INTRODUCTION TO SOCIOLOGY

Department of Sociology

Unit 1: Introduction

- Sociology is a social science concerned with the systematic study of human social relationships and the various ways these relationships are patterned in terms of social groups, organizations and societies.
- **Auguste Comte**; Social physics.
- Ginsberg (1939), Ritzier (1979), Giddens (1989).

- **Psychology**: matters of the mind.
- **Social work**: problem solving.
- **Thinking sociologically**:
  - C.Wright Mills (Sociological Imagination),
  - Peter Berger (Sociological Perspective).
- **Sociological Imagination**: Public Issues Vs. Private troubles. Individual difficulties often result from public problems. E.g. Individuals who can't find work are not automatically lazy or unqualified but could be living in a city with high unemployment rate.

- **Sociological Perspective**: Social interaction is fluid.

1. Seeing the general in the particular: (Identify general patterns of social life in the behavior of individuals)

2. Strange in the familiar. (Question everyday practices)

3. Seeing individuality in a social context. (individual choices reflect group behavior)

- **Macro sociology**: A study of large scale, long term, institutions, and their social patterns. Often employs quantitative methods. E.g. study of religions, political systems, health patterns, poverty…
- **Micro sociology**: A study of small scale, short term, and social interaction of individuals. Often employs qualitative methods. E.g. study of divorce experience, adoption…

Unit 2: The Emergence and Development of Sociology

- Aristotle, Plato: systems that govern human behavior
- Hobbes and Locke: human nature outside of government
- Wilhelm and Hegel: social change
- August Comte (1838): founded the field of Sociology.

2.1. Rise of the field of Sociology

1. The Industrial Revolution: transformation from agriculture to industrial systems. This led to high migration and a new form of social life not seen in agricultural societies. Focus was on Labor conditions, Transformation of property, Urbanism, Evolution of technology (Factory systems).

2. Social Problems: due to high migration, rise of urbanism, and overcrowding new forms of social problems emerged. Focus was Pollution, Crime, and Inadequate housing. _

3. Political changes and upheavals: after the American and French revolution the idea of human rights gained popularity, colonization was replaced with democratic systems. Focus was on how new forms of government led to positive changes and negative changes.

4. Religious change (Secularization): Religion lost some of its power as the ultimate answer to all questions due to the rise of natural sciences, rational thought, and medical progress. Focus was on Secularization and its impact on social interaction.

5. Exposure to new cultures: high migration and overcrowding meant that people from different origins were living and working closely. Focus was on why people have different cultures, how do different

6. Development of natural/ physical sciences: the evolution of Mathematics, Physics, and Chemistry, was due to **the Scientific method** which is an objective (unbiased) and systematic (process) method to test theories. Focus was on how to apply the Scientific method in social research. _

2.2. Classical Sociology Theorists

1. Auguste Comte:

Focused on improving society by studying patterns in past development. He contributed three major findings to the field of sociology:

1. Positivism
2. Social Statics and Social Dynamics.
3. The Law of three stages

1. Positivism

Relies on empirical evidence, found through experiments and statistics, to reveal information about how society functions.

- Systematic observation,
- Experimentation, and
- Comparative-historical analysis

2. Social Statics and Social Dynamics

- Comte divided the study of society into **Social Statics** and **Social Dynamics**.
- **Social Statics**: aspects of social life that have to do with order and stability (constant institutions like family, government)
- **Social Dynamics**: aspects of social life that have to do with social change and institutional development. (progress within constant institutions)

3. The Law of three stages

- Comte believed society developed in three stages. He called it **The Law of three stages**.

Stage 1: Theological stage: people believed in Divinity. Where all questions were answered by a **supernatural being.** (Primitive society)

Stage 2: Metaphysical stage: people believed in nature and **abstract ideas of right and wrong**. (Developing society)

Stage 3: Positivist stage: people believed in scientific explanation and proof. (most developed society)

2. Herbert Spencer:

Focused on evolutionarism. Society operates on fixed laws that allow slow adaptation. Society transforms from a homogeneous to a heterogeneous composition.

1. Growth Structure and differentiation
2. Militant and Industrial Societies
3. Organic Analogy
4. Non Intervention and survival of the fittest

1. Growth Structure and differentiation: Growth may come either through an increase in population by multiplication (children) or union (marriage or alliance of 2 or more groups).

- Increase in size leads to the formation of hierarchy and differentiation.
  - Simple society: Family
  - Compound society: Clan
  - Double compound society: Tribal
  - Trebly compound society: State

2. Militant and Industrial Societies: societies classified based on the type of internal regulation.

- *Militant society*: Colonies, army was prioritized, individuals exist to serve state, compulsory regulation, economy is dominated by government (public organizations), and power is in the hands of dictators.
- *Industrial society*: Cities, peace and cooperation was prioritized, state exists to serve individuals, voluntary regulation, economy is open (private enterprises), and power is in the hands of the people.

3. Organic Analogy: compares society with an organism. Society like an organism has various interdependent parts which work to insure the stability and survival of the entire society. We all have a role.

- This gave rise to his greatest contribution to the field of sociology: **Structural Functionalism**.

4. Non Intervention and survival of the fittest: As generation passes, the most capable and intelligent (the fittest) members of society survive, while the less capable die out. He called this principle "*survival of the fittest*" also known as **Social Darwinism**.

He was against any intervention that would help the unfit survive. This approach discouraged social change to improve the lives of disadvantaged people.

This approach was considered **anti-social** and was rejected.

2.3. Modern Sociology Theorists

1. Emile Durkheim

Focused on **Social Forces**. Individuals are products of complex social forces and cannot be considered outside of the context of the society in which they live.

All societies have a collective conscience that tells them how to think, act, value, and hate. This collective conscience is something entirely separate from the individual consciences that form it.

By studying social forces and collective consciences, he focused on three topics:

1. Social Facts
2. Solidarity and the division of labor
3. Suicide and social currents

1. Social Facts: forces outside of the individual that guide us on how to think and act. This includes Religion, law, economy, politics…

They exist over and above individual consciousness. Members of a society are directed by collective beliefs values and laws which have an existence of their own.

He believed that studying social facts and how they affect society was more important to a sociologist than studying individuals.

2. Solidarity and the division of labor: focused on how **solidarity** brings social cohesion. Solidarity is a force that brings different segments of society together through values and beliefs. It can be **Mechanical** or **Organic** solidarity.

He believed that all societies go from being mechanical to organic as they grow and develop. This is due to **Division of Labor**.

- *Mechanical solidarity*: has a relatively undifferentiated social structure, with little or no division of labor. It is a more primitive type of society.
  - Low population density (common in rural areas)
  - Unified because all people are generalists (homogenous).
  - Peoples focus of attention is similar/limited
  - People are intolerant of differences
  - Social control is often informal (religion/custom)

- *Organic solidarity*: has a greater and more refined division of labor. It is a more modern type of society.
  - High population density (found in urban centers)
  - Held together by the specialization of people and their need of services from others (heterogeneous).
  - Differentiation allows people to cooperate more and be supported by the same resource base.
  - Peoples focus of attention is multiple
  - People are tolerant and accepting of

3. Suicide and Social Currents:

Focused on how an individual choice like suicide is affected by the social forces around them. He was concerned with why one group had a higher rate of suicide than another:

Men > Women

Rich > Poor

Protestant > Catholic

Single > Married

–

He concluded that suicide was a social phenomenon, that can take the following forms.

- ***Egotistic Suicide***: Insufficient Integration. Weak or broken social ties leading to hopelessness.
- ***Anomic Suicide***: Insufficient Regulation. When society doesn't bind or care about the individual.
  - Anomy: is a social condition where norms are weak or do not exist.

People lose themselves to grief, love, pain, loss…and ignore their reasons to live.

- ***Altruistic Suicide***: Extreme Integration. Very strong social ties that lead to sacrifice of the individual for the sake of others.
- ***Fatalistic Suicide***: Extreme Regulation. When society binds or cares about the individual too much. It leads people to feel oppressed in their day to day life and they see suicide as their only way out.

2. Karl Marx

Focused on how society changed rapidly through chaos and conflict. His theories inspired the communist movement, Socialism, Marxism, and Neo-Marxism in the field of economy.

His major contributions in sociology were;

1. Class conflict (his greatest contribution to the field of sociology.)

2. Alienation in the work place

1. Class conflict

Focused on how society be studied and changed. He stressed that history of all societies is a continuous clash between conflicting ideas and forces between the **advantaged** and the **disadvantaged**.

Class conflict- is necessary in order to produce social and a better society. This conflict is necessary because the status-quo is oppressing the majority of the population. It is the engine of human history.

- Human survival depends on material goods and food. To acquire these needs people enter into social relationships that create the **forces of production**. The forces of production are inputs like raw materials, knowhow, labor, money, technology…

- The infrastructure (economic base): of society is the social relationships seen in the forces of production.
- The superstructure (social base): of society includes all other aspects except economy (religion, law, politics, military..)

- He believed that the **Infrastructure** (economic base) determines the **Superstructure** of society.

There have been **4 historical epochs** in western society:

- *Primitive Communism* (Hunting and Gathering): No class, No division of labor
- *Ancient society* (Slavery): 2 classes; Master/Slave.
- *Feudal society* (Feudalism): 3 classes; Nobility (landlords)/ Clergy/ Vassals (serfs).
- *Capitalist society* (Industrial): 2 classes; Capitalists/ Workers

- He concluded that the capitalist economic system was responsible for the overwhelming poverty, because one class grows at the expense of the other.
- The ones in power (capitalists) want more profit and the disadvantaged (workers) want to improve their life which leads them to conflict.
- Marx believed there was no oppression in primitive communism because there were no classes and that we should try to

- Unlike Herbert Spenser, Marx believed that human societies changed through **revolution** (rapid, chaotic, mostly violent changes) rather than **evolution** (slow, orderly, peaceful changes).
- He believed the next revolution would be the overthrow of capitalism and the rise of communism where everyone worked to the best of their ability and was paid according to their need and economic activity was regulated by the government.

2. Alienation in the work place

Alienation: is the estrangement of people from their own essence and self. In a capitalist economy, workers are alienated in the following ways.

- Workers from the product of their labor
- Workers from the process of labor
- Workers from the other workers
- Workers from their sense of self

3. Max Weber

He contributed five major findings to the field of sociology.

1. Superstructure influences Infrastructure
2. Verstehen and Ideal type
3. Social Action
4. Social Stratification
5. Power and Authority

1. Superstructure influences Infrastructure

Focused on how society was influenced by more than just its economy.

He showed how religion (*a superstructure*) shaped the economy (*the infrastructure*) of society during the rise of capitalism.

His argument was that the factors that led to the rise of capitalism everywhere but first manifested in Europe due to Protestant faith (Calvinism).

- Calvinism teaches about **destiny**; if people have a good life then they will have a good afterlife. Those who follow this faith began to avoid extravagancies, started to save their money and resources, and focused on work and their basic needs only.
- This led to accumulation of wealth (rise in capital)
- Which led to investment then reinvestment

2. Verstehen and Ideal type

It is a research method that focuses on subjective data to understand peoples point of view and their society.

Verstehen can be achieved only by seeing how people explain their own behavior and the behavior of others.

Our ability to empathize help us understand why people think and act as they do.

Examples of this method include case studies on historical figures and events.

- The Ideal type is a mental construct, like a model, for the systematic characterization of a concrete situation. A methodological tool to understand and analyze social reality.
- An example can be setting standards for how a product is supposed to work in perfect circumstances and then comparing it to reality.
- Historical events can be studied by comparing them to each other or constructing ideal types for the events and comparing the events to their ideal

3. Social Action

Is any action seen in social context where they are interpreted and have different social meanings.

1. Rational Action (value-rational ones): actions which are taken because it leads to a valued goal, but with no thought of its consequences

2. Instrumental action: actions which are planned and taken after evaluating the goal in relation to other goals, and after thorough consideration of various means

3. Affectional (affective) action (emotional actions): actions which are taken due to one's emotions, to express personal feelings.

4. Traditional actions: actions taken due to tradition, because they are always carried out in such a situation.

- Weber studied how in the past people were guided with mostly Traditional, Affectional, and Rational action but with development Instrumental action became the prevalent priority for people.

4. Social Stratification:

Refers to a society's categorization of its people into rankings of socioeconomic tiers based on factors like wealth, income, race, education, and power.

It results from a struggle for scarce resources in society. The primary reason for this struggle is economic but it also involves a struggle for prestige and for political power.

There are three ways individuals can be classified in social stratification. Class (Market situation)

1. Class (Market situation): classes develop in market economies in which individuals compete for **economic gain**. A person's Class is their market situation. In capitalism, there are four classes:

1. the propertied upper class
2. the property less white-collar workers
3. the petty bourgeoisie
4. the manual working class

Weber argued against Marx regarding class conflict by stating the following.

1. There are other factors than ownership of property that are significant in the formation of classes.
2. There is no need for oppression or conflict between those of different classes
3. There was no need for a revolution into communism
4. Political power comes from more than economic power.

2. Status

A status group is made up of individuals who are awarded a similar amount of **social honor** and therefore share the same status situation.

Status refers to the unequal distribution of 'social honor'.

3. Parties

Parties are groups which are specifically concerned with influencing policies and making decisions in the interests of their membership.

In Weber's words, parties are concerned with 'the acquisition of **social "power**"'.

Class, status, and party can be used to gain one another.

5. Power and Types of Authority

Power is the ability to get your own way even when others are opposed to your wishes.

Authority is when power is official and sanctioned.

Weber distinguished different types of authority. He suggested there were three sources:

1. Charismatic Authority
2. Traditional Authority

*1. Charismatic Authority :*derived from the devotion felt by subordinates for a leader who is believed to have exceptional qualities.

Charismatic leaders control their followers by direct emotional appeals which creates devotion and strong loyalties.

E.g. Mahatma Gandhi

2. Traditional Authority: formed upon a belief in the 'rightness' of established customs and traditions.

Those in authority command obedience on the basis of their traditional status, which is usually inherited.

Their subordinates are controlled by feelings of loyalty and obligation to long-established positions of power.

E.g. Monarchy

3. Rational-legal Authority: formed on the acceptance of a set of impersonal rules.

Those in authority command obedience on the basis of their qualification and job title.

Their subordinates are controlled by their belief in their superiors' skills and in the system that granted their authority.

E.g. Democracy

One kind of authority can be used to gain others.

Unit 3: Theoretical Perspectives in Sociology

- **Theory**-a set of logically interrelated statements that attempts to describe, explain, and predict social events.
- Three major theoretical perspectives have emerged in sociology: the **Functionalist, Conflict**, and **Symbolic Interactions** perspectives.

3.1. Functionalist Perspective (Structural Functionalism)

- It is based on the assumption that society is a stable, orderly system characterized by census. It is composed of interrelated, individual parts, and institutions which each provide a function. People share common values and ideals.

- Early functionalists compared society to a living, evolving organism. Focuses on the theory of evolution of society slowly.
- If one institution or a significant number of individuals refuse to participate in society, it affects everyone else.
- **Talcott Parsons**: division of labor starts in the family;
  - Father: instrumental task. Mother: expressive task
  - All other institutions exist to serve the family.

- **Robert Merton**: distinguished between:
  - Manifest function: intended goals and function.
  - Latent function: unintended, positive outcome.
  - Dysfunction: consequences of society.
- **Structural alternatives:** alternative methods that support the institutions like NGOs.

- **Criticisms**:
  - Focuses too much on order and equilibrium,
  - It ignores rapid change or conflict or views it as a problem.
  - It justifies the problems of society as being part of the status quo.

3.2. The Conflict Perspective

- It presumes that groups in society are in a continuous power struggle for scarce resources.
- Factors such as social class, race, ethnicity, sex and age are linked to unequal distribution of money, power, education and social prestige which leads to conflict.
- 3 assumptions of modern conflict theory:

1. Conflict over resources
2. Inequality in power
3. Change occurs due to conflict

- Conflict theory tries to understand society and reduce social inequality.
- Focuses on the theory of revolution of society quickly.
- Neo-Marxist: view the struggle between the classes as inevitable and is a prime source of change. Focuses on racial- ethnic inequality.
- Feminism: is a branch of conflict theory that focuses on gender issues.

Criticisms

- It ignores; shared values, interdependence and unity.
- It is highly political biased for workers so it lacks scientific objectivity.
- Both functionalism and conflict paradigms envision society broadly and focuses on Macro-sociology.

3.2. Symbolic Interactionist Perspective

- Society is the sum of the interactions of individuals and groups. It focuses on Micro-sociology.
- Communication through symbols is how people make sense of their worlds.
- Symbol: anything that meaningfully represents something else.

- Symbolic interaction occurs when people communicate through the use of symbols. This theory studies how individuals try to shape the reality that others perceive.
- It is greatly influenced by Max Weber’s work on subjective understand.
- George Herbert Mead is considered one of the founders of Symbolic Interaction even though he never published his work on it, his student Herbert Blumer interpreted Mead’s work and coined the phrase Symbolic Interactionism.

- Erving Goffman described society as a **Dramaturgical Analysis** because people are actors on a stage trying to convince others.
- George Homans & Peter Blau developed an approach called **Social-exchange analysis**. It shows how social interaction is guided by how each one stands to gain or lose from others. E.g. Interviews, dating...

- The theory has 3 basic premise:

1. Humans act toward things on the basis of the meaning they associate with those things.

2. The meaning of things comes from the social interaction that one has with others and the society in general.

3. These meanings are handled & modified by an interpretive process used by the person in dealing with the things he/she encounters.

- Social scientists who apply symbolic interactionist thinking look for patterns of interaction between individuals, employed with qualitative research.

Criticisms:

- Difficulty in remaining objective.
- It is too specific, with narrow focus and ignores Macro-level social interpretation.
- Ignores the influence of social forces and institutions on individual interaction.

3.4. Feminism

- Feminists try to understand society from the stand point of women.
- They criticize all 3 dominant perspectives as they are biased towards male point of view, even though feminism is influenced by all three. Early feminists were divided in three.

- Liberal: men and women are equal, legal/political rights and reform
- Radical: women are superior to men, radical change is enquired, women should be economic and social dominant. Reverse patriarchy.
- Socialist: men and women are in conflict over economic resources. If resources are distributed equally men and women would be equal.

- **Criticisms**
  - Most women addressed in feminism are white, middle class women, thus in early days issues of race, working class, different religions are ignored.
  - It ignores order and stability among men and women.

3.5. Postmodernism

- It is a broad movement that started in mid-late 20th century in philosophy, the arts…
- It marked a departure from modernism.
- Modernism is a label for a variety of cultural movements in the early 20th century that rejected traditional values and techniques. It emphasized individual experience. Learning from the past, logic, and original works. This era lasted until WWII ended.

- After 1968, postmodernism emerged. It emphasized the differences between people rather than the similarities between members of social groups.
- It acknowledges different view points as not to be judged, all are valid.
- Instead of trying to provide scientific explanations to society, they merely study different points of view and try to give them a voice.
- Usually associated with schools of thought such as: deconstruction and post-

- Differences between modernism and postmodernism include:
- Modernism: 1860s-1940s, logical, scientific, original works of art, and traditional concept of happiness, success, and pain.
- Postmodernism: after 1968, irrational, abstract works of art, dominance of media, freedom of speech and opinions, different definitions of happiness, success, and pain.

Criticisms

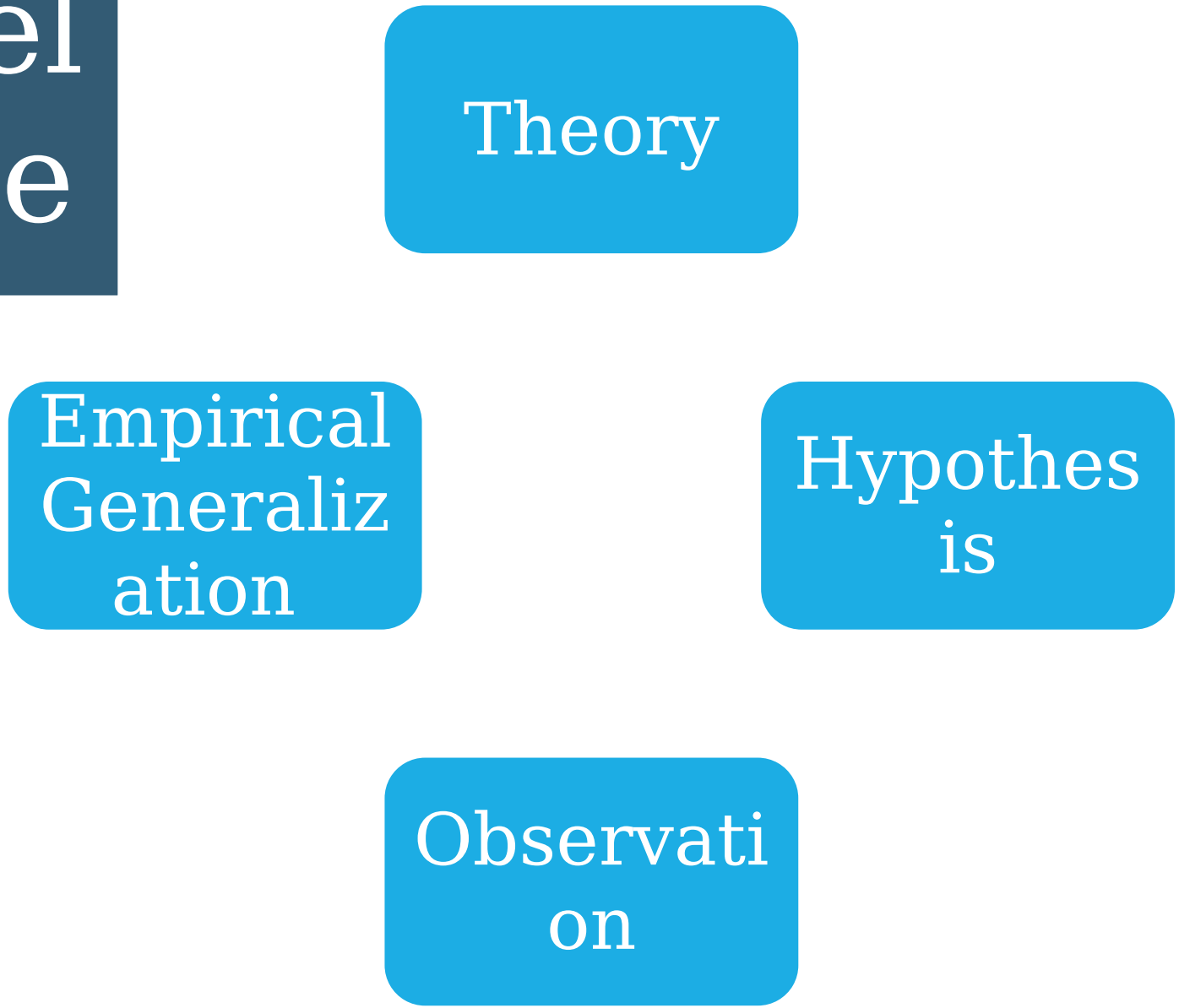
- lack of unified explanation,
- ignores scientific thought, and
- accepts all points of view including destructive opinions and practices.

Unit 4: Sociological Investigation

4.1. Sociological Research

- Search for knowledge leads to research, Research adds to knowledge. Scientific theory and research constantly shapes each other.
- It is the search of knowledge through the application of scientific or systematic methods.

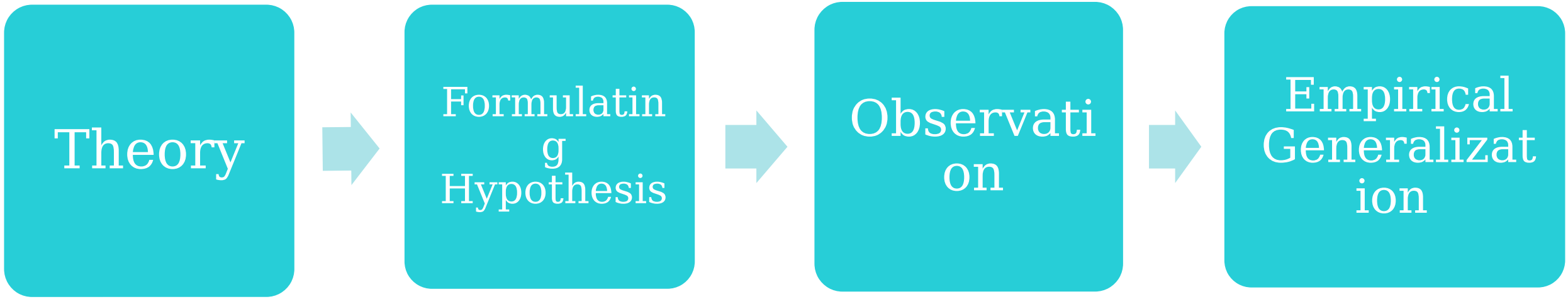
The Wheel of Science



- **Theory:** the result of a successfully tested hypothesis.
- **Hypothesis:** an attempt to explain a phenomena, it could be wright or wrong.
- **Observation:** the data or the impact of the world on our senses.
- **Empirical Generalization**: hypothesis supported by data collected and analyzed.

❖**Inductive Research**: goes from specific observation to general understanding.

❖**Deductive Research**: goes from general understanding to specific observation.



7 basic steps in Scientific Research

1. Select a topic
2. Define the Problem
3. Reviewing the Literature Review
4. Choosing a Research Method

5. Collecting the Data

6. Analyzing the Results

7. Sharing the Results

- **Rapport:** Trust between researcher and respondents.
- **Quantitative Research:** The data produced is numerical (statistics), used to identify trends, patterns, and changes.
- **Methods include**: Survey, Observation, Secondary Data.

- **Qualitative Research:** The data is presented using words, pictures, and in-depth interviews. Answers questions of how and why.
- **Methods include**: In-depth Interview, Focus Group Discussion, Participant Observation, and Secondary Data.

4.2. Common Sociological Research Methods

- Research methods are techniques for gathering data. The guides (list of questions) used for gathering data are different as well.

- **Quantitative Methods:** **Survey** (questionnaires), interviews

1. Survey

- Measures: data from a pre-defined group of respondents. Uses structured questionnaire, and scientific sampling. Preconditions of this method: selecting a sample, Questionnaires with neutral questions
- **Guide**: Survey questionnaire

- **Selecting sample:**
  - sample Vs. census,
  - representative sample,
  - correct size and nature of samples.
  - Random sampling-everyone gets a chance.

- **Questionnaire:** list of questions,
  - self-administered Vs. guided,
  - face-to-face Vs. telephone,
  - Structured/Close-ended Vs. Informal/Open-ended,
  - Neutral clear Questions

- **Advantage:** Easy to quantify and analyze, large number of people to be studied
- **Disadvantage**: Shallow results, high non-response

Qualitative Methods:

- Participant Observation
- In-depth Interview
- Focus Group Discussion
- Case Study
- Secondary Data

2. Participant Observation (Field Work)

- Researcher participates in the setting. Study personal characteristics. Problem with generalization.
- **Guide**: checklist

- **Advantages:** high quality, in-depth information, flexible approach, redefine past findings.
- **Disadvantages**: required to learn the culture of respondents, restricted to small studies, time-consuming, unlikely to be representative, highly skilled researcher required.

3. In-Depth Interview

- Researcher conducts interviews from formal or informal guides with individuals highly relevant to the study to get in-depth knowledge about their perspective or expertise.
- **Guide**: Key informant interview guide

- **Advantages:** high quality, in-depth information, flexible approach, redefine past findings.
- **Disadvantages:** high influence from interviewer, difficult to compare data with other work or in the same study. Few people can be interviewed in limited time.

4. Focus Group Discussion

- Researcher gathers relevant people to discuss issues. The discussion is guided by a moderator. Includes 6-12 members, 8 would be best.
- Members can be **homogeneous** (agree with each other, have similar experiences) best for sensitive issues.

- Exogenous homogeneity (people with similar character on different topics)
- Issue homogeneity (different people on the same topic)
- Group members can be heterogeneous (different perspectives) best for public issues.

Advantages:

- high quality, in-depth information, flexible approach, redefine past findings.
- Less bias from moderator, observation of social interaction.
- Minorities are represented.
- Participants have better control.
- Cheap. Less time consuming than an interview.

❖**Disadvantages:** some members may dominate the discussion. Moderator skills required. Group think may take over. Risk of confidentiality exposure. Not generalizable. Some members may be nervous.

5. Secondary Analysis

- Applies to qualitative and quantitative research.
- Analyzes data collected by other researches.
- Useful if there is limited time, money, or resources.

6. Experimental Design

- Often used in quantitative studies. Analyzes a cause and effect relationship between two variables.
- It proves or disproves a hypothesis by taking action and see the consequences.

It has three main components:

1. *Independent* (cause) variable & *Dependent* (changeable) variable.

2. *Experimental* (treatment, stimulus) group & *Control* (constant) group.

3. *Pre-testing* group & *Post-testing* group

❖ **Risks:**

- Spurious relationship
- Hawthorne effect

❖ **Advantages**: control over variables, combined with other methods, easy to identify cause and effect

❖ **Disadvantages**: expensive, unable to

- **Informed consent:** a process by which a researcher provides the necessary information to a subject about the nature of study, what data will be collected, how it will be analyzed, and who the results are presented to.

- **Confidentiality:** separating or modifying any personal, identifying information provided by participants from the data. Often used in qualitative studies.
- **Anonymity:** collecting data without obtaining any personal, identifying information. Often used in quantitative

Unit 5: Social Structure and Social Organization

5.1. Introduction

- All humans are social animals. We make groups all our lives. Families, citizen, ethnicity, religion…
- Social structure: is the ordered relationship and patterns and expectations that guide social interactions. People act according to their position in the social structure.

- Components of social structure includes: culture, social class, social status, roles, groups, organizations, institutions.
- Aggregate/Quasi groups: 2 or more people in the same place at the same time but have little or no interaction. Example: bus lines, traffic

- Social group: is 2 or more people occupying the same space, interact frequently, common identity and feel interdependent to each other. People identify themselves as a member of a group. There is regular interaction, similar norms& values, expectations, and a sense of belonging. Example:

5.2. Types of Groups

1. Charles Cooley: Primary and Secondary groups

- Primary groups: small, long lasting, emotional. (family, close friends, spouses)
- Secondary groups: large, short term, formal, logical. (class mate, coworker,

2. Sumner: In-group and Out-group

- In-group: group that a person feels they belong to. Attached to a persons identity with the idea of “we”
- Out-group: group that a person feels excluded from and is often hostile. Attached to a persons identity with the idea of “them”.

- Leads to discrimination, rivals, double standards, and even genocide.
- Double standard: is when the same behavior or act is viewed as good and bad depending on the person doing it. Ambition may be a good thing for men or white people, but bad for women and multi-ethnic people.

- The boundary or line between in-group and out-group is called social boundary. It can be material (wall of china) or symbolic boundary (language, prayer, symbol)

- Group dynamics: is how members of a group interact with each other. It is also how groups affect individual behavior, and vise versa. It is also how different groups interact with each other.

3. George Simmel: group size affects group dynamics.

- Dyad: 2 people (e.g. Marriage, 2 best friends). Active participation, intense one-to-one interaction. It is the most unstable form of group.
- Triad: 3 people (e.g. parents and one child, 3 best friends). Intense bond but less than dyad. It is also unstable as it can lead to coalition where 2 members unite against the 3rd member of the group. One person can become the mediator for the other two.

- As the number of group members **increases**: Intensity, intimacy, and emotional dependence decreases. This results in Stability, formalization, and logic increases.
- As group members grow the group evolves from friendship to specialized roles, leaders, formalization, and

5.3.Formal organization and Bureaucracy

Formal organization: a group deliberately constructed to achieve specific objectives through defined roles and specified rules. It comes from secondary group associations.

- Before the industrial revolution, Kinship was the highest form of organization. Modern societies are characterized by formal organizations rather than primary groups.

- Organizations that are small in number practice face-to-face interaction, while large number organizations create formal operations and administrative procedures. These procedures are carried out through bureaucracy.
- **Bureaucracy** is a method of operating formal organizations through hierarchy, division of labor, rules, and impersonality.

Bureaucracy is used in organizations that are:

- Large scale,
- Highly differentiated,
- Organized through elaborate policies and procedures in a hierarchy of authority,
- Managed by experts, and
- Work is the primary activity.

Max Weber outlined **the characteristics of Bureaucracy:**

- **Hierarchy of Authority**: assignments and accountability.
- **Clear Division of Labor**: specified tasks.
- **Written explicit rules**: bylaws for employees.
- **Written communications and records**: Files, memos, recordings….
- **Impersonality**: no personal feelings.

- In theory, hiring and promotion of an employee is based on their proven documented skills. There are career ladders that one can rise through or fall from. This is called **Meritocracy**.
- If the characteristics of bureaucracy and meritocracy are used in a formal organization it can prosper legally and efficiently for a long time.

- **McDonaldization** of society: is a concept developed by George Ritzer, that shows how society is becoming predictable and the same due to bureaucracy. Examples: restaurant chains: Kaldi’s, Down town. This can be seen as both a positive and a negative.

- The **positive** aspects of bureaucracy includes:
  - Improved efficiency,
  - Equal opportunities,
  - Hierarchies provide order and stability
  - Meritocracy prevents nepotism and bias.

- The **negative** aspects of bureaucracy includes:
  - Difficult to make changes or improvements
  - Iron rule of oligarchy: few elites use bureaucracy to keep others from competing with them.

5.4. Social Institutions

- A **social institution** is a complex integrated set of social norms organized around the preservation of a basic social value.
- They are stable sets of statuses, roles, groups and organizations formed to provide a foundation for addressing social needs.

- These patterns of expectations in society are social institutions.
- The institutions operate to on 5 basic areas (primary needs of life); the **Primary Institutions**.
- The primary needs (problems) of life and their institutions (solutions) are as follows:

1. Replacing members and Forming kinship

- Institution of **Family:** approved way to replace death and migration. It is a defined set of relationships with, at least 2 people related by birth, marriage, or adoption. It provides a structure for legitimate sexual activity for procreation.
- Learning values and customs begins and is carried out by family, especially for pre-industrial societies. Modern societies rely

2. Teaching and Socializing new members of society

- Institution of **Education**: teaches values and customs, and formal skills. Schools carry out formal processes where knowledge, skills, and values are systematically and uniformly passes from one group or individual to another. This can be modern education or traditional education.

- Ideas of hierarchy, cooperation, and accountability is primarily thought in schools. More influential in modern societies.
- Students also learn how to talk, act, and even think from their classmates and other students as much as their teachers.

3. Production, Distribution, and consuming goods and services

- Institution of **Economy**: formalized system of trade. People learn how to accumulate wealth, invest, and purchase in economy. It provides a format for trade: in modern societies currency is usually employed (money), while in traditional societies barter is practiced.

4. Preserving order

- Institution of **Politics**: distribution of power and safety in the form of government. This applies to peace and safety both within a country and in foreign relations.

5. Providing and Maintaining a sense of purpose and meaning

- Institution of **Religion**: societies encourage the development of a sense of purpose and motivation thorough religious values or moral codes.
- **Religion**: is a unified system of beliefs and practices about the supernatural, the divine and the right way to live. It is shared by a group of believers. It is sometimes confused with **Cult.**

- **Religion**
  - Open, legitimate, and accepted in the society where it exists.
  - It is usually inherited from parents or converted.
  - Often based in the belief of a supreme being or an al encompassing principle.
  - There is an established hierarchy and the members live different lives.

- It encourages interactions with outsiders, members are free to come and go.
- Members can interpret what the religion means to them.
- There are enduring texts that serve as a guide e.g. Holy Bible, Holy Quran
- Historical geographic origins: Jerusalem, Mecca,
- The major religions include: Hinduism, Buddhism, Islam, Sikhism, Taoism, and Christianity

- **Cult**:
  - A secretive, illegitimate, forceful, manipulative, form of abstract belief.
  - It usually has a charming, unquestionable, and charismatic leader.
  - Members are persuaded or forced to join.
  - Believers often live together, are forced to be together, and are isolated from the rest of society.
  - It does not accept every one and the core belief can change based on what the

5.5. Social Status and Social Role

- **Social Status**: is a recognized social position that an individual occupies within a society. A social definition of who and what we are in relation to others. It has rights, duties, and expectations. This is different from prestige because **prestige** is reputation and advantage.

- A person has many statuses at once. The list of statuses a person has is called a **status set**. E.g. a man's status set can be: a son, father, friend, husband, brother,

- There are many types of statuses:
  - **Ascribed Status**: inherited, assumed, fixed, and involuntary status. Often given at birth.
  - **Achieved Status**: Voluntary, ability based, earned through skill and hard work, and is moveable.
  - **Master Status**: a perceived social standing that has the highest significance for an individual's identity. It shapes a persons social experience

- Symbolic interactionism states that a master status dominates above all others to the point where all other statuses are not important.
- **Howard Becker**: states that a master status is a bad thing.

- People are judged only by their master status which can lead to discrimination and bias. If a person is seen as a good business woman (the master status) while being a terrible mother or wife, people would only focus on the good. If a person is seen as a criminal (the master status) while being a religious and kind person then people would only focus on the bad.
- Over time people accept their master status even if they don’t agree with it or want it.

- **<u>Social Role:</u>** Expected behavior that is attached to status. This includes both the privileges and obligations attached to status.
- People occupy a status and preform a role.
- **Cultural role** suggests how a person is supposed to act towards others.
- A person has many roles to fulfill from different statuses.

- The list of roles attached to a single status is called a **role set**. These roles interact with each other. A persons role set interacts with other people's role set and promotes social integration.
- If two roles within the **Same Status** are in conflict it is called **Role Strain**. E.g. Employee - Work hard Vs. Work together.
- If two roles from **Different Statuses** are in conflict, it is called **Role Conflict**. E.g. Police officer - Arrest criminals Vs. Parent - Protect your child.

- Role **conflict** and **strain** happen every day. Especially in developed societies where people have more available statuses and roles.
- To reduce role conflict and role strain, people define their roles based on their priorities and master status. They also draw boundaries between their different status (personal and professional roles are kept separate).

Unit 6: Culture and Socialization

6.1. Culture

- The concept of culture: it is a combination of ideas, beliefs, values, material culture, and non-material culture which identifies a person as the member of society.
- Culture is also the daily habits and beliefs we embrace based on our experience, generation, and religion.

- Acting within our culture gives confidence to our actions. It is the man-made part of our environment. It is acquired by people from their society.
- Culture and society are integrated and only seen as separate for the sake of analysis.
- Culture is the outcome of society and society only survives because of culture that binds the members together.

- There are **4 main characteristics** of Culture:
- Culture is **Symbolic**: members understand and are able to communicate using the same symbols (e.g. language).
- Culture is **Shared**: a society creates and maintains it. It is preserved in common knowledge, objects, and traditions passed down through generations. An individuals personal culture can be seen as habits.

- Culture is **Learned**: through enculturation (parents teaching children) or through Cultural transmission (members of one culture teaching members of another culture)
- Culture is **Adaptive**: it changes to accommodate the members' environment. Due to technology, climate, conflict….culture evolves.

- There are **5 Elements of Culture**:

1. Symbols: culture gives a shared meaning among the people who practice that culture. Symbols are variable, they mean different things to members of different cultures. E.g. high five, peace sign.

2. Language: communication within a culture is possible through vocal and written symbols. It is a unifying aspect as it encourages interaction.

3. Social values: shared assumption of right and wrong. Common values (general and abstract values): Freedom, freewill, kindness, strength, selfness. Specific values (personal life, work ambition) is derived from culture and personal preference.

4. Social norms: grow from values. It is the standard or code of behavior for members. It is the expectation and obligation that are specific to settings such as how to practice religion, how to

- Norms: specific actions that apply to a specific group of people.
- Values: general philosophies people fight for in their life.
- Norms and values vary throughout time. Values last longer than norms. Groups, and individuals change and so do their priorities.

- William Sumner: If a social norm is strong enough, it can be classified as mores and folkways.
- **Mores**: a norm that if violated has heavy consequences (Cannibalism). Mores vary over time and become laws or convention. Laws are codified conventions by the government. Conventions are formal agreements between countries.

- **Folkways**: norms that are similar to habits. Little or no consequences if violated. Folkways are divided into customs and fashions. Customs are long-lasting till it becomes tradition. Fashions change fast.
- **Social control**: every society needs it to maintain order. It is a process that regulates individual and group behavior. It is the fundamental rules of society.

- **Sanctions** can be positive and negative; give positive sanctions to encourage good behavior, give negative sanctions to discourage bad behavior. It applies to formal and informal control.

- **Formal social control**: conformity by order of law. Exacted by formal agents with legal power (police, courts, prison). Agents of formal social control have power to give negative sanctions like prison time, financial fines…. As well as positive sanction like promotion,

- **Informal social control**: methods used based on personal interaction. Encourage those who conform to the norms and discourage those who do not. It is enforced by public approval but has no legal power. This method is more effective in traditional societies and small groups. Positive sanctions include acceptance and inclusion. Negative sanctions include exclusion and discrimination.

5. Material culture: physical objects, resources and locations associated with culture. This includes: homes, neighborhoods, cities, schools, churches, mosque, factories, historical sites, and natural environment. Aspects of material culture includes:

- Method of obtaining food or producing it (pattern of subsistence.)
- Ways of exchanging goods and services.
- Kinds of technology and other objects people make and use regularly.
- Effects of people’s economy and development on the natural environment.

The layers of culture

1. Body of culture: that distinguishes your specific society; language, tradition, or belief that makes a group different. Members are often thought these principles from birth.

2. Sub-culture: a set of beliefs such as morals and customs that developed or maintained by set of people within a larger society (culture with in culture). These are aspects people keep even as they learn new cultures.

3. Cultural universals: learned behavior shared by all humanity collectively. E.g. the use of age and gender to separate class. To group people based on marital status. Different set of rules for raising children. The concept of privacy. Different forms of art. Assigning of leadership roles. Rules for sexual behavior.

- **Multiculturalism** is when several groups from different cultures live together or interact with each other. If there is too much variety of sub-culture within a culture or too many different groups come together it can lead to positive or negative outcomes.

- **Negative outcomes**: prejudice (hostile thoughts about a person or group), bias (favor your group), discrimination (act on prejudice)
- **Positive outcomes**: assimilation (to exchange one’s culture for another), accommodation (to ignore or tolerate other cultures).

6.2. Socialization

- People are transformed into social animals. The process of acquiring culture is socialization. Socialization brings normal human development: cognitive, personality, social.
- Effects of socialization starts from infancy. Socialization is carried out through agents of socialization.

❖**Agents of socialization** are structured groups or contexts for socialization to occur.

1. The Family: the first, most important, teaches concept of nurture, love, and provides basic training. Early cognitive, emotional, and physical development. Teaches cultural and social values.

2. The School: more powerful in modern societies, usually lasts up to 20 years. Training in specified knowledge and skills. Students learn self-image, beliefs, and

3.Mass Media: affects both adults and children. Composed of large scale organizations that use print or electronic means to spread information. Uses of mass media includes:

- keeping the public informed,
- learning about different people,
- learning different views on global and local issues,
- advertise products and services,
- entertainment

4. Peer Groups: Friends, similar age, social proximity, similar social identity. Learn how to act with social equals.

- In childhood we learn negotiation, leadership, and cooperation.
- In adolescence, teenagers question the dominant power in their life; their parents. Teenagers also learn to deal with groups without supervision. Linked with puberty, gender roles, and expectations. At this time media motivates trends new sub-culture.

- Eventually peer groups lose their effect during adulthood as new priorities (work, family) rise up. Peer groups become important again during elder years when people retire from work, spouses die, and children grow up and leave home.

6.3. Socialization through life course

❖From birth to death people acquire roles, relationships, and learn new roles for the future.

1. Infancy and childhood: sense of self, self concept, highly influenced by family. Early emotion, trust, dependency. Freedom from responsibility

2. Adolescence: education for future roles (personal and professional), carelessness or lack of choice may push teenagers into adult responsibility. Emotional and social unrest brings conflict with peers, teachers, parents, and other figures of authority.

3.Adulthood: freedom of choice but more responsibility. Early adulthood: from 20s to 40 is where priorities are personal and professional goals for the individual. New roles like being a spouse and parenthood come in to action. New trends and fashions are no longer acquired directly but rather through the next generation.

Other forms of socialization

- Gender Socialization: what it means to be a man or a women according to a person's group. Acceptable gender behavior is rewarded while inappropriate behavior is discouraged.
- Anticipatory Socialization: any form of socialization that prepares you for future

- Re-socialization: learn new attitudes, values, norms which are different from personal background. Agents of socialization bring gradual adaptation, re-socialization is much faster. It can be voluntary or involuntary.
  - Voluntary: when people choose a new status (new job, religion..)

- Involuntary: when people are forced to change (prison, mental hospital, expelled…). This involves total isolation from the rest of society in a facility that is controlled by officials.
- **Degradation ceremonies** are used in involuntary re-socialization to strip away the sense of self. This is used against people who break the law, the goal is to build a complacent person. It works in some cases but not always.

Unit 7: Social Inequality and Social Process

7.1. Social Inequality

- The concept of some people having more value than others is the origin of social inequality. The value of people can be associated to their resources like: money, property, health, education, and

- **Social resources** can be:
  - Economic (materials, land, income),
  - Cultural (education, qualification, status), or
  - Social (networks and association).
- They can overlap and one can be used to get the others. Social inequality reflects the difference between individuals' ability and effort (smarter, talented,

- Patterns of unequal access to social resources are called social inequality and they result in the a sociological concept known as **social stratification.**

- **Social stratification** of people is produced by the society in which they live. It is a hierarchical division and ranking of people based on social

- Wealth: determines occupation and education status.
- Race: distinction based on biological characteristics.
- Ethnicity: based on cultural, linguistic, or national identity.
- Gender: Socially constructed meanings and norms based on sex.
- Age: Responsibility and prestige based on age.

7.2. Four key principals to explain social stratification

1. Character of Society: it is society wide not unique to individuals.

- Primitive societies: rudimental social stratification
- Modern societies: complex social stratification

2. Universal but variable: exists everywhere but it is based on different things.

- Primitive societies: minimum social stratification (by age, sex…. Agrarian societies have rigid stratification.
- Modern societies: advanced social stratification. Stratification is flexible.

3. Lasts over generations: highly linked with family. Children tend to replace parents' social positions.

4. Pattern of belief: it persists if it is viewed as fair.

7.3. Historical Stratification systems

- All societies are stratified but how they are stratified is different.
- Stratification has had many forms: Slavery, Estate system, Indentured servitude, Caste system, and Class system.

1. Slavery: two levels (master or slave), masters have all the power while slaves have none.

- Causes: debt, crime, prisoner of war, belief of inherent superiority.
- Slavery now: more than 400million live as slaves, commonly as debt slaves or sex

2. Estate system: three levels (Nobility, Clergy, commoner).

- Nobility: inherited wealth and title, little work, primogeniture (only the first-born son may inherit wealth), justifications include; divine right to rule, authority granted by king, representatives of god.

- Clergy: religious officials, populated by second sons, job-security, chance of advancement.
- Commoner: masses of the people, highly engaged in labor, no chance of advancement.
- This system was overthrown or adjusted through revolutions, currently this system

3. Indentured Servitude: commoners sell their labor and body for a specified time (contract). The contracts specify time and type of service, once it is complete the worker is free. Unlike slavery, the servant has a choice. Common during the colonization of America. This system was absorbed in to class system over time.

4. Caste system: social systems based on ascribed status (race, gender, nationality, age, body,...) still exist these systems are rigid and no one can change their caste. Current example is India. It originated from Hindu religion (reincarnation). Low caste is punishment for crimes in a past life. There are 5 castes.

- Another example is South Africa **Apartheid** in 1948: Based on race, total separation where white people had all the power. Nelson Mandela and others drove out the practice, but prejudice and discrimination remains.
  - Work: caste dictates hat kind of work a person can do.
  - Marriage: marry only within caste (endogamy).

5. Class System: based on talents and abilities. Different from caste and slavery because:

1. Class is not fixed based on religious or legal provision. There is no restriction on socialization or marriage with different classes.

2. It is flexible. It is all or partially

3. Classes are based on economic differences.

4. Inequality in other systems is personal (belief, race, gender…), here it is professional (impersonal). In class inequality comes from collective standards like income group, similar occupation, similar living conditions.

- **Gender Stratification**: unequal distribution of wealth, power, and privilege between men and women. It is when men and women have different levels of access societies resources and benefit from its privileges. It is more common for men to have more power (patriarchy).
- As **gender stratification** increases so does **gender inequality**.
- Gender inequality intersects with race, ethnicity, social class, age, sexuality, people are classified by more than just gender.

- **Social mobility:** refers to the movement of people and groups between different social categories or different socio-economic positions. Class is often changed through hard work and ambition. Those who have it rise up while those who don’t fall to a lower class. How far it is possible to rise or fall is determined by the society.

Patterns of social mobility:

- Horizontal Mobility: moving across the same status.
- Vertical Mobility: moving from one status

- Intra-generational Mobility: changes of status throughout one lifetime.
- Inter-generational Mobility: change of status across generations.
- Structural Mobility: chance for status change is due to social structure rather than individual effort. (industrialization)
- Individual Mobility: chance for status change is due to individual characteristics, both ascribed & achieved (race, gender, education..)

7.4. Social Change

- Refers to significance change in behavior patterns, values, & norms. E.g. Industrial Revolution, Abolition of Slavery, Feminism…
- Theories of social change include functionalist, conflict, cyclical, and evolution

Four characteristics of Social change:

1. Happens everywhere but at different times and at different rates. Industrial societies evolve faster than rural ones. Material culture evolves faster than non-material culture (cultural lag).

2. Social change is intentional or non-intentional but still unplanned. Even the best changes are unpredictable. E.g. how equal rights lead to gay rights, how the internet changed everything.

3. Social change causes controversy. Every social change has a positive and negative side.

4. Some changes matter more than others. Some changes apply to few people, some apply to everyone. Some changes are temporary, some last throughout lifetimes.

Causes of Social Change

1.Culture: it gains and loses components through 3 sources of change:

- Invention: new products, ideas, and social patterns
- Discovery: people discover things that already existed but were unknown, e.g. medical progress.
- Diffusion: new element in culture inherited from other cultures: technology of others, new clothes. this occurs through trade,

2.Physical Environment: climate change, deforestation, urbanization. This causes people to change their way of life.

- People that adapt nature to fit them practice urbanization, people that adapt to fit their nature practice pastoral cultures. Civilization makes adaptation easier.

3. Population change: population increase or decrease affects social change, and social change can cause population change.

- When population number increases: complicated social structures emerge, migration becomes necessary due to depleted natural resources, new forms of leadership emerges, currency becomes required.... Migration alone brings changes as people adapt to new environment.
- If population number goes down the opposite changes will have to be made.

4.Technological Factors: technological advances change peoples lives. It changes priorities, offers new solutions, introduces new ways of life, which lead to new social relation ships and social change.

7.5. Social Movements

❖Are powerful, organized groups working towards a common social goal. It is a collective behavior that is non-institutionalized where people participate voluntarily. It can occur on a global, national, or local level.

Classifying Social Movements

1.Transformative Movements: attempt to overthrow existing order, often violent, and in the end the changes are big and irreversible. Focus is on society not the individual. E.g. revolutions, declaration of human rights…

2.Reformative Movements: limited objectives to alter existing order. Focus is on society not the individual. E.g. pro-choice vs. pro-life,

3.Redemptive Movements: it tries to rescue people from bad lifestyles and choices, e.g. religious groups, The focus is on personal redemption/ salvation of an individual's whole life. It focuses on individuals not society.

4.Alternative Movements: it calls for partial change in an a person's life. Focuses on specific flaws of a person's character and tries to fix it. E.g. Helping Alcoholics, and addictions.

List of Movements

- Human extinction
- Proud to be lazy
- Fix snake image
- Abolish mid-term exam and replace with assignments.
- A bill of rights for plants.

Thank you for your time.