Marx (p.269) (p.293)

Adam Smith (p.272)

John Maynard Keynes (p.273)

C. Wright Mills (p.293)

Daniel Bell (p.293)

Essay Questions

1. Present a brief overview of the causes of the current economic problems in the United States.
2. Explain how economic systems are interrelated with other systems in a society.
3. Briefly compare communism and capitalism as "ideal types."
4. Briefly summarize the major historical developments in the American economic system.
5. Analyze in detail at least three of the "Structural Trends in Capitalist Economic Systems" presented in your text.

Pop Quiz Questions - True/False

1. The average real income of Americans was lower by the early 1980's than it was two decades earlier. (true) (p.265)
2. According to the author of your text, all aspects of a society are simply determined by its economic system. (false) (p.266)
3. The American economy today, as well as the economies of other capitalist nations, is in many ways dramatically different from 100 years ago. (true) (p.276)
4. A corporation that has extensive investments and trade in more than one nation is said to possess an interlocking directorate. (false) (p.285)
5. It is accurate to say that the United States is losing its worldwide economic dominance. (true) (p.288)

Pop Quiz Questions - Fill in the blank

1. The GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT is simply the annual value of all goods and services produced in a society. (p.265)
2. Some East European communist nations (and to some

extent China and to a small degree even the Soviet Union) have been moving toward what can be called MARKET SOCIALISM, in which the state continues to own almost all the important means of production but has allowed more local decision making and market forces to determine what is produced and how it is produced. (p.272)

3. CORPORATIONS are "joint stock" companies, which means that many people own parts of the company through their ownership of stock in the company. (p.280)
4. One important means of corporate linkage is the INTERLOCKING DIRECTORATE system of top level management. This is a situation in which a person on the board of directors of one company is simultaneously on the board of directors of one or more other companies. (p.281)
5. All industrial societies have an extensive and complex division of LABOR. (p.295)

Lecture Resources

(Questions for class discussion)

1. According to your text, "there is also evidence that the type of work most people do is increasingly seen as alienating and unsatisfying." Do you think this will apply to you when you begin your career after graduation? What about the work you do now in connection with your classes? How might your feelings about your current "job" (student) provide you with insights into your possible feelings about your next job?
2. Marx believed that people have an "inherent need for work within us, and more specifically, work of a particular kind." Do you agree or disagree with this position? How do 1) biological needs, and 2) the socialization process help to illuminate this issue?

CHAPTER 11

THE STATE

Chapter Outline

I. The Nature of the State

The tasks of the modern state include: criminal justice, military, education, welfare, highway control, parks, airline safety, and the safety of drugs and consumer goods. The characteristics of the state are that it dominates the means of force in the society (the most important and unique task of the state); it is one of the most important organizations in modern society; it sets goals and organizes efforts toward achieving these goals; it operates to maintain social order in the society, but it does not always work for the best interests of all citizens.

A. Power:

Power may be defined as the ability to induce others to do as you wish, even if it is not in their best interests. A key element in the political domain, the state uses power to accomplish special goals. Groups seeking to influence the state use power. Legitimate power is that which most people in the society generally accept that the state has the right to command. The degree of legitimacy held by a state is important in understanding the stability of that state.

B. Types of authority - Weber's "ideals":

Traditional - rulers hold authority because of old accepted customs.

Legal-rational - power via a system of rules and procedures defining the legitimate use of authority (eg. a constitution). This is not always a democratic form of government.

Charismatic - exceptional qualities of a particular individual. It is an unstable form of authority and dies with the leader (eg. Hitler, Khomeini).

C. Types of rule:

Autocracy - a state where an individual or family is in almost total control.

Oligarchy - a state where a few dominant

individuals share the responsibility of government.

Totalitarian - a state in which one group of political elites holds dominant power. In a communist society rule is maintained by a bureaucratic political elite without private ownership of the means of production.

Fascist society rule is maintained by a bureaucratic political elite strongly tied to or supported by the capitalist class in that society.

Democracy - representatives to government are chosen by people in the society to provide a wider distribution of political influence in the society.

D. Theories of the state: Functional

Functional theorists see society as similar to a biological organism which has subsystems which perform important tasks for the overall survival of the society. The subsystems are known as institutions, the most important of which is the state. The major task of the state is to set goals and organize activities to accomplish them. A key concept is that the state operates for the needs of the overall society, and that the force of the state is legitimate and used to protect the wider interests of the society.

E. Theories of the state: Conflict

Conflict theorists see the state as a battle ground for conflicting interest groups, and also as a means of maintaining or attaining advantages over other interest groups. They see the state as being dominated by people with economic power who work to maintain the interests of capitalists (a Marxian view), and who seldom use force for the good of the overall society. Weber saw the state as a focal point for many competing interest groups.

F. The state as a redistributive institution:

The state takes in the form of taxes and gives in the form of police, military protection, parks, highways, welfare, and subsidies. Almost everyone in the society receives some benefits. Some groups get more than others, and self-interest groups try to get a higher percentage while giving less than others. The state is seen as a dynamic process, with shifting coalitions of classes or

self-interest groups changing the balance of power from time to time.

G. Emergence of the modern state:

The state as a distinct institution dates back some 6,000 years to early agricultural societies. The modern state as a clearly separate institution with extensive control and clear monopoly over the means of force emerged only about 400 years ago.

H. The modern state and class conflict:

There were two major threats to the upper classes in Europe during the Middle Ages: peasant revolts, and the challenge from the wealthy merchants. The nobility united to support new state systems which maintained their position of privilege.

I. The Emergence of Democracy:

Democracy came into existence many centuries ago. In ancient Greece there was an extensive system of direct democracy. Small hunting and gathering tribes also were democratic in practice. In recent history, however, there has been a trend toward democracy all over the world. Social scientists stress different conditions which may have led to the spread of democracy, such as increased levels of education, literacy, and the printing press. However, changes in the class structure and economy with industrialization are the primary underlying conditions producing democracy.

The above conditions can also lead to communism or fascism, and it is the relative power of the major economic classes which is important in the change to democracy versus communism or fascism. A powerful capitalistic class favors democracy because they prefer a system where they can influence more than other groups because of: their ability to organize politically, network of communications, the importance of money in gaining office, and they have no direct responsibility for the state's actions.

An expanding urban working class and a new middle class also led to the expansion of democracy.

J. Political economy:

The state has never been totally isolated from the economy. No matter how much it is denied, state policies have always influenced

economic activities. The extent of this influence was less in the early stages of industrialization, when people such as Adam Smith were calling for a laissez-faire approach by the state (minimal involvement in economic matters). As industrialization progressed, however, various interest groups began calling for state action to help their interests. In the 1890's, the first large protest movement in the U.S., the populist movement, called for help for farmers. In the early 1900's, the progressive movement wanted help for small business people and the old middle class against the increasing dominance of major corporations. It was during this time that many of the government regulatory agencies emerged. Finally, in the 1920's, unemployment became a political issue when labor began pressing for government protection. It was the economic crisis of the 1930's, however, that brought the Keynesian view (that the state does have an important role in the economy) into the mainstream.

- K. Means of government economic influence:
One of the most significant means of government involvement in the economy is simply government spending. This increases every year, and what goods and services are bought and from whom has a major impact. Taxing policies are also very important, and certain sectors receive more tax breaks than others, and this is a major method of inducing investments in some industries but not others. One of the most rapidly increasing means of government influence are laws and government regulations. Other forms of involvement in the economy include: the regulation of the money supply and interest rates, tariffs on imported goods, and direct subsidies to many industries.

However, the government does not totally dominate the economy, nor is it always effective when it does try to do so.

- L. Political cycles in the economy:
In election years, the political elites try to influence some aspects of the economy for their own interests, but during nonelection years they are more likely to consider the interests of the wealthy and other powerful interest groups. One of the most powerful

influences on how people vote in national elections is the state of the economy. The manipulation of the economy by national political elites during election years has produced what is known as political cycles in the economy. There are four different time periods:

First: nonelection years, most indicators of economic health are weakest.

Second: "off year elections" when only some congressmen and women are up for reelection, economy still weak.

Third: includes presidential election years when the current president is not running for reelection, economy appears stronger.

Fourth: when a current president is running for reelection, indicators show that the economy is strong.

There is no simple relationship between all of the economic indicators: some economic conditions (unemployment and inflation) tend to be inversely related, and politicians from different parties have different traditional constituencies. Inflation is generally much lower with a Republican president, and unemployment lower with a Democratic president. It should be stressed that presidents are not always successful in controlling the economy (eg. Carter in 1980), and their economic influence is often short-term and may harm the country in subsequent years.

II. Class Conflict and the State

Class interests are not always in conflict. For instance most people want a reduction in crime, advanced medical technology, and better highways. It is usually the way in which these goals are achieved which causes conflict. In the case of unemployment, the Phillips Curve shows that when unemployment is low inflation is high and vice-versa. High unemployment means fewer consumer goods are bought, workers are more cautious about wage demands in case those who are unemployed take their jobs. This situation can benefit the employers. Welfare spending is another major area which divides the working class and the more affluent (who are less likely to need welfare programs and thus less likely to support them). Other conflicting interests include: whether or not multinational corporations should be allowed

to move jobs overseas, and government regulations to enforce safe working conditions even though this reduces corporate profits. Even among the corporate elite there are conflicts of interest. Those companies with more foreign investments may favor government policies which help their interests at the expense of others without foreign investments. All groups have special interests, but few groups are totally powerless.

A. The upper classes and the state:

Although votes are an important means of influencing state action and policy, their importance should not be overestimated because voters are often misled and manipulated by slick mass media political campaigns. The four means of influence which are most useful are: money, organization, attaining a government position, and control over information. Since the enactment of new campaign reform laws (following Watergate), Political Action Committees (PACs) have become a key component in campaigns. In 1980 there were 1,585 PACs sponsored by corporations, trade groups, and medical associations, which contributed \$36 million to congressional candidates that year. They contributed another \$22 million to those running for the Senate (this figure was over \$28 million by 1984).

If the special interests of the wealthy are not insured by their campaign contributions, then they can organize a lobby to go to work for them. These groups are known as the fourth branch of government (after the executive branch, legislative branch and the judicial branch), and they are extremely powerful.

The President's Cabinet:

Many people in politics are millionaires, but a large number of them became millionaires after going into politics. Special investment opportunities supplied by wealthy individuals seeking the politician's support can create millionaire status.

The very wealthy and the corporate elite seldom run for political office, but they do have an interest in being a member of the President's Cabinet. It is a place where they can hold a powerful political position for a limited time and then return to the corporate world. Whether the president is a

Republican or a Democrat the majority of his cabinet will be made up of those who held a major corporate position prior to and after serving as a cabinet member. The task of the President's Cabinet is to run the major branches of government.

Policy-formation process:

In the long run, those who are involved with the policy-formation process have the most important political influence. The President's Cabinet is one of the formal government committees where policy is made, but there are several others. Many ideas and policy options are generated in universities and private research organizations with corporate and upper class foundation financial support. They are then passed on to policy-planning groups in which corporate elites disseminate the policy options. Most important of these groups are the Council on Foreign Relations, the Trilateral Commission, and the Committee for Economic Development.

Another important link in this policy-formation process are the upper class social clubs such as the Bohemian Club and its special summer retreat.

Finally, it should be noted that these various upper class and corporate organizations sponsor or recommend individuals for the top government positions.

B. Who rules?

The pluralists maintain that many groups have political power, but the power elite theorists maintain that the upper class and the corporate elite rule. The structuralist's view is that the state must support the interests of the wealthy in order to maintain capitalist societies, but there must be some state autonomy. Some people argue that non-elites occasionally have political influence.

C. Non-elites and the state:

Voting is one way in which non-elites influence policy, however, there is much less voter participation among the lower classes, and what there is is not organized into united voting blocks and, therefore, is less powerful.

D. Unions and political influence:

Unions were legalized in this country in 1930, prior to this time people used to protest in the streets in order to influence

- policy. In 1980, labor PACs contributed \$13 million to candidates running for office.
- E. Outcomes of political class conflict:
Unemployment is lower in societies where a labor/socialist party rules, but there is slightly higher inflation. Income inequality is less with labor governments - it is the highest in the U.S. and in France.
- F. The state against capitalism?
There has been an increase in the level of democracy in the U.S. and the less affluent have made some significant gains in political influence over the past several years. However, because the capitalist system requires a sufficient level of exploitation of workers, it may be threatened by a democratic state which comes to serve working class interests. "Reaganomics" sees the state as too large and harmful to economic health, whereas other people argue that it is the economy which must be changed and made more democratic in order to fit with the increasingly democratic state. In either case, one aspect of increasing democracy is the increasing demands on the state. Problems from these demands include: huge government deficits (due to so many people demanding benefits and others demanding that taxes not be raised); a lack of consistency in the state (including the spending of millions of dollars each year to help farmers grow tobacco, while at the same time supporting medical research for cancer and trying to discourage tobacco consumption). Another problem is the "crisis of confidence" which a large percentage of the population feels in political leadership. However, most people feel that it is the fault of politicians and not the state institution itself which is to blame for the problems.

Glossary Terms and Definitions

state - the organization which dominates the means of force in the society. Also, the institution which sets common goals and organizes efforts to achieve them. (p.299)

power - the ability to induce others to do as you wish even if it is against their best interests. (p.300)

authority - the state which has the legitimate right to use force also has the authority to do so.(p.300)

traditional authority - rulers hold power because of old accepted customs.(p.301)

legal-rational authority - rules and procedures define the legitimate use of power.(p.301)

charismatic authority - based on the exceptional qualities of a particular individual. Is unstable and dies with the leader.(p.301)

autocracy - a state where one individual or family rules.(p.303)

oligarchy - a state where a few dominant individuals share the responsibility of governing.(p.303)

totalitarian rule - a state where one group of elites hold dominant power.(p.303)

communism - bureaucratic political elite rule, with no private ownership of the means of production.(p.304)

fascism - bureaucratic political elite strongly tied to or supported by the capitalist class in that society rule the society.(p.304)

democracy - representatives to government are usually chosen by the people in the society to provide a wider distribution of political influence.(p.304)

redistributive institution - takes resources from people in the form of taxes, and provides resources and services to people (highways, police, military). (p.305)

political-economy - the political system and the economic system and their interrelationship.(p.308)

Political Action Committees (PACs) - formally organized to obtain and distribute political campaign funds to politicians for various special interest groups. (p.313)

Key People

Talcott Parsons (p.300)
Max Weber (p.300)
Karl Marx (p.305)
Michael Mechter and William Brustein (p.306)
Barrington Moore (p.306)
Adam Smith (p.308)
Edward Tufte (p.312)
Beth Mintz (p.314)
Peter Freitag (p.314)
William Domhoff (p.315)
C. Wright Mills (p.316)
Frances Pivan and Richard Cloward (p.321)

Essay Questions

1. Define "state." Briefly summarize the historical development of the modern state.
2. Describe in detail Weber's three general types of authority.
3. Compare and contrast the functional and conflict perspectives on the state.
4. Present a brief overview of the development of the "political-economy." Be sure to include the observations of Adam Smith and Edward Tufte in your answer.

Pop Quiz Questions - True/False

1. The state is the organization that dominates the means of force in the society. (true)(p.323)
2. When the population recognizes the right of an organization or person to have power over others, such power is called legitimate. (true)(p.323)
3. Politics is the process by which interest groups try to assure that the state takes less from them while they receive maximum benefits from the state. (true)(p.324)
4. The modern state as an independent institution, separate from a ruling family and with broad functions in the society, emerged shortly after the

Neolithic revolution. (false) (p.324)

5. According to the author of your text, the working class has made no political gains in this century. (false) (p.324)

Pop Quiz Questions - Fill in the blank

1. When saying that power resides in the state, it is common to add that the state holds LEGITIMATE power. Most people in the society generally accept the right of the state to wield such power. (p.300)
2. A third general type of authority Weber referred to was CHARISMATIC authority. This type of authority is based on what people regard to be the exceptional qualities of a particular individual. (p.301)
3. AUTOCRACY refers to a state with one individual or family in almost total control. (p.303)
4. TOTALITARIAN rule refers to a state in which one group of political elites holds dominant power. (p.303)
5. There are two major forms of totalitarian systems: COMMUNISM and FASCISM. (p.304)

Lecture Resources

(Questions for class discussion)

1. One of the most important concepts when analyzing the state is power. In recent years the mass media have come to be regarded as a powerful force in both democratic and totalitarian societies. How powerful are the media in modern society? Do you consider the power of the media to be legitimate or illegitimate?
2. Using Weber's three general types of authority, analyze the current political leadership in the United States. Do any of our leaders possess charismatic authority? How important is charisma in determining the effectiveness of political leadership in the United States?

CHAPTER 12

CLASS AND CLASS CONFLICT IN INDUSTRIAL SOCIETIES

Chapter Outline

- I. Dimensions of Class Inequality
 - A. Material inequality:

The measures of income inequality as based on "real income" (how much money people have to spend after inflation and taxes) show that income inequality is growing in the U.S. today. Data collected periodically indicates that wealth (accumulated assets) is even more unevenly distributed than income. 1972 data shows that the top wealth holders have most of their assets in corporate stock, and that the origination of that wealth is via inheritance (of the 400 most wealthy individuals in the country).
 - B. Nonmaterial inequality:

Happiness, a sense of well-being and self-worth tend to increase with social class increases. Illness, longevity (due to illness or war), favorable treatment by the judicial system, and levels of education reflect more desirable levels for the upper classes.
- II. Class Subcultures and Lifestyles
 - A. Upper class subcultures:

There is an interrelated network of families with a distinctive lifestyle and world view shaped by their common experience and position in the nation. There has been a distinction between the upper upper class (the "old rich") and the lower upper class (the "new rich"), but this is being reduced now due to the new corporate elite and to the decline in the Eastern industrial base.
 - B. Middle class and working class subcultures:

Family roles and childhood socialization are different for the middle class and for the working class. The middle class family tends to have less ties to an extended family, to accept more sex role equality, and to be less

adult-centered than the lower class families. Middle class parents stress initiative, self reliance, emphasize ideas and people, achievement of higher occupational goals, and deferred gratification.

C. A summary:

Conflicting class interests usually result in upper classes voting Republican and lower classes voting Democratic. Class differences should not be overestimated, however, due to the "embourgeoisment" of the lower class (becoming more like the middle class) and the "proletarianization" of the middle class (becoming more like the lower class).

III. Social Mobility and the Attainment Process

Ascriptive factors are still very significant predictors of life chances in the U.S. today.

A. Patterns of social mobility:

1. Intragenerational mobility.
2. Intergenerational mobility.
3. Studies by Blau and Duncan (1967) and Featherman and Hauser (1978) show:
Social mobility is more restricted at the top and the bottom of the stratification system.
Mobility tends to be more up than down.
Mobility tends to be short range.
Mobility patterns have been similar throughout this century.
Mobility patterns for blacks or women would not be identical to the above.

B. The attainment process:

Individuals compete to attain high occupational status. The most important variable, according to Blau and Duncan, is education, with "human capital" or individual characteristics (talent, motivation, skills) also of importance (the Wisconsin Model added more variables). Status attainment models indicate that both achievement and ascriptive factors are important.

The allocation process: structural conditions exist which promote mobility for people in certain positions in the society.

1. Micro-social structure - strongly determines opportunity.
2. Classes are often in conflict over the allocation process.

IV. Poverty

The extent of poverty in the U.S. today is very difficult to assess exactly due to political manipulation of the figures. The poverty line, which is an economic definition, estimates what it costs to keep a family of four in good health, using the cheapest items. In 1986, this estimate was \$11,203 p.a., which put 13.6 percent or 32.4 million people living in poverty in the U.S.

There are several criticisms of this method of determining poverty. The liberals argue that the line is too low, while the conservatives argue it is too high. At any rate, it is not an adequate measure of the relative nature of poverty (which compares the standard of living of the poor with that of the average person in the society). The poor today are actually much worse off than they were two decades ago. (The rate of poverty is lower when considering income-in-kind (food stamps) as well as cash income.

The poverty rate fell between 1959 and 1970 due to increases in welfare benefits. It has increased since 1980, due to Reagan's welfare cuts.

A. Causes of poverty:

Minorities, children, and women have the highest rates of poverty, with female headed households being the most rapidly growing poverty segment. About half of the heads of households of the poor are employed, but in insecure, low paying jobs. Most of the poor are not poor for life, but they do not move far above the poverty line. The hardcore poor (underclass) are a subgroup who are likely to have behavioral problems, multi-generational poverty, high involvement with crime, and other negative characteristics.

Theories of poverty:

Oscar Lewis's culture theory of poverty states that economic conditions are at the root of poverty; the poor adjust to their condition by developing a subculture with unique values and lifestyles. This makes it difficult to rise above poverty.

The situational view argues that people are poor due to immediate problems rather than due to deeply held values.

The structural-conflict perspective blames the political-economic conditions in the society for producing and perpetuating poverty.

1. The occupational system

2. "Business cycles"
 3. The industrial reserve army - the pool of unemployed/underemployed that is functional for the profit stability of the more affluent.
 4. The dual economy.
 5. Changes in the U.S. family and economic discrimination against women.
- B. Class conflict and welfare expansion:
The welfare system was developed during the Great Depression (1930's). There was a major expansion of welfare programs in the 1960's due to the rebellion of the poor (not to increased needs). Recently, labor organizations have pressured, via traditional political means, for an adequate welfare system.

Glossary Terms and Definitions

real income - how much money people have to spend after inflation and taxes.(p.328)

wealth - accumulated assets.(p.329)

embourgeoisement - the process by which the lower class becomes more like the middle class.(p.338)

proletarianization - the process by which the middle class becomes more like the lower class.(339)

intragenerational mobility - movement from a person's first job to the job they hold at the end of their working life.(p.339)

intergenerational mobility - the occupational position of parents in contrast to the class or occupational position of their adult children.(p.339)

structured mobility - upward mobility due to changes in the occupational system.(p.341)

status attainment process - whereby individuals compete to attain high occupational status.(p.341)

sponsored mobility - upward mobility in which only those members of the lower class who will be supportive of class inequalities are recruited into the upper class.(p.344)

economic definition of poverty - estimates how much it

costs a family of a certain size to obtain basic necessities for one year.(p.345)

relative nature of poverty - compares the standard of living of the poor with that of the average person in the society.(p.346)

feminization of poverty - the term which reflects the fact that the most rapidly growing poverty rate is found among female headed households.(p.348)

underclass - a subgroup of the poor who are likely to have behavioral problems, long term or multigenerational poverty, a high involvement with crime, along with many other negative characteristics.(p.349)

culture of poverty - a theory of poverty which posits that economic conditions cause poverty, which after an extended period of time results in a subculture of poverty which produces people with characteristics that make it difficult for them to become nonpoor. (p.350)

situational view of poverty - seeks to counter the sub-culture of poverty theory by arguing that the reason people are poor can be explained in terms of their having deeply held values.

structural-conflict view of poverty - focuses on the political-economic conditions in the society that help produce and perpetuate poverty rather than the individual characteristics of the poor.(p.350)

industrial reserve army - the pool of unemployed or underemployed people that is functional for the profit stability of the more affluent in the society.(p.351)

Key People

Alexis de Tocqueville (p.327)

Michael Kingsley (p.330)

Thomas R. Dye (p.336)

Peter Blair and Otis Dudley Duncan (p.339)

Karl Marx (p.349)

Oscar Lewis (p.350)

Essay Questions

1. Compare and contrast material and nonmaterial inequality in the United States.
2. Describe in detail the two major segments of the upper class.
3. Analyze in detail the major patterns of social mobility in the United States. How does mobility differ for males versus females?
4. Identify and briefly discuss the primary causes of poverty in the United States.
5. Present a brief historical overview of the development of the American welfare system.

Pop Quiz Questions - True/False

1. Since 1980 the rich have been getting richer and the poor have been getting poorer. (true)(p.328)
2. Wealth is much more unevenly distributed than income in the United States. (true)(p.329)
3. In most cases the most wealthy people in the United States get their initial fortunes through inheritance. (true)(p.332)
4. According to your text, increased need is the primary reason for expansion of the United States welfare system. (false)(p.352)
5. The welfare system in the United States developed primarily in the 1930's during the Great Depression. (true)(p.352)

Pop Quiz Questions - Fill in the blank

1. In contrast to income, WEALTH represents accumulated assets.(p.329)
2. Some of the working class are becoming more similar to the middle class in part because of increasing wage gains made possible by unionization. This EMBOURGEOISEMENT thesis focuses on increasing similarities in consumption patterns and other characteristics related to standard of living. (p.338)

3. There are several ways to examine social mobility. We can look at the movement from a worker's first job to the job held at the end of the working life. This is called INTRAGENERATIONAL mobility.(p.339)
4. When individuals from lower class backgrounds are able to move into higher class positions, it can be called SPONSORED mobility because they must follow certain rules and hold certain upper class values in order to gain entry.(p.344)
5. Considering the cost of all basic necessities, the 1986 poverty line was established at approximately \$11,000 a year for a family of four people.(p.345)

Lecture Resources

(Questions for class discussion)

1. The text presents an excellent description of poverty in the United States and the theories which seek to explain the situation. Which of the theories appears to best account for poverty in your view? Does the American economic system require that there be poverty as well as affluence?
2. The text presents two conflicting schools of thought on the subject of class attainment; the status attainment process and the allocation process. Which of the two systems seems most applicable to the typical college student?

CHAPTER 13

THE WORLD SYSTEM: INEQUALITY AND CONFLICT

Chapter Outline

I. Characteristics of the World System

The world system may be defined as a set of relationships among nations that can be observed, are long lasting, and have important outcomes. Economic relations are defined as a series of interrelated roles among nations of the world which form an international stratification system. The dynamic process of conflict within the world system is the result of nations in a disadvantaged position trying to change their position, while nations on top are usually trying to gain further advantage.

A. Positions in the world system:

Core nations are those which are most advantaged in the world system. They are characterized by: economic diversity, a more complex occupational structure, strong and complex state institutions which help manage economic affairs, and the means to influence noncore nations, while remaining relatively independent of outside control.

Periphery (Third World) nations are those which are the least economically diversified. They are characterized by: a primary economic activity which centers around the extraction and export of raw materials, low wages, invasion by multinational corporations seeking cheap unskilled labor, high levels of income inequality, and weak state institutions, with a dominating military institution.

Semiperiphery nations are those midway between the core and periphery nations with respect to: industrialization, economic diversity, state strength, complex occupational structure, national wealth, and income inequality.

Relationships between the core, periphery, and semiperiphery nations include more links from core nations to all others; periphery nations are almost exclusively tied to the

- core nations; the semiperiphery nations have extensive ties to the core and other semiperiphery nations, but not periphery nations.
- B. Important benefits coming to core nations include: access to large quantities of raw materials, cheap labor, enormous profits from direct capital investments, a market for exports, and skilled professional labor through migration from the noncore nations.

II. A History of the Modern World System

The first world systems were similar to that of the Roman Empire. The second world system can be traced to the pioneering efforts of Spain and Portugal near the end of the 15th Century. In order for one nation to achieve economic dominance in the world system it must simultaneously dominate productivity, trade, and finance. The modern world system developed during the 1500s-1600s with the economic and military competition among the industrializing nations in Europe and at home for new territories. Between the 1500's and the present, most of the regions of the world have been brought into this world system through economic ties to the core nations. Only three core nations, the Netherlands, England, and the U.S. have ever been able to dominate all three major components of the system.

III. Core Competition and the U.S. in the Second Half of the Twentieth Century

A. Current economic trends:

1. Economic productivity and innovation - the relative status of the U.S. - productivity has been falling since the 1970's.
2. Trade - the current U.S. balance of trade is over \$100 billion on the negative side.
3. Finance - the U.S. still dominates finance in the world economy but this could be declining.
4. Predictions - if the U.S. loses dominance in the world system, Japan or Russia may assume dominance.

B. International core conflicts:

Since W.W.II the conflict for control of periphery and semiperiphery nations has occurred between the U.S. and the Soviet bloc nations. Both sides want to use these less powerful nations for their own economic and

political purposes. The nuclear stalemate has prevented direct military confrontation. Limited conflicts (in Korea and Vietnam) along with military support for "revolutionaries" (in El Salvador and Nicaragua) have replaced direct military conflict.

IV. The Third World

A. Overview:

Conditions in many Third World nations have been growing worse, while the standard of living in core nations has been improving. Also, the gap between the rich and poor within periphery nations is increasing.

B. Characteristics of periphery nations:

There are few productive activities, and those that do exist have extensive ties to the core nations and consist mostly of the extraction of raw materials from the nations. Multinational corporations often control much of the nation's productivity, there are numerous social problems due to rapid urbanization, high unemployment and extensive crime.

V. Outcomes of Periphery Status

A. Periphery status and economic development:

There is a lack of economic growth in these nations. Investments from core nations provide some short term growth but have impeded long term growth. The political and economic growth is tied to multinational corporations from core nations, which allow a small wealthy elite to develop in the periphery nation which results in income inequality and severely limits its long term economic growth.

B. Rapid urbanization and agricultural disruption:

"Push" factors result from peasants being thrown out of agricultural areas, and "pull" factors from the lure of jobs and income in the cities.

C. Political repression and less democracy:

Core domination of periphery nations helps produce political repression (often police states) to control the population who become unhappy with the social problems.

D. Core intervention to prevent change:

Two factors work against a move from core domination. The elites who have control of the economy and government in periphery

nations profit from the relationship to the core nations, and core nations often take action to prevent periphery nations from becoming independent.

E. Chili

There are several reasons for selecting Chili as an example of core dominance of the periphery nations: the availability of information, Chili's strong tradition of democracy made it a more difficult target for foreign intervention, their extreme dependence on economic factors from the outside (especially the U.S.), their internal class structure was typical of a periphery nation highly dependent upon the core, by 1970 it was dominated economically by core nations (especially the U.S.), and the election of a Marxist president (Allende, 1970) whose policies were unacceptable to the core nations provided the impetus for increased outside intervention.

Initial actions taken by the core nations: The U.S. supported an abortive coup to prevent Allende from taking office. When he was elected and took office, the U.S. drastically reduced its previously extensive foreign aid, and short-term credits from U.S. banks were virtually cut off. Funds from the World Bank were cut, and the multinationals and the U.S. government worked together to pressure Chili, which included supplies necessary to Chili's industry being withheld. Pressure was then applied to other countries to prevent them from trading with Chili. Finally, the core nations provided support for old and newly-emerging protest groups to include selective military aid that might be used in a political coup against Allende. The result was the coup of September, 1973 that killed Allende and thousands more, and replaced him with a military dictatorship that reopened Chili to domination by the core nations.

VI. The Potential for Third World Development

- A. Opting out of the world system - many people in periphery nations believe that although breaking ties with the core would be difficult, it should be attempted.
- B. Agricultural reform and reduced inequality - the initial "solution" called the green revolution failed and recent studies show that

a more equal distribution of the land might be the best approach to agricultural problems.

Glossary Terms and Definitions

world system - a set of relationships among nations that can be called a social system in that they can be observed, are rather long lasting, and have important outcomes. (p.359)

core nations - those nations who have extensive economic diversity and, as a result, are most advantaged in the world system. (p.359)

periphery nations - those nations who have the least economic diversity and, as a result, are the most disadvantaged nations in the world system. (p.359)

world empire - a world economic system whose main goal is political as well as economic domination (eg. the Roman Empire). (p.360)

Key People

Immanuel Wallerstein (p.359)

Daniel Chirot (p.359)

Christopher Chase-Dunn (p.369)

P. Goldberg (p.373)

James Petras and Morris Morley (p.373)

Gunnar Myrdal (p.377)

Essay Questions

1. Describe the interrelationships between core, periphery, and semiperiphery nations in the world system.
2. Present a brief historical overview of the modern world system.
3. Describe the three aspects of international economics that must be dominated if a core nation wishes to dominate the world system.
4. Analyze in detail the current position of the United States in the world system.

5. Describe the current status of the Third World countries in the modern world economy.
6. Present a brief analysis of the factors that might lead to an improved economic situation for the Third World.

Pop Quiz Questions - True/False

1. It is in the area of short term economic growth that the periphery nations suffer the most as a result of their ties to the core nations. (false) (p.369)
2. For most peripheral nations it is believed that economic growth can be achieved only after extensive agricultural reforms have taken place. (true) (p.377)
3. Core nations are the dominant nations within the world system. (true) (p.378)
4. The modern world system emerged around the 1500's when European nations began exploring the world and dividing territories among themselves. (true) (p.378)
5. If periphery nations are able to overcome many of their problems through economic development, it will be necessary for them to increase their economic ties to the core nations. (false) (p.379)

Pop Quiz Questions - Fill in the blank

1. When referring to a WORLD SYSTEM, we are concerned with a set of relationships among nations, much as we are concerned with a set of relationships among groups of people in a society that can be called a social system. (p.359)
2. CORE nations are those most advantaged in the world system. These nations have extensive economic diversity - their economy is not centered around one or a few types of industries, but many. (p.359)
3. Similar to the lower class or working class within a particular country's stratification system are

the periphery nations. These nations are referred to as THIRD world nations.(p.359)

4. Cuba has produced extensive changes for better education, medical care, housing, and nutrition for the Cuban population, but their economy continues to be maintained only through SOVIET aid. (p.377)
5. Recent studies have indicated that a more equal distribution of LAND would be the best approach to solving agricultural problems in peripheral nations.(p.377)

Lecture Resources

(Questions for class discussion)

1. According to Kerbo, the United States shows signs of relative economic decline after a few decades of clear dominance of the world system. What are some of the most recent examples of this decline? Do current economic policies appear to be reversing the trend or contributing to further decline?
2. How might the recent changes in Soviet economic policies affect the world system? What role is Japan expected to play in the reorientation of the Soviet economy and what are the implications for U.S.-Japanese relations?

CHAPTER 14
RACE AND ETHNIC STRATIFICATION

Chapter Outline

- I. A History of Race and Ethnic Relations
Race is defined as a category of people who, through centuries of interbreeding, have developed some roughly similar physical features such as skin color.
An ethnic group is one which is relatively similar in cultural background.
A minority group is a group which is characterized by lack of power and is likely to be dominated by other groups.
A majority group is one which possesses a great deal of power and is not likely to be dominated by other groups.
 - A. Races:
The best evidence indicates that all humans descended from common ancestors. Today, it is almost impossible to locate any "pure" races of people. An agreement on a precise classification of races has all but been abandoned. The racial division of Caucasoid, Mongoloid, and Negroid may be somewhat useful, but is still rather arbitrary. When considering race, the most important aspect is social.
 - B. The history of racism:
Racism is a belief system defining groups of people as either superior or inferior due to biological characteristics. Extreme racism has often led to genocide (the attempt to extinguish a whole race of people through systematic murder). Extensive racism in society has developed rather recently in human history. It seems to have developed very soon after Europeans came into more extensive and direct contact with dark skinned people in the late 15th century.
 - C. Industrialization white dominance, and racism:
Europeans of the 15th and 16th centuries believed they were superior (technologically

and morally) to foreigners. However, whites had not always been the most advanced, and the European advances in technology had nothing to do with race. It was the rise of the West that created a climate for racism.

- II. The American History of Race and Ethnic Relations
- The first contacts between Europeans and Native American Indians were positive. Warfare between the Indians and the white settlers emerged by the late 1700's, and was caused by the expropriation of land by the whites. Following the loss of their land, the Indians were herded onto reservations. Today, Native Americans live in conditions worse than those of any other group in the U.S.
- A. Blacks in America:
- While land was being taken from Native Americans, black slaves were being transported to America. Slavery has existed from the beginning of agricultural societies (for labor). Slavery in the U.S. was unique in that slaves were seen as property and as sub-human. Slaves were cared for physically but not socially and psychologically. Following the Civil War, slaves were legally freed, and the Civil Rights Movement began in the 1950's.
- B. White ethnics:
- Between 1860 and 1920, 30 million Central and Eastern European immigrants flooded into the U.S. Ghettos were created in the big cities (which were later taken over by other groups). Second and third generation heirs of the immigrants "moved up the ladder of success" via hard work.
- C. Asian Americans:
- America had fewer Asian immigrants than it did Europeans. Initially they were Chinese, then later Japanese arrived. The most recent Asian immigrants have been Vietnamese, Cambodian, and Laotian.
- D. Hispanic Americans (Mexico, Cuba, Puerto Rico):
- This is the second largest ethnic/racial minority group in the U.S. today, just behind the blacks. They are mostly Mexican Americans who were initially Americanized through the conquest of what is now portions of Texas and California. Eighty percent of these people now live in California and Texas.
- E. Continued WASP dominance:

Early U.S. settlers, primarily British WASPs, established political and economic institutions, and cultural values.

III. Race and Ethnic Relations

- A. Patterns of race and ethnic relations:
Assimilation is the process of boundary reduction between two groups leading to absorption. Cultural assimilation is when one group comes to adopt the values and culture of another group. Structural assimilation is then the social interactions across and within groups have become equally strong and numerous. Biological assimilation or amalgamation refers to intermarriage. Psychological assimilation is when the self identity of a person in one group is redefined to identify with another group.
- B. Theories of assimilation:
Robert Park treated assimilation as an evolutionary process (contact, competition, accommodation, assimilation).
Milton Gordon added the stages of reduced prejudice and discrimination, and civic assimilation.
- C. Factors supporting assimilation: manner of entrance, longevity, demographic factors, cultural similarity and visible physical differences.
- D. Pluralism: a society in which ethnic and/or racial divisions are maintained.
Cultural pluralism refers to the maintaining of dissimilarities in culture. Structural pluralism means maintaining group barriers to social interaction. Equalitarian pluralism refers to the balance of power among groups being roughly equal and a consensus of what is "fair" competition in the society. Inequalitarian pluralism exists when one racial or ethnic group holds extensive power over one or more other groups. Apartheid is the extensive separation of the races by law (eg. South Africa). The U.S. has a high degree of race and ethnic inequalities when compared to most other industrial societies.

IV. Causes of Racism and Discrimination

- A. Social psychological theories:
Frustration-aggression theory states that frustrations are projected upon others who

are weak in the society.

Authoritarian personality theory maintains that respect for force, submission toward superiors, rigidity of outlook, intolerance of ambiguity, antiscientific attitudes and gullibility makes one more prone to racism.

B. Conflict theories:

van denBerghe argued that economic conflict during the development of colonialism is primarily responsible for widespread racism. The split labor market results from competition between new immigrants and older immigrants for positions on the occupational ladder.

C. The cycle of racism and discrimination:

A belief system of racism becomes accepted and spreads to groups not in economic conflict with the minority. This keeps the minority in low paying jobs or unemployed and prevents education, and this, in turn, often results in psychological harm in the form of low self-esteem; low self-worth etc. The racist beliefs of the majority are then reinforced.

D. Institutional discrimination:

Primary institutions discriminate (economy, schools, political systems).

V. Race and Class

Institutional discrimination suggests that racial and ethnic inequalities have become tied to class inequalities. Median income figures indicate that race and ethnic status are related to class position, as are occupation, authority and property.

A. Programs and prospects for reduced inequality:

Minority political gains have been made in recent years. Also, gains in occupational position and outflow mobility. However, the income gap between blacks and whites is still high, and the rate of family separation for blacks has increased.

Anti-discrimination programs:

1. Educational equality began in the 1950's.
2. The Civil Rights Acts of 1964 and 1968; Voting Rights Act of 1965 outlawed many forms of discrimination in employment, education, housing and voting.
3. "Affirmative action" refers to government policies which require fair treatment of

minorities are currently having a major influence in the war against discrimination.

Glossary Terms and Definitions

race - a category of people who, through centuries of interbreeding, have developed some roughly similar physical features such as skin color.(p.383)

ethnic group - a group which is relatively similar in cultural background.(p.383)

minority group - a group which is characterized by lack of power and is likely to be dominated by other groups.(p.383)

racism - a belief system defining groups of people as either superior or inferior due to biological characteristics.(p.384)

genocide - the attempt to extinguish a whole race of people through systematic murder.(p.384)

assimilation - the process of boundary reduction between two groups, wherein one group is absorbed into the other.(p.397)

cultural assimilation - a situation in which one group comes to adopt the values and culture of another group.(p.397)

structural assimilation - increased social interaction among two groups in which the social interactions within the group are as strong and numerous as the interactions across the two groups.(p.397)

amalgamation - the biological blending of two groups through intermarriage.(p.397)

psychological assimilation - an aspect of assimilation in which an individual from one group comes to identify with another group.(p.397)

pluralism - refers to a society in which ethnic and/or racial divisions have been maintained.(p.399)

equalitarian pluralism - a societal situation in which the balance of power among groups is roughly equal and there is some consensus over the rules of "fair"

competition in the society.(p.399)

inequalitarian pluralism - a societal situation in which one racial or ethnic group holds extensive power over others, and where there is a high degree of inequality based upon race or ethnic division.(p.399)

apartheid - a form of inequalitarian pluralism in South Africa in which there is extensive separation of the races by law.(p.400)

authoritarian personality - a social psychological theory that suggests that a personality characterized by respect for force, submission toward superiors, rigidity of outlook, intolerance of ambiguity, anti-scientific attitude, and gullibility makes one more prone to racism.(p.401)

split labor market - a cause of ethnic prejudice which results from competition between new immigrants and older immigrants for positions on the occupational ladder.(p.402)

institutional discrimination - the process by which primary institutions in the society (eg. economy, schools, political system) produce discrimination through their normal operations when race and ethnic inequalities are high because of past overt discrimination and racism.(p.403)

affirmative action - a general concept referring to government policies to promote and require fair treatment of minorities throughout the society.(p.412)

Key People

W. E. B. Du Bois (p.391)

Richard Alba and Gwen Moore (p.396)

Robert Park (p.397)

Milton Gordon (p.398)

T. W. Adorno (p.401)

Pierre van den Berghe (p.401)

William Wilson (p.404)

Essay Questions

1. Define racism and present a brief historical overview of the spread of racism throughout the world.
2. Present in detail the theories of assimilation developed by Robert Park and Milton Gordon.
3. Explain the relationship between the social stratification system and racial discrimination.
4. Briefly summarize the major programs that have been introduced to improve the situation for minorities in the United States since the 1950's.

Pop Quiz Questions - True/False

1. The terms minority group and majority group are used to classify groups according to population size. (false) (p.383)
2. Attempts to agree on a precise classification of races have all but been abandoned. (true) (p.384)
3. Today, Native Americans live in conditions worse than those of any other group in the United States. (true) (p.389)
4. Overall, lower class Americans benefit from illegal aliens because food costs are kept low with competition for jobs in agriculture. (false) (p.395)
5. The single law creating affirmative action was passed during the Kennedy administration. (false) (p.412)

Pop Quiz Questions - Fill in the blank

1. At the current rate of increase, HISPANICS can be expected to overtake blacks as the largest ethnic/racial minority group in a few decades. (p.395)
2. ASSIMILATION is a process of boundary reduction between two groups, wherein one group is absorbed into the other. (p.397)
3. Biological assimilation or AMALGAMATION refers to intermarriage and thus the biological blending of

two groups.(p.397)

4. In what is called the system of APARTHEID in South Africa there is extensive separation of the races by law.(p.400)
5. AFFIRMATIVE ACTION is governmental policy to promote and require fair treatment of minorities throughout the society.(p.412)

Lecture Resources

(Questions for class discussion)

1. Your text suggests that the biological realities of "race" are insignificant in comparison to the social implications of the concept. Yet many people believe that the apparent dominance of many sports by black athletes is a result of significant physiological differences between the races. How would a sociologist analyze this aspect of social reality in the United States?
2. According to your text, some sociologists believe that social class position is becoming more important than race in determining one's opportunities for success in American society. Does your own experience substantiate this notion? Would rural-urban variables have any bearing on this issue?
3. Racial discrimination in South Africa is referred to as "apartheid." What, if anything, makes the situation in South Africa different from the racial discrimination which took place in the United States prior to the Civil Rights Movement of the 1960's?

CHAPTER 15
GENDER, AGE, AND INEQUALITY

Chapter Outline

I. Gender Inequality

In the majority of societies throughout history the position of women has been similar, with little freedom and few rights. In India, women have been burned alive if they were found to have been unfaithful, and cremated alive when their husband died. In the Middle East, they may be given or sold as brides at about 13 years of age, and killed if not a virgin. They are required to stay in seclusion (purdah) or to wear a veil if outside the home, isolated in menstruation huts each month when they are considered to be unclean, and can be divorced at their husband's will. Parents often felt/feel much depression at the birth of a daughter. In China, where children are limited to one child per couple, girls are often killed at birth even today.

A. Influences:

The socialization process often leads to gender inequality. Gender roles describe the socially acquired and socially defined sex linked behavior expectations. Sex stratification is developed when the gender roles lead to material, social, and political inequality between men and women.

B. A history of women in societies:

Division of labor is common in all societies and is strongly influenced by culture and the level of technology in a society. Women in pre-industrialized societies (hunting and gathering societies) had a relatively good position, but males still had higher status due to their important role. Simple horticultural societies (about 10,000 years ago) increased levels of male-female inequality. Women could do more work in the fields close to home. Men did the fighting and talking while the women provided hard labor for food and human care. In Africa today, females do three-quarters of the work, and world-wide

females do two-thirds of the work. Men attained power via political organization and warfare. Women then were prohibited from owning property, having occupations, and were subservient to husbands and fathers. The position of females became much worse after the Industrial Revolution. Among the lower classes women were reduced to begging, prostitution and exploitation in factory jobs, where they were preferred workers because they were docile and easily controlled. In the upper classes women did not fair well. They could not vote, were seldom allowed into most occupations, were less educated than men, and had no control over family property. The status of women in advanced industrial societies is slowly changing (women are able to vote, hold political office, get help from unions in the workplace, get credit from financial institutions, have more rights in divorce cases, more job opportunities, and have the right to own property).

C. Forces producing change:

There has been a shift in attitudes related to economic and political changes. New job opportunities for women led to less economic dependence on men, reproductive control has brought freedom from childbearing, and the right to vote has meant that women's rights have to be considered by politicians. Increasing democracy, which has helped women, has also helped many minority and lower class groups.

Women's movements:

A very large, active coalition of females emerged in 1830 when their goal was to abolish slavery. In 1848, in Seneca Falls, NY, a national convention devoted to women's rights was held. In 1850, Women's Suffrage (Susan B. Anthony, Elizabeth Cady Stanton) began an amendment to the Constitution which was finally passed in 1920. They also worked for better living conditions for immigrants in slums, better pay, and a healthier work environment. The Women's Christian Temperance Union was instrumental in banning alcohol during Prohibition as well as being involved in suffrage. They had a membership of several hundred thousand women. There was little activity between 1920 and the 1960's,

when the Civil Rights Movement and the National Organization of Women (NOW) helped change laws to make it illegal to discriminate on the basis of race or sex.

- D. A comparative study of the status of women: There is considerable difference between the status of women in pre-industrial and industrial societies. Developing nations have few females in the labor force or in political office. The U.S. is behind most other industrial nations in the number of women in congress or parliament, and low in the area of access to top occupational positions for women. Women earn substantially less than men in all industrial nations (average 60-70 percent), and the U.S. is one of the worst at 61 percent.

Sweden versus Japan:

In Sweden women earn less pay and have low status jobs compared to men, but maternity leave may be taken by men or women, and there are government assisted day care centers. Japan has an Equal Rights Amendment, but inequality of pay, pressure to quit jobs on marriage, only 3 percent of management jobs held by women and even these women must perform menial labor such as fetching tea for male colleagues all exist. There is a severe lack of day care facilities, and the majority of Japanese women cannot afford to divorce for social and economic reasons.

- E. Theories of gender inequality: The functionalist view is that the division of labor serves a purpose. The instrumental role of provision of basic economic necessities and protection is the male role. The expressive role of caring for children and providing emotional support is the female role. The role assigned to females results in lower status and her chance to achieve status outside the home is limited. This is a conservative view, and explains why conditions exist which they feel are right and proper. The problem is that just because something was once functional for a society it does not mean it cannot be changed. The situation is currently dysfunctional because the talents of women are not being utilized and stress is created for the females both psychologically and physically. The conflict view is that people and groups

have conflicting interests and there are variations in the balance of power between groups and individuals. They claim that physical force is the key to power, that the socialization process influences self-images and keeps old traditions alive, and that males are still the "gate keepers" to power and continue to exclude women. Changes have occurred today because brute force is not as important in today's society, and options of females in the workplace have increased so they do not need males for support. Equality between husband and wife in decision making is increasing. Biology is still a factor (if women do decide to bear children their opportunities may be restricted).

F. Gender stratification: income

Worldwide, women do two-thirds of the work but receive only ten percent of the income and only one percent of the wealth compared to men. The average income in 1955 for females was 40 percent lower than that for men. Today, in the U.S. it is 39 percent lower. In all occupations (except nursing where men and women receive equal pay) males earn more than females. Women are sometimes out of the workforce for long periods of time and may not have the work experience men have, but even when women have equal or better experience and education they often earn less than men in the same position.

In the past, women were restricted from certain occupations. Now, legally, only combat positions in the military are prohibited. However, in reality women tend to be concentrated in certain places in the occupational structure (low paying white-collar jobs and low paying service jobs).

G. Social mobility for women:

Daughters are less likely to be in an occupational status close to their father than sons. Women are both more upwardly and more downwardly mobile than men. Intergenerational mobility patterns should be considered with reference to the occupational position their fathers vis-a-vis that of their husbands. Father-son mobility patterns are closer to father-son-in-law mobility patterns than to father-daughter mobility patterns. Therefore, the marriage market more closely reproduces

the intergenerational mobility patterns of men.

H. The causes of gender inequality:

The following factors all contribute to gender inequality: sexism, less education, less experience, time off from work for child rearing, lack of freedom to move geographically, having to change jobs when husbands move, a lack of an "old boy network", the types of jobs held by women, and a dual economy.

I. Changes:

Affirmative action and civil rights laws are showing some effects. There are changes in attitudes, and increasing numbers of women are holding traditionally male jobs. Changes in the fields of study being chosen by women will lead to further inroads into male dominated fields. In 1970 women accounted for only 8 percent of all M.D.'s conferred but in 1980 for 23 percent.

II. Aging and Inequality

Historically, nature has seldom been kind to the aged. The elderly have received the best treatment in "primitive" societies which have adequate food, permanent residence, a religion that honors ancestors, and where special knowledge or skills of the aged are deemed to be most useful. In agricultural societies the elderly were treated favorably, given high respect, remained the head of the household, controlled property, and were a source of wisdom. In the industrial societies the roles changed. In 1790, the special privileges for the elderly were reduced, mandatory retirement laws emerged, and terms like "old fogey" "codger" and "geezer" appeared. The retired elderly, with no means of support, were seen as a social problem. During the Great Depression the elderly were hit hard, and organized politically to pressure government for their own economic interests. The Townsend Movement (Ham and Egg) pressured Roosevelt's administration to enact Social Security, and "grey power" is still a major political force. America still stresses youth and has a negative image of the elderly, however, they have a lower rate of poverty than any other minority group in this country.

A. The aged in Japan:

The elderly in Japan are still highly respected, and continue to have ranking at work based on age. Grey hair is seen as positive,

and elders have an honored positions in the family. Many older Japanese live with their children and there are few homes for the aged. A high percentage of the elderly remain in the workforce. There is mandatory retirement at 55, but many are then forced to take low paying jobs due to inadequate pensions, and less pay means less status.

B. A conflict perspective on aging:

The status of a group is related to its power and resources in relation to others in the society. Rapid advances in technology mean that the skills of the elderly no longer remain highly valued.

C. Aging: problems

The following are problems encountered by the elderly: health, nursing homes (although only 5 percent of the elderly in the U.S. are in nursing homes), dying (they are often kept alive artificially), suicides (large numbers do commit suicide), loss of social relationships, loneliness and isolation, and stress.

D. Aging: myths

It is a myth that the elderly are all poor. Their poverty level has gone down since the 1960's due to government programs. It is also a myth that old people are not happy. The life satisfaction levels for the elderly are similar to those for young and middle aged persons.

Glossary Terms and Definitions

gender roles - socially acquired and socially defined sex linked behavior expectations. (p.418)

sex stratification - when gender roles lead to material, social and political inequalities between men and women. (p.418)

instrumental role - functional theorists argue that the male assumes the responsibility (role) of providing the basic economic necessities and protection, and that this is the dominant role. (p.426)

expressive role - functional theorists argue that the female assumes the responsibility (role) of providing emotional support and of sustaining the family members, and that this is the subservient role. (p.426)

Key People

Irving Howe (p.419)

Talcott Parsons (p.426)

Robert Hauser and David Featherman (p.431)

Wendy Wolf and Neil Fligstein (p.432)

David Fischer (p.433)

Essay Questions

1. Present a brief historical overview of the role of women in society.
2. Explain the role of women in society from both a functional and conflict perspective.
3. Compare the status of the elderly in the United States with the status of the elderly in Japan.
4. Discuss the status of the elderly in America from an historical perspective.

Pop Quiz Questions - True/False

1. Most of the differences between men and women are created in the socialization process. (true)(p.442)
2. Throughout history we find at least some division of labor between men and women in all societies. (true)(p.418)
3. With early industrialization the position of women generally improved. (false)(p.419)
4. In contrast to the past, with a few exceptions such as combat positions in the military, no U.S. laws restrict women to particular occupations. (true)(p.429)
5. In general, before industrialization, the aged were treated favorably and given high respect in agricultural societies. (true)(p.433)

Pop Quiz Questions - Fill in the blank

1. The term GENDER roles describes the socially acquired and socially defined sex-linked behavior

expectations.(p.418)

2. There has been a strong tendency for MEN to provide food and protection from outside threats to the family, while WOMEN do the "domestic" work of cooking and caring for children.(p.418)
3. With early industrialization the position of women generally became WORSE.(p.419)
4. A recent United Nations report states that world-wide, women do two-thirds of the work but receive only 10 percent of the income.(p.428)
5. In contrast to the status of women, the status of the elderly has generally DECLINED in industrial societies.(p.442)

Lecture Resources

(Questions for class discussion)

1. Kerbo, like most other sociologists, presents gender as a dichotomy which corresponds to the male-female biological differences. Some anthropologists, however, suggest that it makes more sense to talk in terms of several genders. Discuss the notion of several genders from both a functional and conflict perspective.
2. What changes in American society can be predicted simply on the basis that the elderly are a rapidly growing segment of the population.

CHAPTER 16

GROUP CONFLICT, SOCIAL MOVEMENTS, AND REVOLUTION

Chapter Outline

I. Social Movements and Revolutions

A social movement may be defined as a relatively organized attempt to produce change in the society which is resisted by other groups.

Social change may be defined as the process through which major characteristics of a society are transformed in the absence of any specifically organized attempts to produce the change.

A. The nature of social movements and revolutions:

A revolution is a successful, large scale social movement characterized by excessive violence. A pure case of revolution involves attempts at basic change by groups relatively low in the stratification system, with those higher in the stratification system opposing them.

Civil war is violence which occurs between forces who fall on either side of a split down the middle of the stratification system.

A coup d'etat is violence which occurs when one set of elites are trying to displace another set of elites, with the masses primarily uninvolved (and sometimes uninterested).

A nationalist revolution is one involving attempts to free a country from colonial domination.

B. The causes of social movements:

Relative deprivation theory is a social psychological theory which focuses on the gap between what people believe they deserve in contrast to what they believe they can attain, and how this gap produces feelings of discontent and anger which motivate people to become active in social movements. The French social scientist, Alex de Tocqueville, was one of the first to notice a pattern fitting relative deprivation behind social movements. He noticed that anger is produced when conditions are improving and people's expecta-

tions for improvements race ahead of the actual improving conditions - as happened prior to the French Revolution of 1789. James Davis added to this observation by stating that improving conditions can rarely increase in a steady upward trend (as do people's expectations). When conditions actually stop improving for a while, the gap between actual conditions and expectations produce rebellion. Research evidence relative to deprivation theory has been inconclusive.

Resource mobilization theory is a conflict theory which posits that changes in the balance of resources held by one or both groups in conflict can start a social movement. Resources which may help promote the growth of social movements include: free time, money, numerous people, communication and recruitment networks, many forms of political support, and even talented leaders. Without sufficient resources for social movement activity, no amount of anger, discontent or deprivation can produce a social movement. This provides a good explanation for the black civil rights movement in the U.S.

C. The causes of revolution:

Class conflict and the place of the state in these conflicts can lead to revolution. It is the differing interests of classes which bring them into conflict. According to Marx, changes in the means of production lead to revolution. Most revolutions in major nations of the past 200 years have been related to change from an agrarian to industrial means of production (eg. the French and the Russian Revolutions). Marx predicted that after the mid-1800's revolutions would come in the advanced stages of capitalist societies when the substructural change which brought the capitalists to power would go through further change to bring workers to power in a communist state. This has not occurred.

International conflict and revolution:

Skocpol, in her study of the French, Russian, and Chinese Revolutions, observed that revolutions often come because of international competition. Because of failure to compete economically on a worldwide basis, a nation becomes weak and the impending crisis can

bring revolution.

The world system and Third World revolutions: Changes in the modern world system are currently responsible for many revolutions and potential revolutions in periphery and semi-periphery nations around the world. For example, the overthrow of the Samosa dictatorship in Nicaragua and the Iranian Revolution in 1979. Changes help provide the crises and the resources necessary. For instance, commercialization of agriculture has pushed peasants into the cities where they are more easily organized for a revolution, capable revolutionary leaders have been inadvertently supplied by the old colonial powers, and military resources are being supplied by core nations in order to protect their vested interests.

- D. The outcome of social movements and revolution: There are several stages of revolution. With the fall of the old order there is typically an attempt, only briefly successful, to form a "moderate" government with "moderate" leaders. However, various conflicting groups are mobilized, and there occurs a stage of radical rule, extensive change, and a reign of terror. Finally, all revolutions must cool and reach their "thermidor" if for no other reason than because people become tired of the upheaval and want social order. Revolutionaries never achieve all of their goals, nor do most even get close. The tendency is for inequalities which are reduced soon after the revolution to reappear a few decades later. The new inequalities do not necessarily correspond to pre-revolutionary levels.

The outcomes of social movements are varied and depend on factors such as the goals that are sought, characteristics of the society at the time, and tactics used by the social movement. Research by Garrison and others has concluded that 1) most social movements achieve at least some of their goals, especially small reforms, 2) most are more likely to achieve some success during times of crisis in the society, and 3) those movements that employ violence are somewhat more likely to succeed.

- E. Terrorism:

Terrorism may be defined as the selective use of violence to produce maximum fear and disruption in order to achieve political goals. State authorities use terrorism much more often than do groups opposing the authorities and trying to produce social change. It is a worldwide phenomenon, and has been found throughout history. It is often used to attract media attention, and can be used to gain bargaining power over an enemy. A protracted revolution is one in which a small group of violent terrorists cause enough disruptions in the society as to generate conditions favorable for a revolution. The current consensus among social scientists is that protracted revolutions are not likely to succeed.

Glossary Terms and Definitions

social movement - relatively organized attempts to produce change in the society which is resisted by other groups. (p.448)

social change - the process through which major characteristics of a society are transformed in the absence of any specifically organized attempts to produce the change. (p.448)

revolution - a successful, large scale social movement characterized by excessive violence. (p.449)

political violence - a term used to describe most varieties of social movements and attempts at revolution directed toward the political system. (p.449)

civil war - violence between forces who fall on either side of a split down the middle of the stratification system. (p.449)

coup d'etat - violence which occurs when one set of elites are trying to displace another set of elites with the masses primarily uninvolved (and sometimes uninterested). (p.450)

nationalist revolution - a revolution involving attempts to free a country from colonial domination. (p.450)

relative deprivation theory - a social psychological

theory of social movements which focuses on the gap between what people believe they deserve in contrast to what they believe they can attain, and how this gap produces feelings of discontent and anger, which motivate people to become active in social movements.(p.452)

resource mobilization theory - a conflict theory of social movements which posits that changes in the balance of resources held by one or both groups in conflict can start a social movement.(p.453)

terrorism - the selective use of violence to produce maximum fear and disruption in order to achieve political goals.(p.465)

Key People

Alexis de Tocqueville (p.453)
James Davies (p.453)
David Snyder and Charles Tilly (p.453)
Craig Jenkins and Charles Perrow (p.456)
Jeffrey Paige (p.456)
Karl Marx (p.458)
Theda Skocpol (p.459)
William Gamson (p.465)
Martin Oppenheimer (p.466)

Essay Questions

1. List and briefly describe the three major types of political violence.
2. Identify and describe in detail the two major theories that purport to explain the causes of social movements.
3. List and briefly describe the major stages of political revolutions.
4. According to your text, "revolutions can have many varied outcomes, but there are some general tendencies." Discuss these tendencies using China as an example.

Pop Quiz Questions - True/False

1. Relative deprivation theory is primarily a social psychological theory of social movements which seeks to explain how the angry state of mind leading to revolt is created. (true)(p.453)
2. Resource mobilization theory focuses on the "balance of power" between social movement organizers and their opponents. (true)(p.454)
3. Revolutions may appear to come suddenly, but the underlying conditions that make them possible develop over a long period of time. (true)(p.457)
4. Although Marx may have been correct in predicting some of the future trends of capitalism and communism, his model for analyzing revolutions has not proven to be useful (to social scientists). (false)(p.458)
5. Major revolutions rarely follow the same patterns of change, from the fall of the old order to the rise and consolidation of a new order. (false)(p.461)

Pop Quiz Questions - Fill in the blank

1. SOCIAL CHANGE is the process through which major characteristics of a society are transformed in the absence of any specifically organized attempts to produce the change.(p.448)
2. Relative DEPRIVATION theory is primarily a social psychological theory of social movements asking how the angry state of mind leading people to revolt is created.(p.453)
3. Although Marx may have been incorrect in predicting some of the future trends of capitalism and communism, he did provide a useful model for analyzing REVOLUTIONS.(p.458)
4. TERRORISM is the selective use of violence to produce maximum fear and disruption in order to achieve political goals.(p.465)
5. After much change, disruption, and violent conflict revolutions tend to finally cool, with what is

called the THERMIDOR reaction.(p.467)

Lecture Resources

(Questions for class discussion)

1. Do college students usually become involved in social movements? Why or why not? What about college students in other cultures?
2. So far, acts of international terrorism have not become a major problem within the continental United States. Why do you think this is the case, and how much longer can Americans expect to be spared from terrorist attacks?

CHAPTER 17

THE FAMILY

Chapter Outline

I. Sociological Perspectives on the Family

The family may be defined as at least two generations of people living together and sharing economic resources, who are related by marriage, birth, or adoption. In an extended family there are three or more generations living in close geographic proximity, but a nuclear family consists of just parents and their children. The family as an institution within the society, with its cluster of rules and norms to guide reproduction, intimacy, and the care of family members, remains strong in the U.S. despite a high divorce rate. The family has always been one of the most important institutions in human societies.

A. Functional view:

Functional theorists see the role of the family as a unit of human reproduction and care; a method of socialization for the young; a source of psychological, medical, and economic care; and a regulator of sexual relations. Historically, but no longer, the family served as a mini-state, criminal justice system, school, military, and religious unit. This perspective views all social institutions as functional units, and believe that when one of the institutions is no longer functioning as expected this affects other aspects of the society (eg. crime is seen as a breakdown of the family unit).

B. Conflict view:

Conflict theorists see the role of the family as a cooperating unit or clan in conflict with outsiders. The unit may be seen as a power structure within itself, with some members having more power than others.

C. Family forms and rules:

Incest is considered to be taboo in all societies. It prohibits sexual relations among nuclear family members other than husband and wife. Other rules vary from society to

society. Definitions related to the dominance and line of descent include: patriarchal, matriarchal, egalitarian, patrilineal, matrilineal, bilateral, patrilocal, matrilineal, neolocal, monogamy, polygamy, polygyny, and polyandry. In pre-industrial societies, the family system was/is most often patriarchal, patrilineal, and patrilocal. In advanced industrial societies, however, we find more egalitarian, bilateral descent and neolocal residence.

II. The Family: Evolutionary and Comparative Perspectives

Pre-agricultural societies had social organization based on kinship relations. The family, as a mini-state, protected members from outsiders, was the economic unit, education system, and welfare state.

Early agricultural societies (10,000 years ago) still considered kinship important. There was usually a dominant clan whose male leader was the community leader. Ancestor worship was common. Advanced agrarian societies no longer felt that kinship was of primary importance. Other social institutions developed which led to a formal state. A separate education system was developed. There may have been a king or a queen, but no one person filled all positions in the state. The family was still important in these societies. Industrial societies tend to place less importance on the family. It is still important, but other social institutions perform more of the functions once performed by the family unit. There is a decreased importance of the extended family, and extended family members feel less responsibility to help other relatives. They have less influence to help due to greater geographic mobility and increased social mobility. It is no longer necessary to have many children, and this has led to better birth control and more leisure activity. New technology has changed the way in which women work in the home and has given them more time to join the work force. Economic freedom has meant that women have more choice in marriage partners. The trend in the U.S. today is toward more egalitarian family life (especially among the more educated, middle class).

The Japanese family still maintains close ties to extended family members. Japan is the only

industrial society which does not have Western cultural traditions. Men still dominate in the society, while women have influence on household matters and child rearing. Husbands and wives seldom socialize outside the home. Arranged marriages are still more common, but cultural differences are being reduced slowly.

- III. Courtship and Marriage in Modern Society
- Romantic love is an idealized form of mate selection, where two people thought to be ideal for each other meet, form a strong emotional bond, and marry. Historically, and in many societies today, this would be unacceptable. Arranged marriages have existed for several reasons: economic, political (eg. family alliances). Mate selection in the U.S. includes: free selection and romantic love. The research shows that people "fall in love" for several reasons which usually include: the fact that they satisfy the other's needs of personal growth and development, they live in close proximity, they have similar racial and religious backgrounds, and similar social and cultural backgrounds. Most societies have pressure to form alliances within the group (endogamy), and many societies maintain overt or covert sanctions for alliances occurring across groups (exogamy). Informal restrictions to exogamy may include: exclusive residential patterns, prep school attendance, debutante balls, the "right" universities, and exclusive fraternities and sororities.

IV. Major Problems and Issues in the American Family

A. Divorce:

America has the highest divorce rate of all major industrial societies (Japan has the lowest). New options for women, geography, contrasting ideals of marriage, the nuclear family, and economic strain all influence the divorce rate.

B. Working mothers:

Over half of all women in the U.S. are in the labor force, and many of them must leave "latch-key children" who must come home to an empty house when they leave school each day. However, research shows that children of working mothers have no more problems with delinquency than those of non-working mothers. In fact, working mothers whose husbands

approve of their employment, are less likely to be depressed and do not show higher levels of mental stress.

C. Illegitimacy and family breakdown among the poor:

Over half of all black children born have unmarried mothers. Most of these mothers will never marry. America has the highest rate of teenage births among all industrial societies (Japan has the lowest). Several explanations have been put forth in connection with the rate of illegitimacy. Welfare payments are criticized as a contributing factor, and pornography is also suggested as a factor, but has not been supported by data. It has been suggested that black girls become pregnant because slavery led to a weakening of family traditions, because of a negative self-image brought on by poverty, and the fact that a baby offers personal gratification.

Glossary Terms and Definitions

family - at least two generations of people living together and sharing economic resources, who are related by marriage, birth, or adoption. (p.473)

extended family - three or more generations living in close geographic proximity. (p.473)

nuclear family - parents and their children. (p.473)

kibbutzim - (early Israeli) collective farms where the children were placed in communal nurseries and only saw their working parents for one hour a day. (p.473)

the family institution - the cluster of rules and norms which guide reproduction, intimacy, and the care of family members, remains strong in the U.S. despite a high divorce rate. One of the most important institutions in human societies. (p.473)

patriarchal - males have more power. (p.475)

matriarchal - females have more power. (p.476)

egalitarian - equal power. (p.476)

patrilineal - descent is traced via the male's

relatives.(p.476)

matrilineal - descent is traced via the female's relatives.(p.476)

bilateral - equal importance is given to both sides.
(p.476)

patrilocal - the wife must move to her husband's extended family household and come under their dominance.(p.476)

matrilocal - the husband must move to his wife's extended family household and come under their dominance.(p.476)

neolocal - neither is required to enter the household of either side of the family.(p.476)

monogamy - both husband and wife may have only one mate (the most dominant form of marriage).(p.476)

polygamy - multiple spouses are allowed.(p.476)

polygyny - multiple wives allowed.(p.476)

polyandry - multiple husbands allowed (rare).(476)

endogamy - occurring within the group (class, religion, race, etc.)(p.484)

exogamy - occurring across or between groups (multi-racial, dual religion, etc.)(p.484)

Key People

George Murdock (p.476)

Gerhard Lenski and Jean Lenski (p.476)

William J. Goode (p.477)

Philip S. Morgan and Kiyosi Hiroshima (p.479)

Ezra Vogel (p.481)

Daniel Patrick Moynihan (p.488)

Essay Questions

1. Analyze the family system from both a functional and conflict perspective.

2. Discuss the importance of the family system as societies progressed from agricultural to industrial.
3. Compare and contrast the methods of mate selection in the United States and Japan.
4. Describe in detail at least three major problems which confront the contemporary American family.

Pop Quiz Questions - True/False

1. Families, in some form, have always been found in human societies. (true) (p.473)
2. All societies, except primitive societies, prohibit sexual relations among nuclear family members other than husband and wife. (false) (p.475)
3. In his extensive study of families in industrial and pre-industrial societies, Goode found several important changes, one of which was the increased importance of the extended family. (false) (p.477)
4. The more "modern" or egalitarian family is prevalent among the upper classes whereas male-dominated "traditional" families are more prevalent among the middle classes. (false) (p.478)
5. The extended family is stronger in Japan than it is in the United States. (true) (p.479)

Pop Quiz Questions - Fill in the blank

1. A FAMILY consists of at least two generations of people living together and sharing economic resources, who are related by marriage, birth, or adoption. (p.473)
2. All societies have a rule called INCEST TABOO prohibiting sexual relations among nuclear family members other than husband and wife. (p.475)
3. There are logically two types of polygamy: POLYGyny allows the husband multiple wives, and POLYandry, which allows the wife multiple husbands. (p.476)
4. In his extensive study of families in industrial

and pre-industrial societies, Goode found several important changes, one of which was the decreased importance of the EXTENDED family.(p.477)

5. Over HALF of all married women are in the labor force today in the United States.(p.486)

Lecture Resources

(Questions for class discussion)

1. In recent years it has been fashionable to suggest that the American family has deteriorated to the point that it may actually be doomed as an institution. At the very least, it is argued that the family must undergo major revisions if it is to survive the demands of the next century. Does this seem like a realistic appraisal of the future of the family? Are there alternatives to the family which could be expected to adequately replace the functions it performs for the individual and for society?
2. It has been argued that the high divorce rate in America is an indication that mate selection based on individual choice and romantic love (as opposed to arranged marriages) is no longer a viable method of mate selection. Do you agree with this position? Why or why not?

CHAPTER 18

RELIGION

Chapter Outline

- I. The Nature of Religion

Religion may be defined as a system of collectively held beliefs and practices which attempt to explain the universe (or cosmos) with reference to a sacred and supernatural realm. By sacred, we mean things which are held in awe and reverence by the society. The profane are those things that are a part of the everyday world in a society. Rituals are specific practices which are directed toward the supernatural and sacred that must be followed precisely by members of a religion. Religion attempts to explain the world, or more generally the cosmos, in a manner that can give believers a sense of security by reducing the unknown. The "unknown" includes such things as: where the groups came from, where the group and specific individuals are going after death, and rules pertaining to personal conduct in the present.

Religions vary with respect to forms of social organization. A church is a firmly established religion, characterized by formal organization, widely accepted beliefs, and considerable resources. A sect is a religion that is not firmly established and is characterized by a small number of members, loose organization, and fewer resources. When a new religion becomes established as a church many of its original beliefs and practices are compromised to widen the church's acceptance in the society.
- II. The Religious Base of Social Order and Social Conflict
 - A. The positive functions of religion:

Religion may enforce social norms. This was the view originally expressed by Emile Durkheim, following his studies of the Australian aboriginals. Religion also gives meaning to life, by giving people a sense of having a place in something much larger than

themselves. It can make the world less threatening by "explaining" how the forces that operate in the world can be influenced or controlled.

- B. Religion can also be dysfunctional in that it can enforce a status quo that needs changing, and can prevent compromise between divergent groups.
- C. Religion and group conflict:
Historical examples of religion and group conflict include the "Crusades" when the Christians fought the Muslims, and Hindus versus Muslims, and Jews versus Muslims. Religion can also intensify existing conflicts and provide support for a group seeking social change (eg. the black Civil Rights Movement in the U.S. and the current racial confrontations in South Africa). Marx called religion the "opiate of the masses" in that it always plays a role in suppressing social change.

III. The Development and Types of Religion

Simple supernaturalism is the most elementary form of religion which believes there is some type of supernatural force operating in the world, but does not recognize a particular god. This form of religion is found in most hunting and gathering societies.

Animism is a form of religion which recognizes spirits that are believed to have motives and emotions much like humans. They can be found in many inanimate objects, such as the sun or the mountains. With the use of magic to influence the spirits, animism as a religion becomes a distinct institution within the society (complete with shaman or "witch doctor" who attempts to influence the spirits).

Theism is a form of religion that involves the belief in some god or gods which influence the world and must be worshipped. These gods are seen as very powerful and at least somewhat involved with human affairs. Theism first emerged with agricultural societies, and a sun god was often worshipped. Polytheism is a form of theism involving a belief in many gods, and monotheism is a belief in only one god who is in control of all people, whether the other people realize it or not (eg. Jews around 1200 BC and subsequently Christians). Eastern religions, such as Buddhism, Hinduism, Confucianism, and Shintoism, are

universalistic in scope but are based more on abstract ideals than a monotheistic god.

A. Secularization in industrial societies:

With industrialization came a decline in religious influence in society. Some social scientists, such as Freud, believed that religion would become extinct as societies advanced. Many of the functions once performed by religious institutions are now performed by others (secularization), for example social welfare has been taken over by the government. A particularly volatile area is the role of science in "explaining" the world. Religions remain important in dealing with "ultimate questions" such as the meaning of life, and in providing moral leadership. Industrial societies vary with respect to the importance of religion, with the U.S. being the most religious and Japan the least religious.

IV. Religion in the United States

There is a strong relationship between religion and nationalism in the U.S. today. Statistically, there are high rates of church attendance; belief in God; belief in life after death; a firm commitment to the separation of church and state, which has led to extensive religious pluralism. While there is religious freedom, however, it is still assumed that non-Christians are somehow un-American.

A. Religion and class:

There are class differences in rates of church membership and in the types of churches people attend. The higher the social class position of a person, the greater the chance that he/she is a member of a church. Churches with members from the higher class positions tend to rank lower in orthodox beliefs, as measured by a personal belief in God, life after death, and the existence of Satan.

B. Fundamentalist churches:

Fundamentalist churches or religions are usually defined as those which stress that everything in the Bible is literal truth. Members are usually very conservative in their political views (the "moral majority" which supported President Ronald Reagan). There has been a long tradition of the rise and fall of fundamentalist groups and "revivalism" in the U.S.

C. Cults:

A cult is a small, relatively less organized religious group which follows beliefs and has practices seen as deviant by the dominant society. They often hold religious beliefs which are new to the society, and society views cult members as strange, even though many religions (Christianity included) began as cults. Modern day cults include: the People's Temple of Rev. Jim Jones, and the Moonies. The spread of cults can be understood at a broader societal level (involving extensive alienation and discontent in the society), and at the social psychological level (when worldly solutions to the individual's alienation and discontent seem impossible).

A study of the followers of the Rev. Sun Myung Moon (the Moonies) showed that seven factors were involved in an individual's decision to join a cult:

1. Tension - unhappiness
2. Type of problem-solving perspective - which includes a history of religion in the person's background.
3. Seekership - the person is actively looking for a new means of solving their problems.
4. The turning point - a major change in the person's lifestyle.
5. Cult affective bonds - positive contact with a representative of the cult.
6. Extra-cult affective bonds cut - the person severs ties with non-cult members.
7. Intensive interaction with cult members.

A similar process is used by "deprogrammers" hired by parents to reclaim their children from a cult.

Glossary Terms and Definitions

religion - a system of collectively held beliefs and practices which attempt to explain the universe or cosmos with reference to a sacred and supernatural realm. (p.494)

sacred - things held in awe and reverence by the society. (p.494)

profane - things that are a part of the everyday world

in a society.(p.494)

ritual - specific practices that the members of a religious group must follow precisely.(p.494)

church - a firmly established religion characterized by formal organizations, widely accepted beliefs, and considerable resources(p.495)

sect - a religion that is not firmly established and is characterized by a small number of members, loose organization and few resources.(p.495)

simple supernaturalism - a form of religion which believes there is some type of supernatural force operating in the world, but does not recognize a particular god.(p.497)

animism - a religion that recognizes spirits that are believed to have motives and emotions much like humans.(p.497)

theism - a form of religion that involves the belief in some god or gods which influence the world and must be worshipped.(p.500)

polytheism - a form of theism involving a belief in many gods.(p.500)

monotheism - a form of theism involving belief in only one god who is in control of all people, whether the other people realize it or not.(p.500)

abstract ideals - guides to living which provide the basis for such universalistic religions as Buddhism and Hinduism.(p.500)

civil religion - refers to the strong relationship between religion and nationalism in the U.S.(p.504)

fundamentalism - the belief that everything in the Bible is literal truth.(p.505)

religious cults - small, relatively less organized religious groups which follow beliefs and have practices seen as deviant by the dominant society.(p.506)

Key People

Emile Durkheim (p.495)
Bronislaw Malinowski (p.495)
Karl Marx (p.496)
Sigmund Freud (p.502)
Robert Bellah (p.504)
John Lofland and Rodney Stark (p.507)

Essay Questions

1. Describe in detail the nature of religion from both the individual and societal perspective.
2. Present an analysis of religion from both the functional and conflict perspectives.
3. Describe the process of secularization in industrial societies.
4. Describe in detail the relationship between religious participation and social class.
5. Analyze in detail the most recent revivalistic movement in the United States.

Pop Quiz Questions - True/False

1. Durkheim believed that religion was an outdated legacy from the primitive past. (false)(p.495)
2. Marx believed that religion always played the role of suppressing social change. (true)(p.496)
3. In terms of complexity, the most elementary form of religion is simple supernaturalism. (true)(p.497)
4. The United States is the least religious of all industrial nations. (false)(p.503)
5. There are social class differences in rates of church membership and the type of churches people attend. (true)(p.505)

Pop Quiz Questions - Fill in the blank

1. RELIGION is a system of collectively held beliefs and practices that attempt to explain the universe (or cosmos) with reference to a sacred and supernatural realm. (p.494)
2. Sacred means things held in awe and reverence by society and set apart from the everyday world of the PROFANE. (p.494)
3. Most religions have specific practices that their members must precisely follow, directed toward the supernatural and sacred. These RITUALS are a means of showing devotion to the supernatural as well as displaying to the faithfuls continuing devotion. (p.494)
4. Marx believed that religion always played the role of suppressing social change because elites used it to justify their privilege and help the lower classes cope with their misery. It was for this reason that Marx called religion the "OPIATE of the masses." (p.496)
5. In terms of complexity, the most elementary form of religion, SIMPLE SUPERNATURALISM, is found in most hunting and gathering societies. (p.497)

Lecture Resources

(Questions for class discussion)

1. The recruitment techniques of religious cults have been the subject of intense criticism by the more established religious denominations in the United States. What exactly do these cults do to obtain converts? How do the mainstream churches recruit new members? What are the similarities and differences in the two types of recruitment? Why might the techniques of the established churches actually be seen as more powerful than those of the cults?
2. How can we best explain the recent trend toward the active participation of organized religion in the political process? Do the perspectives of either functionalism or conflict theory provide adequate explanations for this phenomenon?

CHAPTER 19
EDUCATION, SCIENCE, AND TECHNOLOGY

Chapter Outline

I. Education

As societies became more complex (after the hunting and gathering societies), educational institutions arose to pass on the culture to each new generation. Some of the earliest educational institutions emerged around 3000 BC in Egypt and Mesopotamia. By 1000 BC, China had schools for both the elite and common people. The Western tradition of university education was most influenced by the Greeks. After the Roman Empire, the general decline in Western education continued until around 800 AD. Educational institutions reemerged in Charlemagne's Europe, under the leadership of the Catholic church.

A. Education in industrial societies:

Industrialization produced a mass of uneducated peasants who were a drag on the economy and education became a virtual necessity. Almost all industrial societies promote mass education.

B. The expansion of education in the U.S.:

Following independence from Britain, Thomas Jefferson campaigned to insure all free, white, male children at least some education. However, educators resisted government involvement. Since then, mass education in the U.S. has reflected major social developments (W.W.II, the baby boom, and other demographic changes).

C. Theoretical perspectives on education:

The functionalist view sees the primary role of education as passing on the cultural heritage (primarily economic) to the next generation. Levels of education are used by employers to predict the success of a potential employee, and educational systems can provide for upward mobility in the society. The conflict view sees the primary role of education as a means for the upper classes to maintain their dominance. Education provides

selective mobility, and only those who have the proper respect for authority are allowed to excel. Racial and ethnic groups have criticized the educational system for presenting biased information about them.

D. Education and social mobility: myth versus reality:

In the U.S., most people believe that there must be a practical outcome of education. The data support the notion that education is a practical investment for further monetary returns. There are still some limits in the equality of educational opportunities. The more affluent, but not so intelligent, young people are still accepted into college, whereas, low income young people with high intelligence may not always have the opportunity to go to college. Children from higher class families are more likely to live in an environment that promotes intellectual skills, and teachers may expect more from children with higher class backgrounds (a proven factor in achievement). "Tracking" (eg. college prep study programs) tends to favor those from higher class backgrounds. However, at college level, social class background is not an accurate predictor of achievement.

E. Educational opportunities in the U.S.S.R.: Contrary to its equalitarian ideology, the Soviet educational system is similar to that of the U.S. in favoring those children with higher social backgrounds. About 90 percent of all Soviet children receive an eighth grade education, and then a class restrictive tracking system is utilized. Khrushchev instituted educational reforms in the late 1960's to increase college attendance by working class children, but many of these reforms later disappeared.

F. Programs to improve educational opportunities in the U.S.:

The Civil Rights Movement and efforts to reduce poverty in the 1960's brought efforts to increase educational opportunities as well. Busing was one of the first programs attempted. Headstart is a successful pre-school program, and student loans have been successful in offsetting financial inequalities. Upward Bound is a program to alter the self-

images of those who do not see themselves as "college material."

- G. Problems in the U.S. educational system:
The problems can be divided into those which are primarily academic and those which are brought into the public schools from the wider society.
 - 1. Declining academic achievement:
There has been a decline in the academic achievement (lower SAT scores and fairing poorly in international comparisons) in the U.S. in recent years. The U.S. spends more on education than almost any country in the world so financial explanations are inadequate. Lowered expectations in the classroom have been blamed and there is currently a "back to the basics" movement - with more homework, tougher courses, and teacher competency testing.
- H. The Japanese educational system: a comparison
Japan is very good at teaching basic facts, but creativity is seldom required.

II. Science and Technology

- A. The nature of science:
Science may be defined as a method of discovery that requires universalism, communalism, disinterestedness, and skepticism. Technology, on the other hand, involves the application of knowledge.
Universalism - scientific research and the findings from the research must always be evaluated in the same manner, using the same criteria.
Communalism - scientific knowledge is not the personal property of a particular person, even the person who created the knowledge.
Disinterestedness - scientists should put aside personal prejudices and personal interests in their role as scientists seeking knowledge.
Skepticism - scientists must always question facts and theories, which is to say they must keep an open mind toward their subject.
- B. Science, technology, and class conflict:
There are dangers to the new technology. Recent examples include: the chemical leak at a Union Carbide plant in Bhopal, India; and the partial meltdown of a nuclear reactor in

Chernoble in the Soviet Union.

Citizens organizations and consumer groups are putting pressure on elected officials to regulate scientific research and new technology.

Class conflict is apparent in the abuses of science or technology in that it is frequently the working class which suffer the most. The threat of job loss due to technology can be traced to the earliest days of industrialization. More recently, the computer revolution and gigantic advances in manufacturing technology have resulted in unemployment for countless workers.

Glossary Terms and Definitions

tracking - the practice of placing children in different educational tracks that prepare some students for college and others for vocational skills that do not lead to college.(p.520)

science - a method of discovery that is governed by four norms: universalism, communalism, disinterestedness, and skepticism.(p.537)

technology - the application of knowledge through the use of tools, other material things, or knowledge itself.(p.527)

Key People

Pamela Walters and Richard Robinson (p.517)

Randall Collins (p.518)

Robert Lane (p.518)

Robert Merton (p.527)

Essay Questions

1. Discuss in detail the functionalist and conflict perspectives on education.
2. Discuss the concept of education from an evolutionary perspective.
3. Analyze the myths and realities of educational opportunities in the United States today.

4. Briefly discuss at least two programs that have been designed to promote equality of opportunity in American education.
5. Define science and describe the four norms which govern the scientific method.

Pop Quiz Questions - True/False

1. To a far greater degree than any other animal, humans must be taught how to survive. (true) (p.511)
2. The United States has one of the most centralized educational systems among the industrial nations of the world. (false) (p.514)
3. According to the functional view, educational institutions provide a class maintenance function for society. (false) (p.517)
4. The belief that education is a practical investment for future monetary returns is not supported by current economic data. (false) (p.519)
5. The process of educational attainment is quite similar in the United States and the Soviet Union. (true) (p.521)

Pop Quiz Questions - Fill in the blank

1. To some extent socialization has been carried out in religious institutions but in most societies today EDUCATIONAL institutions are in charge of socialization after the first years of life. (p.511)
2. Soon after this nation became independent of British rule, THOMAS JEFFERSON mounted a campaign to ensure every free, white, male child an opportunity for at least a few years of elementary education. (p.516)
3. The most important point from the functional perspective is that educational institutions are needed to pass on CULTURE to the next generation. (p.517)
4. TECHNOLOGY is the application of knowledge, whether this involves tools and other material things or

the application of knowledge alone in achieving some end.(p.527)

5. One of the more successful programs to promote equal educational opportunities is HEADSTART, which was instituted in the late 1960's as part of President Johnson's War on Poverty. It is designed to reduce the one-year gap in educational ability between poor children and middle class children that exists before they even begin the first grade. (p.523)

Lecture Resources

(Questions for class discussion)

1. What is the purpose of obtaining a college education in the United States today? Would there be predictable differences in the way this question would be answered by students, faculty members, administrators, and politicians? Without some consensus as to the purpose of a college education, is it possible for colleges to give students what they are paying for?
2. A major theory suggests that technological change is a major determinant of social change. How might this theory be applied to recent social changes in American society (for example, the Women's Liberation Movement)?

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