THE ULTIMATE **CREDIT-BY-EXAM** STUDY GUIDE FOR:

Introduction to Sociology

2ⁿᵈ Edition

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Contents

Chapter 1: Introduction to Sociology

Overview

In this chapter, we will provide an introduction to sociology, shed light on why it is important, and explore its brief history and the influential figures in its development. The chapter will introduce and elaborate on different sociological approaches, sociologist styles, and theories, including outlining the four major sociological theories. Finally, the chapter will look at the sociological view of social structure, with an additional focus on Norbert Elias's figuration theory.

Learning Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Define sociology and discuss its approaches, subfields, and types of sociologists.
- Explain why sociology is important and its history.
- Describe the influential sociological theorists and their theories.
- Summarize the theoretical paradigms and the differences between macro and micro theories.
- Discuss the four major sociological theories.
- Describe the overall sociological view of social structure.

A. What is Sociology?

Sociology is an **analytical study** of the processes responsible for and affected by the behavior of people and their interactions in both **micro** and **macro** settings. It seeks to understand how **social institutions**, **culture**, **social norms**, and **values** shape our lives and experiences, and how they shape the structure of society as a whole. With a focus on patterns of **social interaction**, persons, and **collective behavior**, sociology examines the relationships among individuals, **organizational structures**, and communities to gain insight into how societies operate and bring about change.

In sociology, the term "society" refers to a group of people within a defined **geographic region** who interact with one another and share a common culture (laws, traditions, norms, and values). Sociology, psychology, and anthropology all deal with aspects of human behavior.

- **Sociology** focuses on social interaction and social life at a specific point in time.

- **Psychology** focuses on the way individuals think, feel, or behave.

- **Anthropology** focuses on the progression of human culture over time.

Some sociologists suggest that people's decisions are influenced by social variables. It is further suggested that these influences create **societal changes**, especially within families or a community.

Example

> *Some individuals face a choice when approaching adulthood about whether they will continue to live at home with their parents or move into their own space. In some cultures, it is customary for young adults to continue living at home with their parents until they get married, while in other cultures, it is customary for young adults to move out of their childhood home.*

In the example above, the country's culture influences where a young adult chooses to live. Sociologists observe the behavior of individuals in large groups, usually those who belong to the same community, to understand these cultural trends.

Sociology Approaches

The **positivist Approach** is a form of **empirical study** that examines the use of **scientific methods** to establish evidence of specific **social behaviors**. This approach relies primarily on the use of **quantitative data** as opposed to **qualitative** information and **objective natural laws** as opposed to **subjective interpretations** that are assumed to govern all human behavior.

The **interpretive approach** is more subjective and focuses on understanding people from a historical and cultural perspective. It emphasizes discovering the meaning behind the underlying motivations of social behavior instead of attempting to explain or predict it.

Some of the subfields that fall within the scope of sociology include Social Organization, Social Psychology, Social Change, Human Ecology, Population and Demographics, Applied Sociology, Sociological Methods and Research.

Table 1 - 1: Subfields within sociology

Social Organization	Focuses on how social structures, norms, and roles shape individuals and groups.
Social Psychology	Examines how individual behavior is shaped by group dynamics & social environment.
Social Change	The transformation of societies and communities over time due to various factors, such as technology, economics, culture, and migration.
Human Ecology	The study of human-environment relationships, including how populations and cultures adapt to environmental changes.
Population & Demographics	Studies the size, composition, and dynamics of populations.
Applied Sociology	The application of sociological theory & methods to research & practice in a wide variety of fields, including healthcare, education, business, & the criminal justice system.
Sociological Methods & Research	The branch of sociology dedicated to developing & applying techniques to generate, analyze & interpret social data.

Types of Sociology

Depending on their interests sociologists may pursue three distinct disciplines: **clinical sociology**, **foundational sociology**, or **applied sociology**. Each discipline will offer a unique perspective.

Table 2 - 1: Three sociological disciplines

Clinical Sociology	Foundational Sociology	Applied Sociology
Focuses on the impact of social relationships between individuals & groups. It uses the big-picture concept of sociology to directly help people who struggle with social issues. Incorporates components of clinical psychology, public health, medical sociology & other disciplines.	Study of **foundational theories** & principles that guide the field such as symbolic interactionism, functionalism, & structuralism. Academic discipline that seeks to understand how different **social phenomena** are shaped by the underlying structure of societies.	Application of **sociological concepts,** theories & research findings to improve the lives of people in a variety of contexts. Involves analyzing, designing, evaluating & implementing interventions in areas such as health, education, public policy, & development.

B. Why is Sociology Important?

Sociology provides us with the knowledge and tools to examine the world we live in critically. It helps us gain a deeper understanding of how our families, communities, countries, and the world function as well as the various **social issues** that affect us. This understanding allows us to make informed decisions and develop strategies to create positive change.

Table 3 - 1: How sociology is affected by public policies, social changes, and personal growth

Public Policy	Social Change	Personal Growth
A specific set of laws, regulations, & programs established by governments to influence **social outcomes** within a population. These policies may focus on areas such as: • *Health* • *Education* • *Economic development* • *Housing* • *Criminal justice* • *Public safety* • *Labor & environment*	The process of transformation in a society & generally involves a collective attempt by society to identify & address problems & make improvements. Typically driven by new knowledge, values, technology, & global processes. It can involve various factors, including **generational shifts**, structural change, demographic shifts, the emergence of mass media, economic shifts & the diffusion of new ideas. Some examples include: • *Industrialization* • *Rural-Urban* • *Political change*	The process whereby individuals develop their skills, knowledge & attitudes within their social & cultural environment. May take place over some time as individuals further their studies, take part in related activities & apply their understanding in new contexts. Some examples include: • *Thinking critically* • *Experiencing opportunities & challenges*

C. Brief History of Sociology

Since ancient times, people have been captivated by the relationship between individuals and the groups to which they belong. In the 13th century, Chinese historian **Ma Tuan-Lin** was the first individual who believed that **organized social dynamics** were a historical development component. He wrote about this in the encyclopedia *General Study of Literacy Remains*.

The next century brought **Ibn Khaldun** (1332–1406), who many hold as the world's first true sociologist. Khaldun was born in Tunisia and is credited with writing about many topics that helped set the foundations for modern sociology and economics. He provided a **foundation for the social conflict theory, nomadic and sedentary life, and political economies.** In addition, he researched **tribal social cohesion** and power potential.

During the 18th century, known as the **Age of Enlightenment**, there were several sociological thinkers, such as **John Locke** (1632–1704), **Voltaire** (1694–1778), **Immanuel Kant** (1724–1804), **Thomas Hobbes** (1588–1679), and **Mary Wollstonecraft** (1759–1797). While Locke, Voltaire, Kant, and Hobbes are credited with leading discourse on society and societal issues, creating writings that they hoped would bring social reform, Wollstonecraft stands out as one of the first women in sociology. Despite receiving little support in the male-dominated academic world, she focused on studying the societal roles and conditions of women. So, in the 1970s, following the growth of feminism, Wollstonecraft was identified as the first feminist thinker of consequence.

| John Locke | Voltaire | Immanuel Kant | Thomas Hobbes | Mary Wollstonecraft |

D. The Creation of Sociology

The **Industrial Revolution** brought many changes during the **19th century** including new types of employment. There was significant social and political turmoil with the rise of empires that exposed many people to new societies and cultures.

Three major changes that spurred the development of sociology in European societies include an **increase in the number of cities**, **factories**, and **democratic cultures.** The democratization of society led to a shift from class-based systems to a system with greater emphasis on individual rights. Moreover, sociology was developed in the mid-nineteenth century when European social observers began to use **scientific methods** to test their ideas based on the following four factors:

1. **The social upheaval** in Europe resulted from the Industrial Revolution.

2. **The political revolutions** in America and France encouraged people to rethink their ideas about social life.

3. **The development of imperialism**—as the Europeans conquered other nations, the interactions with different cultures influenced the "why" of cultural variations.

4. **The natural sciences'** success created a desire to apply scientific methods to find answers about the social world.

Comte's Three Stages of Society & Theories of Positivism

Auguste Comte was one of the founders of the study of sociology in 1838. Comte proposed three stages of society: **Theological Stage, Metaphysical Stage, & Scientific Stage**.

Table 4 - 1: Comte's three stages of society

STAGE 1 - Theological Stage	STAGE 2 - Metaphysical Stage	STAGE 3 - Scientific Stage
The start of human society & the formation of **social groups**. People considered gods as personally influencing everything occurring in the world, even if they didn't directly control it.	Began around the Middle Ages in Europe (roughly around the 1300s). Individuals viewed the world & events as natural reflections of human tendencies. Believed in divine powers or gods, but saw these beings as more abstract & less directly involved in the world's day-to-day happenings. Instead, they believed that problems in the world were due to defects in humanity.	Individuals in this stage view the world and events through the lens of **scientific principles**. Believe that the laws of science regulate everything. For example, today, it's commonly accepted that the planets orbit around the sun.

Positivism

Comte believed that sociology should adopt a positivist approach. **Positivism** is the belief that societies have their own scientific principles and laws, similar to those in physics or chemistry. Moreover, positivism holds that **objective truths** about society can be uncovered through scientific inquiry and that our understanding of society should be based on **empirical evidence**. Comte believed this approach was essential to fully understanding society and its workings. Comte's idea of positivism is, therefore, a product of the final stage of society, the **scientific stage**.

E. Overview of Influential Sociological Theorists

The following table summarizes the influential theories that contributed to sociology. The specific theories or concepts are spread throughout the relevant chapters. *Please see the **Appendix** section for more in-depth details.*

Table 5 - 1: Influential theories that contributed to sociology

Theorists	Famous Theories or Concepts	Key Points
Roots of Sociology		
Auguste Comte *"Father of Sociology"*	**Theory of Positivism**	Social scientists should conduct studies of society that use the same methods as the natural sciences and identify scientific laws that govern society. Comte proposed three stages of society: • Theological Stage • Metaphysical Stage • Scientific Stage
Harriet Martineau	**Harriet Martineau's** *Illustration of Political Economy*	Individuals are not meant to serve society; a society's purpose is to fulfill the needs of individuals living in that society.
Herbert Spencer	**Social Darwinism Survival of the Fittest Three Systems of Society**	Society is like the organs in the human body, and parts of society work together to function properly. Proposes that only the powerful and rich will sustain their wealth.
Conflict Theorists		
Karl Marx	**Social Conflict Theory Class Consciousness** *The Communist Manifesto*	All history is the history of class struggle in which a group would oust an oppressive group.
Charles Wright Mills	**The Power of Elite Personal Troubles Public Issues**	Upper classes of society had positions in the military, the economy, and the government, all of which exercised the most influence over others.
	Sociological Imagination	Ability to place one's own experiences in the larger sociopolitical context.
Weberian Theory		
Max Weber	• **Bureaucracy** • **Verstehen** • **Anti-positivism** • ***The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism***	Society needs a more formal, impersonal, and inflexible form of organization, which is characterized by rules, legal authority, and competence.

Structural-Functionalist Theorists		
Emile Durkheim	Functionalism Anomie Division of Labor Social Integration	Each part of society serves a specific function that contributes to the proper functioning of society as a whole. Social factors influence individual behavior.
Robert K. Merton	Manifest and Latent Functions Dysfunctions	Activities or institutions have clear and intended results as well as less evident and unintended ones.
	Strain Theory of Deviance	A theory based on empirical evidence stating that the primary cause of crime or anomie in society is the lack of opportunity to attain goals.
Symbolic Interactionist Theories		
George Herbert Mead	Symbolic Interactionism	Focused on how the mind developed during social processes. Symbols are the foundation of society; the meaning of different symbols is derived from social interactions.
William Edward Burghardt Du Bois	Double Consciousness	Internal tensions suffered by African Americans living in a predominantly white society.
Charles Horton Cooley	Looking Glass Self	A person's identity is based on how they believe others see them.
Erving Goffman	Dramaturgical Analysis	Study of social interaction by comparing it to theatrical performance.
	Impression Management	People adjust their behavior to create specific impressions for their audience.
Other Influential Theorists		
Georg Simmel	Dyads and Triads	As the size of the group increases, a person has less opportunity to be heard.
Gerhard Lenski	Sociocultural Evolution	A society's survival depends on its level of technology.

F. Defining Theory

The scientific definition of a **theory** refers to a well-substantiated explanation of an aspect of how something works. Sociologists have developed various theories to investigate and corroborate certain behaviors and conditions. These theories are based on careful observations using **scientific methods**. By developing theories, sociologists can build upon existing knowledge and generate new **hypotheses** to explain observed patterns.

Macro versus Micro

The scope of theories varies according to the scope of the problems they intend to explain. "Micro" simply means "small," so micro-level theories focus on specific relationships between individuals or small groups. In contrast, "macro" simply means "big," so macro-level theories address broad issues and vast populations. **Mid-level** theories bridge the gap between general theories and everyday life. Mid-level theories apply a theoretical framework to explain a particular situation or process. **Grand theories** aim to explain broad relationships and provide fundamental insights into issues like the formation and evolution of societies.

Theoretical Paradigms

Paradigms are the foundational frameworks that shape sociological thought. They consist of philosophical and theoretical concepts that guide the development of hypotheses, generalizations, and experiments in sociology. Three paradigms dominate sociological thought: **structural functionalism**, **conflict theory**, and **symbolic interactionism**. Each paradigm offers a distinct understanding of society and directs sociological inquiry differently. These paradigms, along with **feminist theory**, are also referred to as the four major sociological theories/perspectives.

Table 6 - 1: Structural functionalism, conflict theory, and symbolic interactionism

Structural Functionalism	Conflict Theory	Symbolic Interactionism
How each aspect of society works together to benefit the entire society, promoting solidarity & stability. **Macro** or Mid-level analysis	The way inequalities fuel economic disparities & maintain power differences. **Macro** level of analysis	One-to-one interactions & communications. **Micro** level of analysis

G. The Four Major Sociological Theories / Theoretical Perspectives

A **sociological theory** is an explanation for why and how people interact with each other within a society. It is used to explain patterns of behavior and the relationships among individuals, institutions, and societies. It attempts to explain why and how societies can exist and may even attempt to predict future societal trends. Four major sociological theories are fundamental to understanding the complexities of human behavior.

- **Structural-Functional Theory**: Helps sociologists understand how social structures and their interconnected roles influence our behavior, interactions, and experiences.

- **Social Conflict Theory**: Allows sociologists to examine how the distribution of power and resources can lead to conflict and oppression.

- **Symbolic Interactionism Theory**: Explains how individuals construct, interpret, and negotiate the meanings of interaction with others.

- **Feminist Perspective**: Emphasizes the need to understand and correct gender inequality as well as other types of oppression.

By understanding these theories, we can better understand the complexities of social interactions and relationships and how they can be used to promote social change.

Structural-Functional Theory

Structural-functionalism views society as a complex system of various interrelated parts, each serving a specific function to meet both individuals' biological needs and needs within that society. This theory suggests that all parts should work together to promote **solidarity** and **stability**. The complex system includes social institutions (i.e., family, economy, education, religion, and governments) that work together for the greater good and to help maintain the balance needed for the system to function smoothly.

Example

> *Functionalists would view family size as serving an economic need. In a pre-industrial society where agriculture is prevalent, larger families might be beneficial for farm labor. In contrast, smaller families might be more economically viable in an industrialized society.*

Herbert Spencer

Herbert Spencer is known as the father of **Social Darwinism**, whereby he applied the **theory of evolution** to sociology. Using the theory of natural selection, Spencer proposed that society functions as an interconnected and interdependent organism, accountable for its own maintenance and growth. Spencer believed that every **element of society**, from its laws to customs, was designed to adapt and adjust to changing conditions, social structures, and interpersonal interactions in order to thrive. His approach to sociology was that of a **structural-functional perspective**, arguing that the survival of a society depended on its ability to adapt and change and that this need was what kept society functioning. Herbert Spencer also referred to parts of a society as **social institutions**, which are patterns of beliefs, behaviors, and relationships that meet **social needs**.

Social Institutions

Government	Family	Healthcare	Education	Religion	Economy
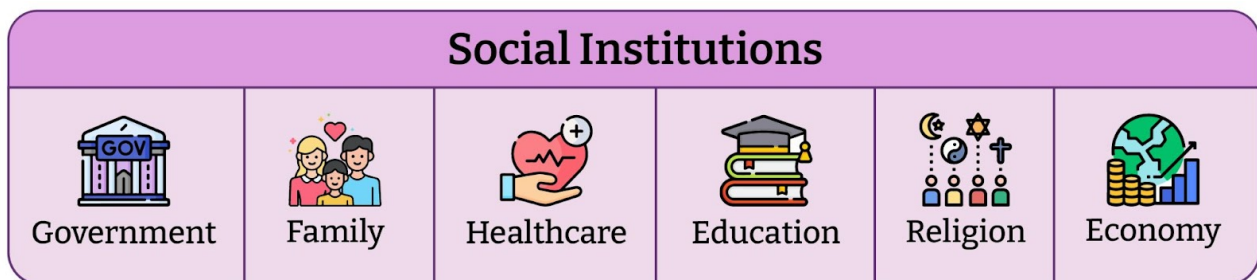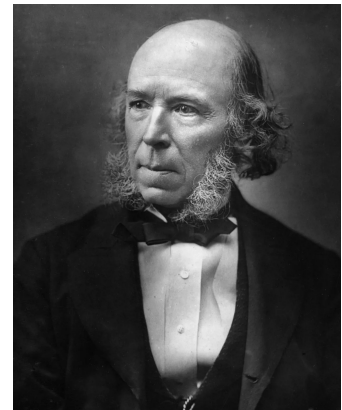
Emile Durkheim

French sociologist **Emile Durkheim** focused largely on **social integration** and **social solidarity**, examining such topics as the role of religion, suicide, and the effects of **social inequality**. Durkheim also wrote extensively about the concept of **anomie**, which refers to a situation in which society has been weakened and cannot provide the necessary moral guidance or rules to its members, leading to a lack of purpose and direction. Therefore, **anomie** also draws a connection between the effects of the social division of labor developing in early industrialism and the rising suicide rate. Durkheim is often credited as one of the first major theorists to apply the **scientific method** to the study of society, using **statistical methods** and **qualitative analysis** to interpret **empirical data**. Emile Durkheim also applied Herbert Spencer's ideas to explain the changes in society. He considered society a complex system with interrelated parts that work together and help maintain **solidarity**. Durkheim believed that a society, created and made up of individuals, is held together by shared values, languages, and symbols.

Alfred Radcliffe-Brown

Alfred Radcliffe-Brown (1881–1995) was a British anthropologist. He is considered a significant contributor to the development of modern anthropology through his development of **functionalism**, his comparative method, and his work on the theory of social structure. He was known for his studies of "**stateless societies**," making significant contributions to the studies of kinship and social organization. Radcliffe-Brown used the term "function" to describe the parts recurring activities played in social life. The function of different aspects of society can contribute to creating social stability and continuity. All parts working together to maintain stability is called **dynamic equilibrium**.

Robert Merton

Robert Merton is considered one of the founders of sociological theory. He is well known for applying the notion of a **self-fulfilling prophecy,** his works on anomie and **strain theory,** and for introducing the concept of the **reference group**. While at Columbia University, he created a theory of **social organization**. Robert Merton developed two separate approaches to the study of structural functionalism, which he called '**manifest functions**' and '**latent functions**.'

- **Manifest functions** refer to the consequences of social processes that are sought or anticipated.

- **Latent functions** are unsought consequences of social processes.

Example

> *Manifest functions of education include the transmission of culture, knowledge, and career preparation. One latent function is the establishment of relationships.*

Criticism of Structural-Functionalism

Structural-functionalism is often criticized for its over-emphasis on the maintenance of existing structural arrangements and order in society and its reliance on the notion that social change is a very slow and gradual process. Some believe this perspective to be too simplistic and suggest that it does not explain the rapid and revolutionary changes seen throughout history adequately. Structural-functionalism is further criticized for its focus on the **positive functions** of society and the ways structures fit together to form an orderly whole. This view ignores the potential for conflict and social change caused by sources such as economic inequality, racial divisions, political unrest, and other forms of **systemic injustice**. Finally, structural-functionalism has also been criticized for its apparent **determinism**, an idea that individuals have little to no control over their lives and that their lives are determined by the broader structures and practices of the society in which they live. Dysfunctions within society are known to continue even if they do not have a specific function, which contradicts the structural-functional theory's primary focus. According to many sociologists, functionalism is no longer as useful as a **macro-level theory** but does serve a practical purpose within **mid-level analyses**.

Social Conflict Theory

The social conflict theory suggests that social and economic factors are the root of conflicts and inequities within societies. The interactions between dominant and disadvantaged groups are at the center of the conflict theory. As groups vie for resources and power, they often engage in aggressive and exploitative behaviors. This power dynamic leads those with greater control or those who can restrict access to resources to wield more influence and perpetuate conflict or inequality in resource distribution. Social inequality is intrinsically linked to factors such as race, gender, class, and age. However, social change emerges through a process of struggle as the disadvantaged strive to overturn power imbalances. Most sociologists who use this approach attempt to understand and reduce social inequality.

Example

> *America is a capitalist society that promotes competition and values material wealth. It can be beneficial for those who are successful in obtaining material wealth, but detrimental for those who are not. This often results in a large contrast between the society's richest and poorest members.*

Karl Marx

Karl Marx (1818–1883), a sociologist and philosopher from Germany, was the major proponent of the **social conflict theory**. He viewed society in **social classes** and suggested that inequalities within social classes result from the economic situation whereby individuals from different classes compete for social acceptance, material items, and political resources. Institutions such as government, educational institutions, and religious entities create **social structures** and hierarchies that can be seen as class-based systems which lead to inequalities between social classes. This inequality of power can create
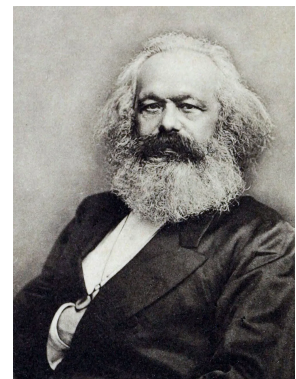
conflicts between classes as each struggles for control of resources, social acceptance, and political power. For example, government entities may limit or dictate what rights some classes have access to, educational institutions may create different educational opportunities for different classes, and religious entities may enforce a particular ideology on certain classes of people. In this way, these institutions can be sources of inequality and conflict between classes.

Ludwig Gumplowicz

Ludwig Gumplowicz (1838–1909) was an Austrian sociologist famous for developing the theory of his namesake, **Gumplowicz Conflict Theory**. This theory argues that society is composed of distinct groups in a state of constant competition and struggle for resources. He believed that through such conflict, society evolves, and its **power structure** changes through the victory of one group over another. Gumplowicz laid the foundation for modern theories of **social stratification** and is seen as a key forerunner of both social Darwinism and functionalism. **Ludwig Gumplowicz** expanded on Marx's theory and argued that **war** was considered a basis of civilization. Gumplowicz also believed that cultural and ethical conflicts led to the United States being dominated by groups that had power over other factions.
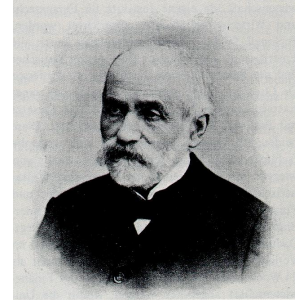
Max Weber

Max Weber proposed an ideological approach to power that looked at how those in power could create and maintain social order. Weber believed that power was not just a matter of force or manipulation but a result of economic and **political structures.** He argued that elites use economic and political structures to create and sustain dominance in any given society. He further noted that these structures often led to a variety of social conflicts, including class struggle, the struggle between different groups for resources and recognition, and the struggle between different **political ideologies**. Weber's work was foundational in understanding the dynamics of social conflict.
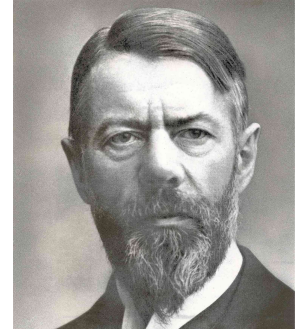
Max Weber considered that groups would be affected differently based on education, race, and gender. Weber also believed people would react differently to inequality depending on class differences. In other words, the amount people care about inequality depends on how much it affects them. For example, wealthy people are not bothered by what minimum wage is because they already make more than minimum wage.

Criticism of Social Conflict Theory

Critics of the social conflict theory suggest that its perspective is overly simplistic and deterministic, with a limited scope of analysis. It tends to present **class-based conflict** as the only way to explain human behavior and the larger social structure, oversimplifying the complexity of human social life and overlooking other sources of conflict, such as gender, race, and religion. Moreover, the theory lacks empirical evidence and overlooks the power of individual agency and agency of other social structures.

Additionally, it is argued that the theory focuses too much on exclusion and inequality, ignoring how shared values and interdependence unify society's members.

Symbolic Interactionism Theory

The symbolic interactionism theory proposes that society is a shared reality that people construct as they interact. This **micro-level approach** focuses on social interaction patterns in particular contexts. A vital element of the symbolic interactionism theory is that society is a complex, ever-changing mosaic of **subjective** meanings. Therefore, **symbolic interactionism** offers a micro-level approach to society by viewing society as the product of individuals' everyday interactions. Moreover, symbolic interactionist theory also considers symbols as objects we attach meaning to as the basis of social life. Through symbols, people can define relationships with others, coordinate actions with others, make social life possible, and develop a sense of self. Russian psychologist **Lev Vygotsky**'s theory of **constructivism** is an extension of the symbolic interaction theory and proposes that reality is what individuals construct their **cognitive thoughts** to be. What an individual perceives is happening in their social interactions becomes their reality. This suggests that we will develop our social constructs after interacting with and observing others.

George Herbert Mead

George Herbert Mead (1863–1931) was an American sociologist and philosopher who founded the American school of **symbolic interactionism**. According to his framework, meaning is derived from **social interaction**, including words, gestures, body language, and facial expressions in communication. Mead proposed that symbols are the foundation of society. They have meaning, and those meanings direct our lives. However, the symbols we use are arbitrary, as their meanings can vary from culture to culture.
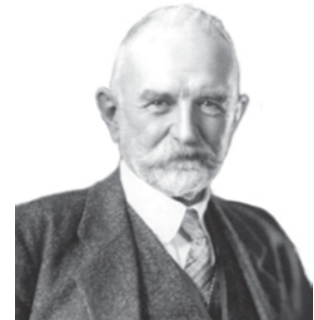
Erving Goffman

Canadian sociologist Erving Goffman (1922–1982) developed an approach based on symbolic interactionism called **dramaturgy**—a theory of interaction in which all life is like acting. According to Goffman, people's social life is comparable to an actor's performance on a stage, where individuals attempt to manage the impressions they project to create certain impressions of themselves within a given interpersonal context. Goffman also noted linguistic phenomena, such as frames and scripts, which play an important role in how social interactions are staged. Social interaction takes place by conforming to a given script and maintaining the performance. This means that people will take on certain roles and project a certain image of themselves.
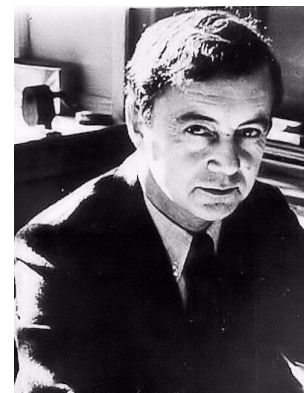
Criticisms of Symbolic Interactionism Theory

Critics of symbolic interactionism argue that the theory focuses on a micro-analysis and, therefore, fails to take into account larger social structures such as power, culture, and economic conditions. It is further suggested that due to the theory's narrow focus, it ignores how social structures shape individual behavior and thought. Additionally, it is argued that the theory does not acknowledge how an individual may misinterpret social symbols. All these criticisms suggest that the theory is incomplete when it comes to fully explaining societal behaviors.

Feminist Perspective and Feminism

Feminist Theory (micro/macro)

Feminist theory is a **sociological perspective** that seeks to create equality between men and women by bringing attention to the disparities and limitations imposed on women. Feminism is driven by a desire for **interpersonal equality** across all backgrounds. The ultimate goal of feminist theory is to provide equal opportunities, resources, and experiences for both men and women and to help eliminate the issues of **gender inequality** in society.

The feminist perspective originated from critiques of existing sociological theory, which ignored the experiences of women. In response, feminist scholars proposed an alternate **theoretical framework** to view and understand the social world. This framework took into account the unique challenges and roles women face in traditional societies, focusing on topics like power dynamics, gender inequalities, and the feminine voice. Feminists believe that sociology contributed to the subordination and exploitation of women.

The Feminist Literary Approach

The feminist literary approach is dedicated to examining gender roles, depictions of feminine identity, and pathways to autonomy in sociological literature. This approach strives to promote gender equality, diversity, and female empowerment by shifting the power dynamics perpetuated by patriarchy. Western literature often reflects a **masculine bias** due to the dominance of male voices in powerful positions, resulting in an inaccurate portrayal of women and their experiences. This approach works to combat this issue by empowering female voices and bringing attention to the restrictive narratives traditionally imposed on women. In addition, other topics vital to feminism, such as equal pay, reproductive rights, education, **gender stereotypes**, sexual harassment, assault, property ownership, and voting, all receive the same attention.

Table 7 - 1: The five main types of feminism

Radical Feminism	Marxist Feminism	Liberal Feminism	Cultural Feminism	Ecofeminism
Focuses on dismantling **oppressive power** structures & challenging the current **social order**. Advocates for the full participation of women in all aspects of society.	Holds that the primary cause of women's oppression is the unequal distribution of **economic power** & resources. Seeks to change economic structures to increase the social & economic status of women.	Advocates for equal rights for women through legal & political means. Seeks to use the existing laws & **institutions** to achieve rights & opportunities for women.	Emphasizes the differences between men & women, with the view that women's values & experiences create a distinct **culture**. Sees these qualities as beneficial & seeks to promote & protect them.	Focuses on the **interconnectedness** of women & the environment. Seeks to link social justice with environmental justice. Holds that both ecological destruction & gender inequality stem from the same oppressive source.

Criticisms of Feminism

The feminist theory has been critiqued for its oversimplification and essentialist ideas about sex and gender, its limited scope and **oppressor/oppressed** model, and its failure to recognize the complexity of gender roles and the impact of race, ethnicity, class, and other social factors on gender inequality. It has also been argued that this discourse may ignore the positive effects that gender roles and femininity can have on societies while primarily focusing on the experiences of **economic privilege**, neglecting male perspectives, and excluding male voices.

Sociological Theory Today

The four sociology theories discussed are still considered to be the building blocks of sociology. Though sociologists continue to expand on the four theories, there are **core concepts** that a sociological theory must attempt to reconcile: agency, rationality, structure, and system.

- **Agency** refers to the ability to act independently, make decisions, or take action. Within sociology, agency can also refer to individual or **collective action** taken to influence or change the structures of society to improve conditions and outcomes.

- **Rationality** refers to using logical reasoning and making decisions based on evidence or practicality, regardless of other factors such as emotions or personal values.

- **Structure** refers to the **social order** within a society, characterized by patterns of relationships. Structural features such as organizational forces, cultural norms, political processes, and relationships between individuals and groups all shape how people behave and how society functions as a whole.

- **Systems** refer to the complex **integration** of groups, **institutions**, and individuals that make up a

society as a whole. Systems help explain how society operates by looking at the interaction between individuals, institutions, and organizations and how they interact with each other to influence culture, behavior, and the production of goods or services.

The **main phenomena** sociological theory sets to explain are culture, power, gender, differentiation, and stratification.

- **Culture**: The study of culture aims to discover the influence of culture on behavior, attitudes, values, beliefs, and norms within a society. It also seeks to uncover how culture influences the way people interact with one another and how culture shapes the way people construct their identities.

- **Power**: Sociological theories that focus on power analyze the different forms of power within a society, such as the power attained through wealth, fame, status, or authority. They seek to uncover how power is used by different individuals or groups to influence or control others, as well as how power is maintained or changed over time.

- **Gender**: When analyzing gender, sociological theory aims to explore how gender affects people's experiences of the world, how gender roles are formed, how gender is socially constructed, and how gender inequalities exist in society.

- **Differentiation**: The study of differentiation investigates the various forms of differentiation within a society, such as race, class, age, or gender. It seeks to uncover how certain groups are disadvantaged or **marginalized** and how these groups are affected differently by institutions and policies.

- **Stratification**: Sociological theory aims to explain how society is stratified into different social classes and how social structure is connected to power and privilege. It explores how the unequal distribution of resources affects the stratification of society and how people's ability to move up or down the social ladder is affected by social structure.

Sociology in the Workplace

Sociology affects the workplace in a variety of ways and can shape the behavior of employees through understanding the social, political, economic, and cultural influences that lead them to act in a certain way. On an organizational level, sociology can explain the **dynamics** among workers, management, and other stakeholders, as well as the power and decision-making structures present within the workplace. Sociologists can also create informative feedback to employers by providing **empirical data** and insights into employee motivation, job satisfaction, workplace safety, and the role of diversity in the workplace. There are several fields in which a sociologist can work. These include:

- **Education**: Help students understand society and its impact on people, families, communities, organizations, and other **social systems**. They use theory and research to help students make informed decisions about the social world they navigate in their everyday lives. They might focus on topics such as social inequality, deviance, race, gender, and sexuality or teach courses in sociology methodology.

- **Government Research Projects**: Research projects in sociology might include surveys, interviews, and experiments that seek to assess public opinion on various issues such as poverty, healthcare, and education. These projects can help government officials better understand public sentiment and create more effective policies.

- **Social Services**: Provided by psychologists, social workers, and other professionals to persons in need. They can include counseling and therapy related to mental health, employment or housing assistance, and other crisis interventions.

- **Counseling Services**: Designed to help individuals learn how to manage emotional and mental health issues. Therapists often provide counseling designed to improve problem-solving, coping, communication, and other life skills.

- **Criminal Justice**: Criminal justice sociology is an interdisciplinary field of study that focuses on the causes and consequences of crime. It includes examining how crime affects individuals, families, and communities and the different roles of law enforcement, courts, corrections, and other criminal justice agencies.

- **Health Care Services**: Involve studying the social, cultural, and environmental factors that influence health and illness. It includes exploring **health disparities** among social groups, understanding the impact of health and social policies on individuals and populations, and examining how different providers deliver health care. It can also involve researching the various aspects of healthcare services, such as quality, access, insurance, and financing.

Table 8 - 1: Summary of the four major sociological theories

	Functionalism	Conflict Theory	Symbolic Interaction	Feminist Theory
What is the relationship between individuals and society?	People come with pre-set societal preconceptions about what their gender and other social roles are.	Individuals are subordinate to society.	Individuals and society are interdependent.	Women and men are bound together in a system of gender relationships that shape identities and beliefs.
Why is there inequality?	Inequality is inevitable and functional for society.	Inequality results from a struggle over scarce resources.	Inequality is demonstrated through the importance of symbols.	Inequality is rooted in the matrix of dominance connecting gender, race, class, and sexuality.
How is social order possible?	Social order stems from consensus on shared values.	Social order is maintained through power and coercion.	Social order is sustained through social interaction and adherence to	Patriarchal social orders are maintained by the power that men

			social norms.	hold over a woman.
What is the source of social change?	Society seeks equilibrium when there is social disorganization.	Change comes through the mobilization of people struggling for resources.	Change evolves from a constantly changing set of social ties and the emergence of new meaning systems.	Social change arises from the mobilization of women and their allies for women's liberation.
Major Criticisms	This is a conservative view of society that underplays power differences among and between groups.	The theory downplays how cohesive and stable society is.	There is little analysis of inequality, and it overstates the subjective basis of society.	Feminist theory has too often been anchored in the experiences of white middle-class women.

Source: www.triumphias.com

H. Sociological View of Social Structure

Social structure refers to the way individuals, groups, and other entities are organized and relate to one another in a given society. It acknowledges that humans are socially embedded in an ever-changing web of interaction, as well as embedded in the larger physical environment. Social structure aims to identify and analyze patterns of human behavior, including physical and social environments, **power dynamics**, and **institutions**. By analyzing the various components of social structure, sociologists can understand how societies function and how their members interact with each other. One aspect of sociological perspectives is that individuals and societies cannot be separated. As a result, sociologists may struggle to study individuals without studying society as a whole, and vice versa.

Norbert Elias was a German sociologist who argued that individuals constantly navigate their environment in order to feel secure. One of his key concepts is the idea of **figurations**. According to Elias, figurations are complex networks of interdependencies among individuals and groups. These networks are not static but dynamic, changing over time. Elias's concept argued that the very nature of social life was embedded in networks of action. Figurations of power created a complex, organized set of factors that affected the behavior and actions of individuals and larger social forces. Elias believed that these figurations were part of a larger process of historical change and that a mix of cultural conditions, **economic systems,** and individual beliefs formed this process. As such, he argued that individuals, influenced by these **social conditions**, could combine to produce new social forms that, in turn, determine the course of history.

Example

> Religion is not solely seen as an individual belief or practice but rather as a social phenomenon that involves complex interactions and relationships among individuals, religious institutions, and the broader society. Within a **figurational framework**, religion is understood as a **social system** that influences and is influenced by various social forces. Religion plays a significant role in shaping **religious norms** and providing a strong sense of community for its members. In turn, religion is influenced by social factors such as **cultural traditions, political structures**, and **economic systems**.

The diagram depicts what Elias called the **homo clausus** (closed people or closed person) image of humans and their societies. This diagram provides a very basic understanding of how individuals will interact with each other through their various roles and positioning within larger society. Individuals often experience themselves as isolated from society, separated from others by an invisible wall. Yet, they are still subject to the ideals formed by their members and institutions, such as families, schools, economies, and states. Although these groups may appear more powerful than the individuals used to create them, the reality is that they are composed of individuals, each one important to its makeup.
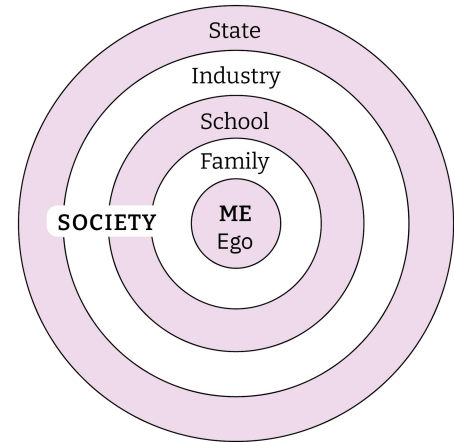
Elias expanded on the above diagram by creating the diagram, called **homines aperti** (open people). It visually represents how people in this configuration will be directed and linked with each other in a variety of ways based on their basic dispositions and inclinations. Based on the idea that there are different types of people with different needs and attitudes, this diagram allows people to be clustered into groups based on these factors. Each cluster has several lines connecting it to other clusters; these lines represent different pathways within the configuration, connecting people with similar needs and attitudes.
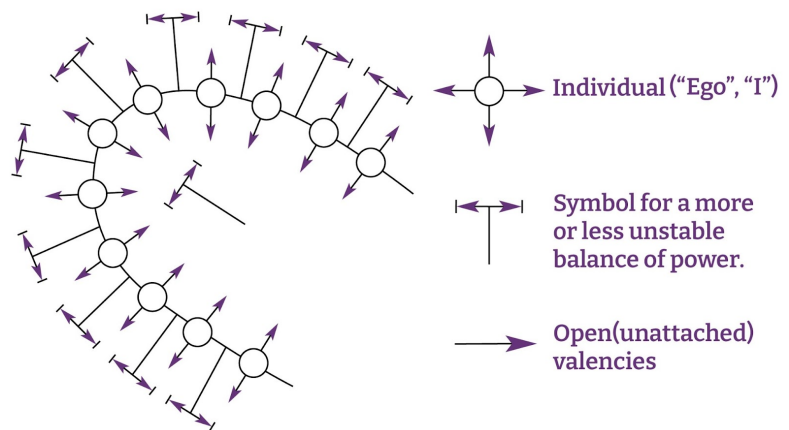
- Individual ("Ego", "I")
- Symbol for a more or less unstable balance of power.
- Open(unattached) valencies

Chapter 1: Review Questions

1. **People who have a career directly helping to improve people's lives using sociological concepts are _____.**

   A. Clinical sociologists
   B. Social workers
   C. Social psychologists
   D. Empirical sociologists
   E. Anthropologists

2. **A recent news item mentions a study showing that, though more women than men go to college, men are still more likely to earn doctoral degrees than women. Which theoretical perspective in sociology would be most likely to address an issue such as this one?**

   A. Structural-functional theory
   B. Symbolic interactionism theory
   C. Social conflict theory
   D. Feminism
   E. Positivism

3. **Which of the following assumptions is a characteristic of social constructivism?**

   A. It is an extension of the symbolic interaction theory.
   B. Reality is what individuals construct their cognitive thoughts to be.
   C. Perceptions of what is happening through social interactions become reality.
   D. A learning theory developed by Lev Vygotsky.
   E. All the answers above are correct.

4. **Jorge's town is hit by a tornado, and he believes it is because the god of weather is upset with the villagers. Which stage of society most fits Jorge's view of this event?**

   A. Emotive
   B. Empirical
   C. Metaphysical
   D. Theological
   E. Rational

5. **Comte believed in approaching the study of sociology through a perspective called 'positivism.' Which statement below best defines Comte's concept of 'positivism?'**

   A. Societies are based on scientific principles and laws, so they should only be studied scientifically.
   B. Sociologists should study society for the main purpose of improving particular regions.
   C. When societies are studied, only 'positive' correlations should be considered valid; 'negative' correlations are not valid.
   D. When sociologists are faced with social problems such as poverty or racism, they should avoid being discouraged and focus on the positive aspects of life.
   E. Sociologists should only focus on the positive things happening in the world.

6. Which set of terms below correctly identifies Comte's three stages of society, in chronological order from earliest to latest?

    A. Metaphysical, empirical, scientific
    B. Scientific, qualitative, quantitative
    C. Theological, metaphysical, scientific
    D. Empirical, rational, emotive
    E. Metaphysical, theological, scientific

7. Herbert Spencer was one of the top three sociologists to contribute to the _____ theoretical perspective.

    A. Social conflict
    B. Feminist
    C. Symbolic interactionism
    D. Structural-functionalism
    E. Positivism

8. Which of the following paradigms is used in sociology to analyze the ways that a group cooperates to form a successful whole?

    A. Symbolic interactionism
    B. Conflict theory
    C. Social construction
    D. Structural functionalism
    E. None of these are correct.

9. Which of the following is a sociological paradigm that focuses on the social inequalities in society?

    A. Social construction
    B. Conflict theory
    C. Structural functionalism
    D. Symbolic interactionism
    E. None of these are correct.

10. This perspective suggests that society is a shared reality as a product of everyday social interactions between individuals.

    A. Social interactions
    B. Societal deviance
    C. Symbolic interactionism
    D. Structural functionalism
    E. Conflict theory

Chapter 2: Sociological Research

Overview

Chapter 2 will explore the various views, **methods**, and **approaches** to conducting sociological research. We will look at the role of the **scientific method**, various research designs and methods, types of **experiments**, and **data analysis**. Additionally, we will delve into the usefulness of **ethnography** and will discuss the importance of **reliability and validity** in sociological research. Finally, we will discuss the **ethical concerns** associated with conducting non-obtrusive sociological research.

Learning Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Identify and explain the three major views on sociological research.
- Explain the basic steps in the scientific method for conducting research.
- Describe different types of research designs and research methods.
- Describe the ethnographic research method and its stages.
- Define reliability and validity and list types of reliability and validity.
- Explain ethical concerns in sociological research.

A. Sociological Research

Three Major Views on Sociological Research

Sociological research is the **systematic investigation** of social relationships, social structures, and social institutions. The three major approaches to sociological research are **positivist**, **interpretivist** (also called anti-positivism), and **critical**.

Table 9 - 2: The three approaches to sociological research

Approaches to Sociology	Defined as	Research Approach
Positivism	Studies the rules that govern behavior in society through a scientific lens, using **empirical data**.	Focuses on objective, observable quantitative data to make statements about larger **social phenomena**.
Anti-positivism (interpretative)	Analyzes how society is shaped by beliefs and other external factors. **Max Weber** pointed out that sociologists come with a certain worldview that can **shape their research**.	Encourages the exploration of qualitative data through **subjective experiences** & values.

	Emphasizes the application of **social research** to solve social problems & to support economic & social change.	Focuses on using both **quantitative** & **qualitative** data to identify & understand the patterns of power & oppression in order to promote equality & justice in society.
Critical Sociology	Based on the understanding that social phenomena are shaped by forces of power & inequality.	

Example

>*A sociologist who wants to investigate why young, low-income people do not vote. A **positivist sociologist** would search for an outside factor to blame for this. Is this a result of younger, low-income people being less educated and, hence, less likely to follow elections? An **interpretive sociologist** would consider how those who do not vote view the world in which they live. Does that group of people in society not value voting? A **critical sociologist** would want to know how we might utilize that information to persuade that group of people to vote more, not only why they aren't voting.*

B. The Scientific Method

Sociologists use the **scientific method** to study human behavior and social phenomena, which involves observation, measurement, experimentation, and hypothesis formulation. This approach can be adapted depending on the research question and context. It is based on collecting firsthand knowledge through methods like surveys, interviews, and experiments. Sociologists then use this data to answer questions, analyze trends, and support or reject hypotheses about **social variables**.

There are six main steps in the scientific method.

1. Formulate a specific research question.

2. Research existing sources.

3. Develop a hypothesis (testable explanation).

4. Test the hypothesis by conducting research (which may support or reject the hypothesis).

5. Draw conclusions based on the research findings.

6. Publish the research findings and make the information available to others.

Steps in the Scientific Method

Ask a question | **Research existing resources** | **Formulate a hypothesis** | **Design and conduct a study** | **Draw Conclusions** | **Report results**
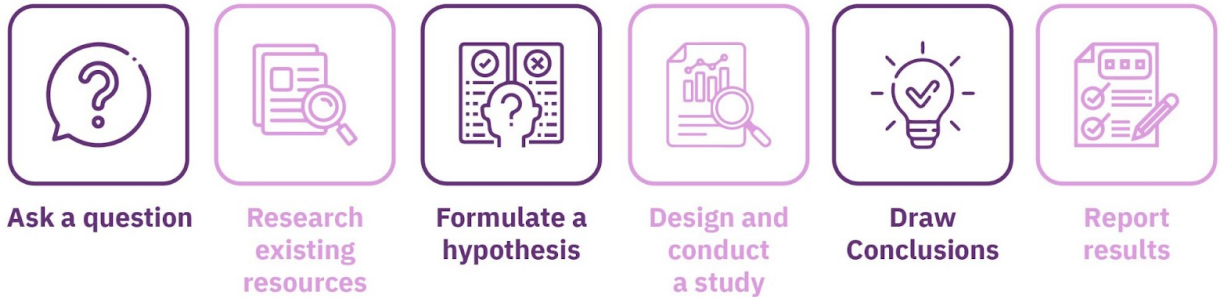
Note that there is no right or wrong conclusion regarding sociological research. Overall, the **scientific method** provides limitations and boundaries that focus a study and organize its results. With its **systematic approach**, the scientific method has proven useful in shaping sociological studies, providing an organized series of steps that ensure **objectivity** and consistency in exploring social problems through accuracy, **reliability**, and **validity**.

Formulating a Research Question

The first step in the scientific method is to identify the area of interest and describe the problem that the sociological study aims to explore and explain. When formulating a research question, it is important to ensure that the question is not too vague, as it needs to have enough information to have merit. During this process, researchers should use precise words and definitions. **Operational definitions** translate abstract concepts into something researchers can **measure** and observe directly.

Example

> *If a sociologist wanted to study the level of assimilation of immigrants in America, there is no direct way to quantify this. Instead, the sociologist would apply operational definitions such as how often the immigrants speak English instead of their native tongue or how frequently they cook traditional American meals at home to assess the immigrants' level of assimilation into the U.S. culture.*

Researching Existing Sources

A **literature review** is a critical step in the scientific research process as it involves analyzing all existing studies on a particular topic. This comprehensive search through scholarly sources and libraries provides valuable insights and understanding for researchers. By assessing previous research and potential **methodological issues**, the researcher can formulate a clear research question or hypothesis and identify gaps in existing knowledge. This not only helps in creating a comprehensive research strategy but also enables the researcher to synthesize information from various sources and analyze data to reach the desired outcome.

Formulating a Hypothesis

When beginning to study a topic, researchers must formulate a hypothesis. A **hypothesis** is a testable assumption about the relationship between two or more **variables**. The hypothesis states the expected direction of the relationship between the variables or how one variable influences another.

- **Independent variables** are the variables in an experiment that the experimenter changes or manipulates to observe the effects on the dependent variable. This means that the independent variable is the one that is changed intentionally by the researcher to observe the effects on the dependent variable. For any experiment to be **valid**, the independent variable must be controlled, and only one must be altered in order to observe the effects on the dependent variable.

- **Dependent variables** are the variables in an experiment that are affected by changes to the independent variables. Dependent variables are the measurable outcomes of an experiment that change in response to the independent variables. The values of the dependent variables are then observed and recorded.

Let us look at the **Stanford Prison Experiment** conducted by **Dr. Philip Zimbardo**. Dr. Zimbardo studied the effects of role on behavior in a fictitious prison in the basement of the psychology building at Stanford University. Zimbardo wanted to see if people would conform to their given roles. He introduced two roles. Some participants were assigned to be **guards**, while others were assigned to be **inmates/prisoners**.

Independent Variable Roles (Prisoner vs Guards)	→	**Dependent Variable** Behavior or reaction of the individuals to that role
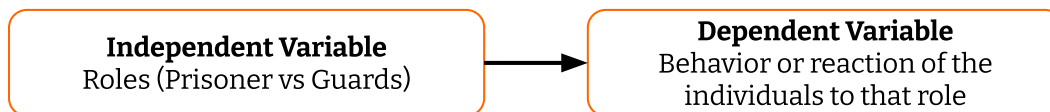
In this experiment, the independent variable was the assigned role. Dr. Zimbardo determined which participants were prisoners and which were guards. In other words, he **manipulated the independent variable**; he could control that variable. The dependent variable was the behavior or reaction of the participants. The behaviors were **not** manipulated but were a result of the roles assigned to each person. To identify the variable type, it may also help to think of them in such a way as to ask, "Which variable is 'dependent' on the other?" Then, it becomes clearer since the dependent variable always *depends* on and is affected by the *independent* variable.

Example of variables within hypotheses

- The number of people sleeping on the streets will decrease when more homeless shelters are available.
  - o *Independent Variable:* Availability of homeless shelters
  - o *Dependent Variable:* Number of people sleeping on the street

- Crime will decrease when there is a higher police presence.
  - o *Independent Variable:* Police presence
  - o *Dependent Variable:* Amount of crime

Sociologists make educated predictions when creating a hypothesis, but this does not mean that the data they gather will not contradict their hypothesis. While sociologists study general patterns, they are also interested in exceptions to those patterns.

Research Without a Hypothesis

Not all sociological research requires hypotheses. Consider the process of **interpretivism** mentioned earlier. The **interpretive framework** is a sociological research approach pioneered by **Max Weber** that seeks an in-depth understanding of a topic or subject through observation or interaction. This framework, which is not based on hypothesis testing, is used to look at social worlds from other individuals' points of view, leading to advanced knowledge. This framework is more **descriptive**, and instead of forming a hypothesis, researchers will create a way to observe and interact with their topic. It may involve more time around participants and higher interactions.

Designing & Conducting a Study

After formulating the hypothesis, researchers must consider a strategy to gather the data and information needed. This is known as the **research design**.

Types of Research Designs

We will discuss three different research designs. They are longitudinal study, cross-sectional study, and cross-sequential study.

Table 10 - 2: The three types of research design

Longitudinal Study	Cross-Sectional Study	Cross-Sequential
A longitudinal study examines the same group of people over a long period. Used to compare a group of people from one age to a different age & changes **over time** are studied as well. Long-term studies are very expensive to conduct. Some participants may move away or choose to leave the study.	A cross-section of data is collected **at a single point in time** as a way to study the relationship between different variables. Issues using this study method include the possibility of differences in population that may not be due to age & the variables are difficult to control.	A combination of cross-sectional & longitudinal designs. Involves observing multiple groups at a single time point. Then, sequential follow-up observations are conducted across all groups. Limitations include complexity & high costs. This type of design also requires a long-term commitment.

After deciding on the research design, researchers must also decide on other aspects of the study, such as the technique they will use to analyze their data, identify their target population, and decide what strategy they will employ to collect their data.

- **Data Analysis Technique**
  - Depends on the **research method** employed, whether researchers are employing **quantitative or qualitative** methodologies or **mixed methodologies**. Each methodology has its corresponding research methods, which will be discussed later.

- **Identify their population**
  - **Population** refers to the group of people who are the focus of the study. Researchers can choose the people they want to study based on age, culture, language, region, etc.

    Example: *Researchers studying diabetes in young people will focus on the "population" of children from elementary to teenage years.*

  - Sometimes, the population is determined on a large scale, and then the researcher breaks this down into a smaller group called a sample. **A sample** is a manageable number of subjects representing the broader population. In a **random sample**, every person in a population has an equal chance of being selected for a study.

- **Data Collection Strategy**
  - After the study selection, researchers will begin developing a **plan** to collect data, which may include asking questions and recording the responses. Researchers are urged to ensure they tell their participants the full scale of the study and what will occur. Once the participants agree to the terms, they will be introduced to the instrument used to gather the information from the participant, such as a questionnaire or observable behavior.

Hawthorne effect - This refers to study participants' tendency to behave in a particular manner due to being aware that they are being observed. It can alter the study's results. Nonetheless, most studies require that participants know they are being observed.

Types of Research Methods

Choosing a method is a vital step in conducting research. The research method that a sociologist chooses when conducting a sociological study depends on many factors, including, the purpose of the study, the scope and goals of the research, time constraints, resources, available data, and ethical considerations. A researcher may choose from the methods listed below:

- **Case study**: Refers to an in-depth analysis of a single event, situation, or individual. Case studies are used when the situation is unique. To conduct a case study, researchers may use existing documentation and archived records, conduct interviews, and use direct or **participant observation**.

  Example: A sociologist conducting a case study might focus on the life and experiences of a

specific immigrant family to understand their challenges and integration into a new culture. This method allows for a detailed examination of their unique circumstances.

- **Field study/naturalistic study**: Refers to observing the participants in their natural environments without lab experimentation.

  Example: An ethnographer living with and studying a remote indigenous tribe to understand their cultural practices and traditions. This approach allows researchers to observe behaviors and interactions in their natural context.

- **Survey study**: Refers to data collected from participants who have responded to questions about behaviors and opinions, usually through questionnaires. Surveys are the most common research methods as they are easy to use. Surveys can be completed anonymously and often require minimum involvement from the researchers and participants.

  Example: A sociologist conducts a survey to investigate citizens' political beliefs and voting preferences in a particular region. By analyzing responses to structured questions, the researcher can identify patterns in political preferences.

- **Experiment**: Unlike surveys, experiments check how people react in social situations. A researcher compares two or more groups of people. Researchers can test their theories by conducting experiments.

  Example: A sociologist conducts an experiment to examine the impact of a new teaching method on student performance. They randomly assign students to two groups: one group receives the traditional teaching approach, while the other group experiences the new method. By comparing their performance, the researcher can evaluate the effectiveness of the new approach.

- **Quasi-experiment**: The researchers will only compare, without forcing any changes for two or more naturally-occurring groups. Naturally-occurring means the participants were not randomly assigned to a group but came to the research study already part of a particular group.

  Example: A sociologist investigates the educational outcomes of students in a public school and students in a private school. Since it's not ethically possible to randomly assign students to these schools, the researcher compares the existing groups. This approach can help identify differences in educational achievement between the two types of schools.

Additional Research Methods

- **Interviews** involve one-on-one meetings between a researcher and a participant being studied. Unlike surveys with predefined choices, in an interview, the participant is free to answer the question in any way they feel necessary.

- **Participant observation** refers to the method in which researchers will join people and participate in a group's routine activities to observe them within that context.

Example: *Louis Theroux, a British journalist from the BBC, experienced the daily life of individuals who are a part of the Westboro Baptist Church in Topeka, KS. He participated in church services, interviewed the late Fred Phelps Sr., interviewed the church's children, helped with yard cleanup, and observed their pickets. While he did not live with them during that time, he was there for several days, living through what the members of this church went through daily.*

- **Ethnography** is the systematic study of people and cultures through the extended observation of social perspectives and cultural values. It is used to understand how an ethnic group is structured and to answer questions about their characteristics. Ethnographic research would be used to study how people who live and work in a fishing town may work, play, and live differently from those in a hunting community. This will be discussed at length in the next section.
  - **Institutional ethnography** is an extension of ethnography that typically looks at everyday social relationships. Canadian sociologist **Dorothy E. Smith** created institutional ethnography. She believed that feminist-inspired institutional ethnography was the approach to understanding social analyses and primary considerations of female experiences within male-dominated societies.

Table 11 - 2: Methods of data collection

Methodology	Qualitative Research (quality) - Works with descriptions and characteristics	Quantitative Research (amounts) - Uses numbers and mathematics
Means of Data Collection	- Participant observation - Direct observation - Interviews - Case Studies - Descriptive - Can't be measured	- Surveys - Tracking - Experiments - Can be measured
Commonly collected variables	- Color - Location - Descriptive feelings - Rank, grade, or place in a competition - Species of animal or type of object - Gender	- Number of individuals - Height, width, length - Weight or mass - Temperature - Length of time - Speed, velocity, acceleration

Types of Experiments

Experiments investigate relationships by testing hypotheses. **Lab experiments** are conducted in a **controlled environment** where researchers record information or data within a particular time. Researchers can create mock situations that allow them to manipulate the **variables** present in the study. **Natural or field experiments** happen in a natural environment, where the information and data cannot be controlled. However, the information may be more accurate since the collection was done without interference from the individual conducting the research. There are two types of experiments: **true experiments** and **quasi-experiments**.

A **true experiment** is a research design in which the researcher has complete control over the independent variables, such as assigning participants to different groups or conditions. This control is achieved through **random assignment**, where participants are randomly allocated to either the **experimental group** (dependent variable) or the **control group** (independent variable). By ensuring that the experimental setting and methods used are valid and reliable, **internal validity** is emphasized in a true experiment. Internal validity refers to the degree to which an experimental design accurately assesses the relationship between the independent variable (the variable manipulated by the researcher) and the dependent variable (the variable measured as the outcome). To achieve internal validity, researchers must eliminate **potential threats or biases** that could impact the results.

A **quasi-experiment**, on the other hand, is a research design in which the researcher does not have full control over the assignment of participants to different groups or their conditions. Unlike a true experiment with random assignment, in a quasi-experiment, the groups are formed based on **pre-existing characteristics** or **naturally-occuring divisions** (e.g., gender). When conducting a quasi-experiment, **external validity** will be emphasized by ensuring that the sample of participants used in the study represents the population that the researcher is attempting to draw conclusions about. Additionally, a **comparison group** is typically included in a quasi-experiment. This comparison group should be similar to the experimental group in all aspects except the variable of interest, allowing the researcher to draw valid conclusions about the effect of that variable.

Table 12 - 2: Comparison between True experiments vs. Quasi-experiments

True Experiments	Quasi-Experiments
Internal validity is emphasized	**External validity** is emphasized
Cause and effect assessed	Real & natural events
Clear hypothesis is tested	Exploratory or clear hypotheses
Randomly assigned participants or control groups	**Non-equivalent groups** not randomly assigned existing groups, self-selection
Manipulates independent variable	May not be able to fully control variable

Experimental vs. Control Groups

The effect of the **independent variable** on the **dependent variable** is what will be measured in an experiment. An **experimental group** refers to a group of participants in an experiment who are exposed to a particular stimulus, intervention, or activity being tested. This is the independent variable. An experiment can involve multiple experimental groups.

A **control group** is a group of participants exposed to either no stimulus, intervention, or activity *or* the

same stimulus or activity but not in the same way as those in the experimental group. The idea of the control group is to compare the results of the experimental group with a known result to determine the effect of the stimulus, intervention, or activity. A control group is an important part of any experiment as it allows for the effect of the independent variable to be isolated. This separation ensures that the experiment's results are not influenced by any other variables (confounding variables) and provides valuable insights into the effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable.

- **Experimental group** refers to a group of study volunteers exposed to the independent variable.

- **Control group** refers to a group not exposed to the independent variable.

Although all experiments have an experimental group, not every experiment requires a control group. In within-subjects designs, participants are tested before and after exposure to the independent variable. Experiments that utilize control groups are called **controlled experiments**. We need at least two groups to compare the experimental group to the control group.

Control groups are necessary when testing for the effect of drugs, like caffeine, as researchers will want to ensure the group does not simply change because they think they are supposed to. This phenomenon, known as the **placebo effect**, occurs when individuals change their behavior in response to an expectation of change.

Example

> *A researcher wants to determine the effect of caffeine on children's energy levels. If he gave all of the children caffeinated sodas, it would be impossible to tell if caffeine affects their energy levels. This type of problem is avoided by using a **control group**. The children are each given a soda, but half of the group's sodas contain caffeine (**experimental group**), and the other half are caffeine-free (**control group**). Those who receive caffeinated sodas may expect to feel more energetic and act accordingly. As the researcher wouldn't want to skew the study results, he would refrain from telling the children which kind of soda they got because they might change their behavior simply due to expectations.*

Drawing Conclusions and Report Results

Once data collection is complete, researchers will analyze their data to identify patterns, draw meaningful conclusions, and present their findings.

Data Analysis

There are **three main types of data analysis**.

- **Qualitative analysis** involves identifying patterns, themes, and categories in non-numeric data (text, images, audio, and video) and is highly subjective.

- **Quantitative analysis** deals with numeric data, emphasizing the measurement, quantification, and statistical analysis of data.

- **Mixed Method** incorporates both qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis. The benefit of this approach is that it can provide a more comprehensive understanding of the relationships between different variables.

Additional types of analysis include descriptive, diagnostic, predictive, and prescriptive analysis. Within each methodology, there are numerous analytical methods.

Qualitative Analysis

Content analysis is one of the most widely used qualitative techniques. It systematically analyzes written, verbal, or visual materials to identify themes, patterns, and meanings within a specific social context.

Quantitative Analysis

Data must be evaluated after collection to identify patterns and draw conclusions. This is performed with **statistical analyses** to check if variables are mathematically significant. Significance can be determined in countless ways, and new methods are developed regularly to reduce computation time. In this section, you will learn about different tests to analyze data quantitatively.

First, let's introduce probability values (**p-values)**, which are used to verify the existence of a connection between two variables. A smaller p-value generally indicates a stronger relationship between the variables being tested. A p-value of less than 0.05 is often considered a significant relationship, though this may vary depending on the particular field of research or type of study. Quantitative data is easy to compare because it has a numerical value. This makes it possible to consolidate the data into graph/chart format. Applying a model and statistical test can help determine if variables are significant, depending on the data's distribution or shape and spread.

- **ANOVA test**: A statistical test used to compare the means of two or more populations to determine if there is a significant difference between them. Different ANOVA tests can be used, depending on the specific situation.

- **Chi-square test**: Used to determine if the observed counts are significantly different from the expected counts. Imagine a researcher is curious about whether there is a relationship between gender and favorite ice cream flavor. The researcher decides to survey a group of 100 people, asking them to choose their favorite ice cream flavor from three options: chocolate, vanilla, and strawberry. Additionally, the researcher records their gender as either male or female. Now, the researcher wants to know if there is a significant association between gender and ice cream flavor preference. The chi-square test will help the researcher determine whether the observed distribution of ice cream flavor preferences differs significantly from what would be expected if gender and ice cream flavor preference were unrelated.

- **Correlations**: A correlation is a relationship between two variables in which one variable appears to change in response to the other. A **correlation coefficient** provides insight into the strength and type of the relationship between the variables.

○ **Correlation Coefficient (r):** Measures any potential linear relationship between the two variables being studied. They are used to assign a numerical value to the strength of the relationship between two variables. It has **two primary aspects**: directionality and magnitude. Data is represented on a graph called a scatter plot or in a table called a correlation matrix.

Table 13 - 2: Directionality & magnitude

Directionality	Indicates how correlated variables move with one another.	**Positive correlation**: when one variable decreases, the other also decreases, or vice versa. **Negative correlation**: when one variable decreases, the other *increases,* or vice versa.
Magnitude	Indicates the strength of the relationship between the two variables.	○ When **r is 1**: there is a strong **positive** association or movement in the same direction. ○ When **r is -1**: strong **negative** relationship, or a reverse direction of movement. ○ The closer the value is to **1 or -1**, the stronger the correlation, while a value of 0 means **no correlation** between the two variables.

Scatter Plot: A graph used to plot data points from variables and calculate the correlation coefficient. Data points that fall closely together are called **clusters**, and data points that fall outside the cluster are called **outliers**. In the example shown, there are two outliers.

There are three different types of scatter plots based on the positioning of the data points: positive correlation, negative correlation, and no correlation.

● **Positive correlation** refers to a graph where the data points are in an upward trending pattern from left to right. A positive correlation scatter plot will indicate that as x increases, y increases too.

https://study.com/skill/learn/how-to-identify-out-liers-clustering-in-scatter-plots-explanation.html

● **Negative correlation** refers to a graph where the data points show a downward trend from left to right. This pattern will indicate that as x increases, y will decrease.
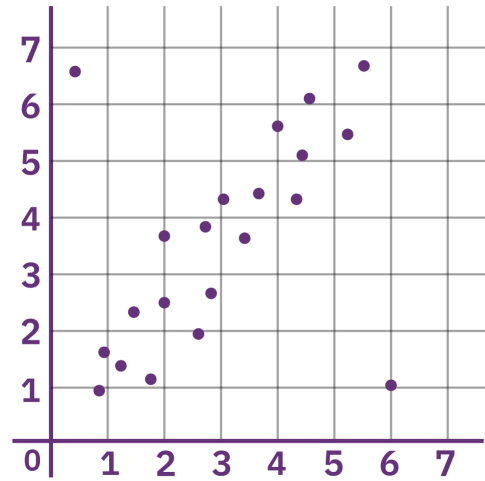
- **No correlation**: This refers to a graph showing no trend or pattern and can't be confirmed as either positive or negative.

Positive Correlation | **Negative Correlation** | **No Correlation**
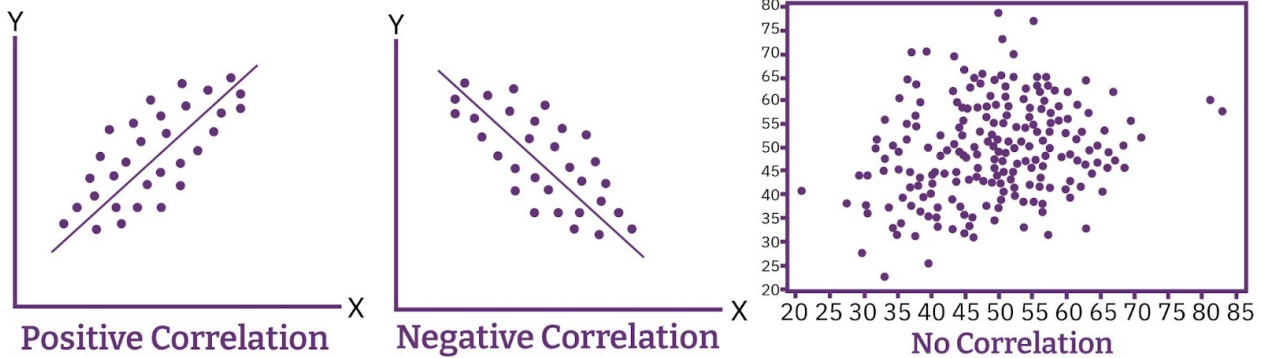
Correlation matrix (or correlation table)**:** A statistical tool used to measure the relationships between variables.

	Variable A	Variable B	Variable C
Variable A	1	0.09	0.97
Variable B	0.09	1	0.02
Variable C	0.97	0.02	1

Source: Study.com

There are several **key elements** to understanding how to read a correlation table:

- The left column and top row of the table list the variables tested in the study.

- The values in the table represent the **degree** of correlation between the variables listed.

The interpretation of a correlation is limited because it only considers linear relationships. This means it cannot be proven for certain that there is a **cause-and-effect relationship** between the two variables. A cause-and-effect relationship is when one thing results in another. For example, smoking is the cause of many types of cancer. Smoking is the cause, and cancer is the effect. However, **correlation does not imply causation**. For example, there may be a positive correlation between watching violent movies and levels of aggression. This does not mean that watching violent movies *causes* aggression. It could mean that persons with higher levels of aggression prefer to watch violent movies. There could also be an unaccounted-for third variable, called an **extraneous variable** or **confounding variable**, that could impact the studied variables. Let's say a researcher finds a positive correlation between the number of high school graduates and pizza consumption in the United States. Does the increase in high school graduates cause people to eat more pizza? Of course not. A third variable could be the cause. The population is increasing, so the number of high school graduates is also increasing. This increasing population also means that pizza consumption has increased. If a confounding variable affects research

results, it jeopardizes **internal validity**, which refers to the accuracy of the relationship between observed variables in a research study.

Example

> *A study is done to find the relationship between how much is eaten for breakfast (X) and energy levels (Y) throughout the day. All participants are given the same food for breakfast but are allowed to eat as much as they desire. After the data is reviewed, it is determined there is no correlation between how much someone eats for breakfast and energy levels throughout the day.*

> *However, what was not taken into consideration are several extraneous/confounding variables (Q), such as the amount of sleep each individual had the night before, if each individual ate dinner the night before, etc. Each of these "Q" variables would distort the* accuracy of the relationship between the observed variables *of how much food was consumed for breakfast and energy levels throughout the day.*

Secondary Data Analysis

Secondary data analysis is the process of using existing data collected by someone else for a different purpose to conduct new research or gain additional insights. Secondary data can be vitally important and can be a more cost-effective research approach.

Secondary data is considered nonreactive research. **Nonreactive research** does not involve direct interaction with individuals and does not impact how subjects behave. Using available data can have disadvantages, such as data accessibility and reliability.

Meta-analysis is the analysis of published studies and the combination of the results of multiple studies to explain a particular phenomenon or draw conclusions. The goal of meta-analysis is to increase the statistical power of a data set by increasing the sample size, thus improving generalizability and reducing sampling bias.

After analysis, researchers **report the results of their findings** to expand on current knowledge or present new knowledge that other researchers may build on in future studies. Before any work by licensed sociologists can be considered valid, it must be processed through peer review. The work is examined by and discussed with other sociologists and experts in the area regarding its findings and research methods.

Table 14 - 2: Limitations of scientific research

Human Behavior	Human Response	Social Patterns	Sociological Bias
Human behavior is too complex to allow sociologists to precisely predict individual actions.	Humans respond to their surroundings & even the researcher's presence can affect the behaviors being studied.	Social patterns vary between cultures, religious views, locations, etc.	Sociologists are part of the social world they study, so strictly unbiased evaluations of behaviors can be challenging to obtain.

C. Ethnography

Ethnography is a research method that seeks to understand social and **cultural phenomena** embedded in a region's particular social and cultural context. It focuses on the **cultural traits** of society and how they interact and evolve over time, taking into account the influences of migration and cultural contact. Researchers conduct detailed research on different aspects of a **culture** and its people through participant observation, interviews with local people, and analysis of artifacts and other evidence. The results of an ethnographic study can help people understand how cultures and societies function and how changes in one region can affect another. Understanding the **cultural differences** between groups and how they interact can lead to greater mutual understanding, helping people develop more positive relationships and move towards greater harmony. An ethnographic study follows steps similar to those of traditional research studies. However, ethnographers must also consider the location of the study as well as access to the location.

Steps in the Ethnography Research Approach

| Formulate a research question | Determining the location(s) for the research study | Developing a research design | Acquiring permissions & accessibility | Data Collection | Data Analysis |
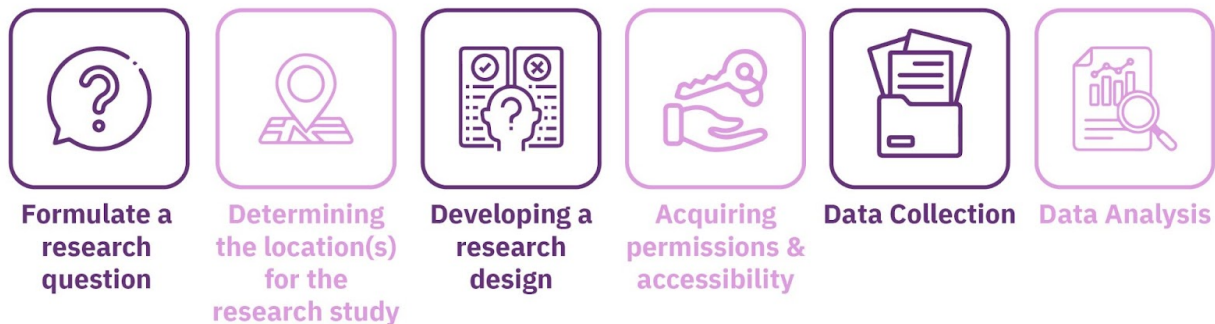
Formulating Research Questions

The ethnographer will research the geographical and **physical environment** where the study group is located, and identify key questions to answer. The research may focus on the group's sustainability, human activity, or more specific questions, such as food security. The ethnographer may also research the culture, beliefs, and values of the group they are studying. This includes identifying how the group interacts with their natural and built environment, as well as their relationships with each other and other cultures. They will also collect data on the **economic practices** within the **community**. The data collected prior to the study will guide the researcher in formulating a focused and specific research question to guide the process of the study.

The research questions must be relevant, unbiased, and unambiguous to get accurate results.

- **Unbiased questions** are worded in a way that does not lead the respondent in one direction.
  - **Biased**: "How repulsive is it that so much trash is being burned nearby?"

  - **Unbiased**: "Is air quality affecting your health?"

- **Unambiguous questions** are valuable to the study as they can be open-ended but answerable.

- ○ **Ambiguous**: "What colors evoke emotions?"

- ○ **Unambiguous**: "How does the color blue make you feel?"

Determining the Location(s) for the Research Study

Some variables that affect the researcher's choice of location include accessibility, population size and diversity, cultural context, participant availability, cost and resources, opportunities for comparison, existing knowledge and expertise, and potential limitations. A researcher may choose more than one location if the research question warrants it.

Table 15 - 2: Factors that determine the location of a sociological research study

Accessibility	Accessibility to the study location is important. If the study requires movement between locations, a more easily accessible location is favored.
Population Size & Diversity	A larger population can provide more data points & a more diverse population can expose a wide range of behaviors & perspectives.
Cultural Context	The researcher must consider the cultural context of the chosen location to ensure that it accurately reflects the behavior & perspectives to be studied.
Participant Availability	Verifying if there are potential participants in the chosen location & if they are available to participate in the study.
Cost & Resources	Budget must be taken into consideration with regard to the cost of travel to the chosen location, equipment, and supplies.
Opportunities for Comparison	This could be comparing different populations in different locations or different behaviors within the same location.
Existing Knowledge & Expertise	Researchers must consider the existing knowledge & expertise of those living in the chosen location. Local knowledge & experience can provide valuable insights into the cultural context.
Potential Limitations	The researcher must consider any potential limitations that could be present in the chosen location. These can include physical barriers, language barriers, or the presence of sensitive topics.

Developing a Research Design

After developing a research question, the next step is to determine data collection methods. Possible designs are discussed extensively in the previous section.

Acquiring Permissions & Accessibility

It can be difficult to conduct research in **closed-access environments**, such as an isolated village in a rainforest. To reach the village, the researcher must first overcome any geographical obstacles. Meanwhile, **open-access environments** are more permissive, such as a group of students in a university setting.

Data Collection

There are two main ways to collect data in ethnography: **relational and digital**.

- **Relational Ethnography** includes data collected through in-person interactions with members of the ethnic group being studied. This involves physically going to the location where the group lives to gain a better understanding of their culture and way of life.

- **Digital Ethnography** is an innovative field in which researchers study a particular ethnic group without observing them. In this type of research, the researcher relies on second and even third-hand information others have collected to compile knowledge about the group.

There are a variety of relational and digital ethnographic research methods that can be used to collect data. The most appropriate method(s) should be selected based on the type of access and interaction required.

Table 16 - 2: Methods of data collection for ethnographic research

Field observation	Physically entering the study subjects' environment, although some groups may only exist in digital environments, such as online poker players	Location is selected as the environment where the group typically lives or congregates
Focus groups	Asking a set of carefully prepared questions to a group of participants generally in one room or online where they can see and hear each other	Participants are typically selected for their familiarity with some aspects of the research topic or their ethnographic traits
Reading reports	Identifying relevant studies to understand a population virtually	Selected reports should meet reliability criteria
Culling existing data resources	Applying new questions to existing databases or datasets	Selected data should meet reliability criteria

Source: Study.com

Analyzing and Presenting Data

After the data is collected, it must be organized, synthesized, and analyzed. This is similar to other research studies.

D. Validity and Reliability - Assessing the Quality of Research

The concepts of **reliability** and **validity** are used to evaluate the quality of research. They show how well a methodology or test gauges something. Reliability and validity are closely related, but they mean different things.

- **Reliability** refers to the consistency of a measure.
  - If the same results can be achieved repeatedly using the same methods under the same conditions, the measurement is considered reliable.
  - An example of reliability would be a survey measure that consistently results in similar scores when conducted multiple times over some time.

- **Validity** refers to how well the methodology or test measures what it is intended to measure.
  - If research has **high validity**, it produces results corresponding to real properties, characteristics, and variations in the physical or social world. A method that is not reliable is likely not valid.
  - Consider a survey measuring customer satisfaction with a product. To assess the validity of the survey, researchers would need to analyze if the questions being asked accurately capture customer opinion on the product and if the results are consistent with other methods for measuring customer satisfaction.

Although reliability is crucial, it does not necessarily imply validity. A test may be reliable but not accurately reflect the real situation. The validity of research is more difficult to assess than reliability, but it is more important. The methods used to collect data must be valid to obtain useful results, measuring what the research claims to measure. This validates the researcher's discussion of the data and the conclusions they draw.

Table 17 - 2: Comparisons between reliability and validity

	Reliability	Validity
What is it? What does it tell us?	The extent to which the results of a study can be replicated when the research is repeated under the same conditions is known as its **reproducibility**.	To what extent do the results accurately measure what they are supposed to measure?
How do we assess it?	Consistency of results across time, different observers, and test parts can be checked to ensure validity.	The study results correspond to established theories and other measures of the same concept.

How do they relate?	Although a reliable measurement may be consistent, it does not necessarily mean it is accurate (valid).	When a measurement is considered valid, it is generally reliable.

Types of Reliability

Different types of reliability can be obtained through various statistical methods.

Table 18 - 2: Types of statistical methods

Types	What does it assess?
Split-Half Method	Involves dividing the study samples into two sets, measuring the variables for each set & then comparing the results. If researchers have scores from 100 college students, they can use the split-half method to divide the scores into two groups of 50 and compare them. The results from each group would be expected to be similar.
Test-Retest Method	Used to determine whether the results of a study are consistent over time. When researchers anticipate that measurement will stay consistent over time, it can be beneficial to take measurements of the same group at different points in time & compare the results of the two studies.
Internal Consistency Reliability	Measures how well multiple items that are trying to measure the same variable agree with each other. There should be a positive correlation between the answers to questions on an assessment intended to measure intelligence.
Reliability Coefficient	A useful tool for assessing the reliability of measurements in different contexts. Different contexts may include studies completed at different points in time or by another research team.

Types of Validity

The three main types of evidence that can be used to estimate measurement validity are expert judgment, statistical methods, and scientific methods. For instance, to determine whether a cause-and-effect relationship is valid, one must also consider **internal validity** (the design of the experiment) and **external validity** (the generalizability of the results).

Table 19 - 2: Types of validity

Internal Validity	Measures the extent to which the observed results can be attributed to the specific causal factors under investigation. In other words, it assesses whether the cause-and-effect relationship determined by a study is true & that there isn't another rationalization for the result.
External Validity	The external validity of a study refers to the extent to which its results can be generalized to other populations or settings.
Ecological Validity	The ecological validity of a study indicates how well its results can be generalized to real-world settings beyond the narrow context of the study itself.
Construct Validity	The measure complies with existing theory and understanding of the measured concept.
Content Validity	The measurement covers all aspects of the concept.
Criterion Validity	The degree to which the measure reflects other accurate measures of the same concept.

E. Ethical Concerns in Sociological Research

To maintain ethical standards in a research study, sociologists use the American Sociological Association's Code of Ethics. The **code of ethics** lists formal guidelines researchers must use when conducting sociological research. It includes instructions for filing, investigating, and resolving complaints about unethical conduct. Researchers should ensure they are not crossing ethical boundaries with the subjects they use for their studies.

Researchers are required to inform participants of the purpose, potential costs or risks, and the benefits of a study. Participants can then make a voluntary and well-informed decision to participate in the study. This is called **informed consent**. Protecting participants' privacy in a research study is one of the primary responsibilities of the researcher. Researchers are not allowed to release confidential information, even to authorities, unless a court order exists.

Any **financial support** that researchers receive must be made public. Financial assistance is only accepted by researchers when there is no chance of a conflict of interest and no chance of the financial supporter influencing the study results.

Max Weber shared another ethical concern. He believed that personal values could distort the framework for disclosing research results. He thought that sociologists should establish **value-neutrality**, which is the practice of remaining impartial, without bias or judgment, during a study and publishing results. Researchers must disclose all their research findings and not omit information or alter the data. Some sociologists believe it is impossible to put aside their personal biases and maintain objectivity.

Additional principles of ethical concerns:

- Professional competence
- Integrity
- Professional & scientific responsibility
- Respect for people's rights, dignity, and diversity
- Social responsibility
- Human rights (Code of Ethics)

Chapter 2: Review Questions

1. Caroline is studying crime. She knows her neighborhood is considered a high-crime area. She decides to further research what 'crime' means to her neighbors and why law enforcement and city officials have labeled the area 'high crime.' Caroline is using:

    A. The critical method
    B. The interpretive method
    C. The conflict perspective
    D. The interactionism perspective
    E. The positivist perspective

2. The steps of the scientific method include: Asking a question, _____, Forming a hypothesis, Testing the hypothesis and collecting data, Analyzing data, and _____.

    A. Survey of peers for interest; Background research
    B. Check for existing experiments; Conclusion
    C. Researching existing sources; Reporting
    D. Reporting; Survey of peers for interest
    E. Do an online survey; Review the literature

3. This is a type of research that provides strong evidence for cause-and-effect relationships.

    A. Experimental research
    B. Quasi-research
    C. Correlational research
    D. Negative research
    E. Exploratory research

4. When someone incorrectly believes he or she is receiving real treatment and reports an improvement in his or her condition, it is called _____.

    A. Control group
    B. Hallucination
    C. Stimulus
    D. Halo effect
    E. Placebo effect

5. Ralph wants to increase the external validity of the data he is collecting on the behavior of nurses, so he decides to sit near the nurses' desks and record what he sees and hears without interfering. Which of the following best describes the method Ralph is using to increase external validity?

    A. Naturalistic observation
    B. Aggregation
    C. Experiment
    D. Non-Reaction
    E. Survey

6. **Conducting ethnographic research often involves ____.**

   A. Assuming the role of expert
   B. Conducting in-depth interviews
   C. Comparing the assessment scores of participants
   D. Carrying out brief quizzes
   E. Analyzing participants only through literature about them without any interaction

7. **Validity is defined as ____.**

   A. The extent to which an assessment accurately measures the school's quality of instruction.
   B. The extent to which an assessment accurately measures student learning.
   C. The extent to which a teacher accurately measures student learning.
   D. The extent to which an assessment accurately measures what it is intended to measure.
   E. The extent to which an assessment predicts future economic trends.

8. **Which of the following reliability coefficients is used to show how well different items in a test measure the same construct?**

   A. Split-half reliability
   B. Test-retest reliability
   C. Internal consistency
   D. Inter-rater reliability
   E. External validity

9. Which of the charts shows a **negative** relationship between two variables?

    A. A and C
    B. B and C
    C. A only
    D. B only
    E. C only
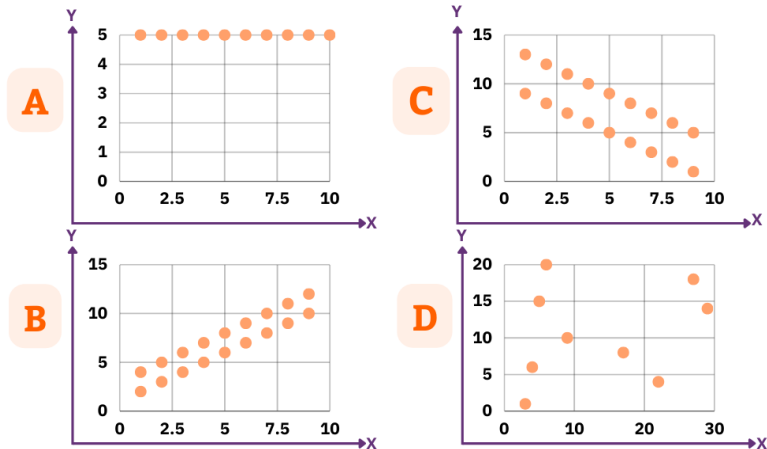
10. Which of the charts shows a **positive** relationship between two variables?

    A. A and C
    B. B and C
    C. A only
    D. B only
    E. C only

Chapter 3: Culture

Overview

In this chapter, we will discuss the concept of culture and its various associated aspects, including material and non-material culture and theoretical approaches. The chapter will further explore the structural-functional, social conflict, and sociobiology theories and discuss ideal culture, real culture, ethnocentrism, and cultural relativism.

Learning Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Understand the various definitions of culture and be able to differentiate between material and non-material culture.
- Describe the major theoretical approaches to the study of culture, including structural-functionalism, social conflict theory, and sociobiology.
- Identify the various components of culture, such as values and beliefs, norms, symbols and languages, and rituals.
- Analyze the multifaceted concept of culture, including ethnocentrism and cultural relativism.
- Explain how innovation and diffusion contribute to the process of globalization.

A. What is Culture?

All human communities have culture, which includes the language used, values, beliefs, norms, and items handed down from generation to generation. Culture is universally experienced by all human communities, even though the specifics can vary from one societal group to another. This is because every society creates a set of learned, common ways to perceive and engage in the world.

Society vs. Culture	
Society refers to a group of individuals who interact and live together in a specific geographical area, sharing social institutions, norms, and organizations. It is a collective of people with established structures and roles.	Culture, on the other hand, encompasses the shared beliefs, values, customs, traditions, language, and behaviors of a group within a society. It represents the unique way of life and the shared identity of a particular group of people.

In summary, society is the group of people, while culture is the shared identity and way of life that characterizes that group. Society provides the structure, while culture provides the meaning and practices within that structure. **Material culture** and **nonmaterial culture** are the two subcategories of culture.

Table 20 - 3: Material culture and nonmaterial culture

Culture Subcategory	Description	Visual Example
Material Culture	**Objects & items in a culture that surround people.** Includes architecture, consumption, creation, & trade of different objects, including but not limited to food, clothing & art. Consists of **tangible objects that can be seen and handled**.	
Nonmaterial Culture	**Thoughts, ideas, beliefs, & norms within a culture**. Consists of abstract ideas that are experienced within the culture's behaviors & beliefs, such as traditions, mannerisms, values, and language.	

Cultural universals are patterns or characteristics shared by all societies. Some activities, such as courtship, marriage, funerals, games, and family units, are universal among cultures and people. For example, family units worldwide typically consist of parents and children regardless of the country or culture. Of course, some mild differences occur within cultural universals. For instance, in Asian cultures, it is common to find many generations living in the same household; parents, grandparents, and children will all live in the same home. In the United States, it is customary for children to leave their parents' homes, find their own place to live, get married, have a job, and start a family.

Although many human activities are universal, there is no universally accepted way of doing them. Anthropologist **George Murdock** believed that cultural universals were based on the need for human survival, concluding that all social groups have rituals related to courting, cooking, marriage, funerals, games, legislation, music, incest taboos, and potty training. Even so, specific customs differ from one group to another. For example, while the human activity of disposing of the dead is universal, the exact method of doing so is decidedly not universal.

B. Cultural Analysis: Theoretical Approaches

The study of culture represents a broad and complex area of inquiry. Sociologists do not agree on any one approach to studying culture. The most common theoretical approaches are **structural-functional theory**, **social conflict theory**, and **sociobiology**.

Structural-Functional Theory

The structural-functional theory suggests that culture consists of a complex set of components that foster a sense of unity and belonging among members of society. The components— e.g., social norms, language, and institutions—all contribute to the overall smooth functioning of the society.

Criticism of Structural-Functional Theory

The structural-functional theory has been criticized for its tendency to view culture as static and unchanging, overlooking power disparities and ignoring diversity and the potential for cultural evolution. Additionally, this approach to culture reduces complex human behavior to categories and abstract categories; it fails to recognize cultures as being composed of various subcultures and does not adequately address issues of inequality or marginalization.

Social Conflict Theory

The social conflict theory focuses on power differences and inequalities between individuals and groups. According to this perspective, cultural analysis is concerned with understanding how certain groups have access to resources and privileges that others do not and how this access can create conflicts between social groups.

Criticism of Social Conflict Theory

Social conflict theory has been critiqued for its focus on class oppression and its neglect of other forms of oppression, such as gender, race, and sexual orientation. Additionally, it fails to consider power dynamics based on social standing and material resources and suggests that changes in societal structure can only be achieved through overthrowing authorities through violent upheaval. There has been criticism that this approach disregards other forms of social change that can be achieved through collaborative and peaceful efforts. Lastly, this theory emphasizes macro-structural analysis and fails to address individual behavior accurately.

Sociobiology

Sociobiologists believe that some cultural behaviors have been perpetuated and even changed over time due to the innate biological drives of humans that prioritize survival and reproduction. The sociobiology theory proposes that culture is greatly affected by and socially constructed around human biology. Based on evolutionary psychology, this view has been seen as contentious by some sociologists as it suggests that certain aspects of culture, such as values and behavioral norms, are being created because of our human biology.

Example

> *Sociobiology theory discounts other factors and attributes stereotyped gender behavior to nature rather than nurture. This theory supports the idea of cultural universals, much like structural-functional theory does. For example, the norm of avoiding incest is found in virtually every human society - not just American culture. Incest increases the likelihood of genetic disorders and reduces the genetic diversity within a population. Hence, avoiding incest increases reproductive success and survival.*

Criticism of Sociobiology Theory

Some sociologists have accused sociobiology of biological determinism, reductionism, and free will denial. Sociobiology has been further criticized for its evolutionary justification of certain behavioral practices that have come to be seen as oppressive to certain individuals or groups, such as sexism and racism. It is argued that sociobiology fails to consider the complex interplay of social, cultural, and biological factors that can lead to certain behaviors.

C. Cultural Subsets

A cultural subset is a group or subgroup within a particular culture that shares a common belief, identity, or behavior.

Table 21 - 3: Cultural subsets

High culture	Popular culture	Subculture	Countercultures
Cultural products & activities **associated with wealthy & educated populations** within a society. Includes literature, music, fine arts, theater, & the visual arts.	Also known as **pop culture**, the collection of ideas, attitudes, & trends that are widely accepted by a large segment of society. Provides common interests & shared experiences among people of various backgrounds. Can include fashion & music trends, language, television shows, video games, & various other forms of entertainment.	Smaller cultural group within a large cultural group or the **dominant culture**. Individuals in **subcultures** are still members of the larger broader culture but share their identity with the smaller group or subculture. Motorcycle clubs in the United States are one type of subculture.	Types of subcultures that typically **reject some of the larger culture's norms & values**. Like subcultures, **countercultures** usually run relatively smoothly under the central primary culture. Countercultures may create their own set of rules & guidelines to live by. The Hippie Movement of the 1960s expressed a countercultural lifestyle that embraced liberal values, communal living, environmental activism, bioregionalism, & exploration of spirituality.

D. Perceptions of Culture

Ideal Culture & Real Culture

Ideal culture refers to the beliefs, values, and practices that a group claims to live by. It is the theoretical or aspirational beliefs that the group values, but they are not necessarily practiced. In an ideal culture, individuals can trust and rely on each other.

Real culture is the actual behavior a group lives by, including beliefs, values, and practices that are accepted and seen by group members. The reality is that dishonesty and corruption are pervasive in society.

Ethnocentrism & Cultural Relativism

It is believed that **cultural universals** are less prominent than **cultural differences**. Let's take a look at the notion of the morning cup of coffee. Remember being in high school and seeing the teacher enter the classroom first thing in the morning with a cup of hot coffee? One might think, "No. I do not." That is because not all cultures enjoy a cup of coffee in the mornings. Teachers in England may prefer a hot cup of Earl Grey tea, while in Tibet, it is common for early risers to drink yak butter tea. Accordingly, culture provides **societal assumptions**. We assume that our own culture is normal or natural. It penetrates our lives so profoundly that we take it for granted and provides the lens through which we perceive and evaluate things. It offers us implicit guidelines that outline what we should do and a moral imperative that clarifies what we perceive as good or wrong. Culture is not natural; however, it is learned.

The internalization of culture often results in **ethnocentrism**, first described by **William Graham Sumner** (1840–1910). Ethnocentrism is when persons make their own culture and ethnicity the "center" from which all others are judged. This means that the behaviors, beliefs, and practices of all others will be compared to one's own culture or ethnicity. It is a natural phenomenon that all cultures and persons experience since being raised in one's own culture will be what one will come to understand as "normal." As a result, all other cultures one is exposed to later will be compared to the first culture one was raised in, causing all others to be seen as "different."
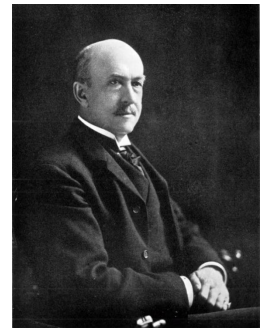
Ethnocentrism has both negative and positive effects. When comparing others to oneself, there is a natural propensity to assume that one's own beliefs are correct and all the others that are different must be the ones that are "wrong." This can cause persons and cultures to exclude, reject, and treat with less value all others who are not a part of their culture or belief system. If one does not see any value in other cultures, one may naturally be less likely to be open to differences, learn other ideas, and change one's beliefs.

Positive effects may include persons having a sense of connection to all the others of the same system of beliefs and values. If one is surrounded by people that one feels agree with them and will be supportive of them, it can create a sense of safety and solidarity. One may develop trust that if something were to

happen, everyone would come together and support each other because they are all the same. It could also have the effect of feeling secure in knowing what one is to do or how one should behave.

Culture shock occurs when someone experiences disorientation and frustration when confronted with a new culture. Since ethnocentrism can sometimes be extreme, culture shock is bound to occur for some people. Culture shock tends to happen when people are not expecting a cultural difference. Initially, the person may be excited about experiencing something new while visiting a different country. Still, they may suddenly feel "shock," disorientation, or frustration when something different occurs. Imagine a person who is going to visit a friend in Japan. This person is excited about visiting a new country but is asked to remove shoes upon entering their friend's home. Suddenly, this person feels shock or discomfort because this is not their normal behavior.

Cultural relativism is the practice of understanding a culture on its terms without assessing its elements as any better or worse than one's own culture. Cultural relativism requires one to minimize cultural biases and remain open to experiences that run counter to their own. Cultural relativism can help to foster an appreciation for other ways of life.

E. Elements of Culture

Values and Beliefs

Values are the guiding principles of a culture or group. Values shape the traditions and customs of a community and are passed down from generation to generation. Values typically shape and influence the attitudes, behaviors, and decision-making of individuals within the group. Values often depict ideal culture or the standards society would like to embrace and accept.

It is important to consider that the values of one country are not necessarily universal. Individualist nations value independence and individual needs and desires. These core values are associated with European history. In **collectivist** nations, interdependence is valued over independence, and group goals are valued over individual needs and desires. Collectivist nations tend to be linked to values developed in Asia.

Values are not static; they change between groups and vary from culture to culture. For example, in many traditional societies, values such as respect for elders, a strong work ethic, and modesty are considered important virtues. While these values may remain relatively stable for a long time, they may evolve and change in less traditional societies as people reconsider long-held beliefs in light of modern circumstances. In this context, values such as the importance of individual freedom, self-expression, and diversity may become more prominent.

Beliefs are attitudes, ideas, and norms shared among members of a particular culture. They are established through a process of socialization and may include religious, political, and moral beliefs. People acquire shared meanings and understandings of their environment, relationships, and the world through cultural beliefs.

Social control is a way to promote adherence to cultural norms. When people conform, they usually receive a reward or an advantage. When students do well and receive good grades, they may receive praise from their teachers and parents. On the other hand, there are consequences for people who do not conform. When someone breaks the law, they may be punished.

Norms

Norms are standards of social behavior or the act of behaving according to what society defines as good, right, and essential. Most members of society adhere to norms. Norms may be classified as formal or informal.

Table 22 - 3: Formal and informal norms

Formal Norms	Informal Norms
Established, **written rules that are strictly enforced**, but they are not limited to written laws. An example would be not cutting to the front of a checkout line in a store.	**Casual behaviors that are generally and widely accepted**. A parent can teach these directly, such as a mother teaching her child to kiss their elderly relative. Being late is unacceptable and is not expressly taught as a social norm.

Norms may also be classified as **folkways** or **mores**. Folkways are considered norms without any moral underpinnings. They adhere to acceptable cultural norms in everyday interactions but are not connected to moral or ethical issues. Folkways vary from culture to culture.

Mores **(pronounced "mor-ays"** môrˈāz-ēz**)** are moral norms that embody a group's ethical views and principles. For example, stealing is considered wrong in most societies and can be punished by law (formal norm). However, mores are more likely to be judged by public sentiment (informal norms). When a person violates mores, there is the possibility that others in the community will shame them. For instance, if a person violates the mores of the Amish Community, they may be shunned from their community and not allowed to return.

Symbols and Languages

Verbal and nonverbal communication are important aspects of language and culture. **Verbal communication** consists of spoken or written words and symbols. Language is one type of verbal communication. **Nonverbal communication** includes unspoken words such as gestures, facial expressions, and other body language such as posture.

Nonmaterial culture is sometimes referred to as **symbolic culture** by sociologists. They include gestures, language, values, norms, sanctions, folkways, mores, and taboos.

- **Gestures** include subtle behaviors and movements that include postures, facial expressions, waving, pointing, and other body language. Gestures can convey emotion as well as foster interpersonal relationships. Gestures can be a powerful tool for communicating and

understanding one another. Although meanings differ from culture to culture, people in every culture use gestures. Confusion or offense can result from misunderstandings over the meaning or misuse of a gesture. For example, the "thumbs-up" sign in the United States means everything is going well, but the "thumbs-up" sign in Iran is considered an insult.

- **Language** is an essential symbolic system used to communicate and transmit culture. **Cultural transmission** is how culture is passed (*"transmitted"*) from one person to another or from one generation to the next. Within most languages, a system of symbols is used for written communication. Each language has a specific alphabet, either composed of letters or symbols.

Benjamin Whorf, an American linguist, and **Edward Sapir**, an American anthropologist, suggested that language and thinking patterns are directly connected. After researching numerous languages and their speakers, Sapir and Whorf formulated the **Sapir-Whorf hypothesis**. The Sapir-Whorf hypothesis proposes **two key points**:

1. The differences in language structure correlate to the differences in the thinking of the people who speak them.

2. Language structure has a significant impact on the speaker's viewpoint.

Essentially, the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis states that language expresses and shapes our thinking and perception because we are taught not only words but also a particular way of thinking and perceiving language. Therefore, the Sapir–Whorf hypothesis holds that people perceive the world through the cultural lens of language.

Rituals

Rituals play a critical role in shaping the identities of cultures and can be both sacred and significant to the culture. Ranging from modern holidays to more traditional activities such as attending Sunday service, rituals play an important role in upholding the structure of culture and ensuring compliance with its norms. Rituals are constantly changing and adapting to different cultures and periods of history. For example, a gender reveal at a baby shower would be seen as exciting and celebratory in some cultures, but it is more of a **traditional custom** in others.

F. Innovation: Discovery and Invention in Cultures

Innovation is the act or process of introducing a new object or concept to society. **Discoveries**, on the other hand, happen when someone finds something new or unexpected that already exists. More recently, the innovation of smartphones has changed how people live. Society has changed into a fast-paced culture with everything available at the touch of our fingertips. Innovation and discoveries can significantly impact culture as societies change and adapt to new information and ideas.
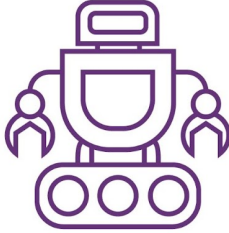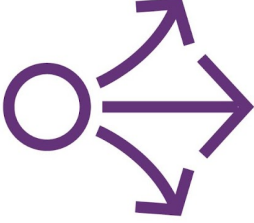
Since not all parts of culture change at the same pace, a "**cultural lag**" can occur. Coined by **William Ogburn**, cultural lag occurs when material culture changes faster than changes in nonmaterial

culture, disrupting the cultural system. Cultural lag is essentially tied to the time that elapses between introducing a new item or material culture and its acceptance as a part of the nonmaterial culture.

G. Diffusion and Globalization

Technology is central to a group's material culture and sets the framework for nonmaterial culture, influencing how people think and relate to one another. Technological changes are set into motion through **three processes**:

Discovery	Invention	Diffusion
The process of finding or learning about something new, such as vaccines, penicillin, and microwaves	Creating something new out of existing cultural materials. Examples include the smartphones & automobile.	Spreading discoveries, inventions & ideas from one society to another, extending the knowledge far beyond its origin.

Diffusion happens via media, immigration, tourism, and even war. **Globalization**, the integration of international trade and finance markets, allows cultural ideas to travel from one nation to another. When globalization integrates different markets, diffusion conducts a similar process by integrating international cultures. Some consider the process of culture moving between nations through globalization as **cultural imperialism** — the process by which a dominant culture permeates other countries.

The United States is one of the most culturally diverse industrial nations. **Multiculturalism** intends to support the inherent value of different and diverse cultures. Some proponents of multiculturalism suggest immigrants should maintain links to aspects of their original culture—such as language, cultural beliefs, traditions, and religion—while also integrating into a new culture. In contrast, some suggest that this practice keeps groups from adapting to the dominant culture. **Assimilation** is the process by which immigrants adapt to the patterns of the dominant culture. If an immigrant group completely abandons its previous culture, it will likely experience rapid assimilation.

Chapter 3: Review Questions

1. **What is material culture?**

   A. The physical items produced by a culture.
   B. The same thing as high culture.
   C. A subculture that is focused on building materials.
   D. A type of culture as seen through intangible ideas and beliefs.
   E. The cultural hierarchy within a society.

2. **What is a subculture?**

   A. A culture that opposes another culture.
   B. Another term for low culture; the culture produced by everyday people interacting in society.
   C. Symbols and patterns of behavior that develop among a specific group within a larger culture.
   D. The dominant, primary culture of a society that is experienced by the majority of people.
   E. A culture that has been completely assimilated into the dominant culture.

3. **In Society X, people lie and cheat every day; crimes are committed on a regular basis, and some people are treated unfairly sometimes based on things they cannot control. What type of culture is Society X demonstrating?**

   A. An intangible culture
   B. An ideal culture
   C. A tangible culture
   D. A real culture
   E. A utopian culture

4. **Choose the BEST listed definition of ethnocentrism:**

   A. Ignoring ethnicity whenever conducting business.
   B. Think about your ethnicity before you take any action.
   C. Assuming that your culture is better than all other cultures.
   D. Liking your own culture.
   E. Embracing and appreciating the diversity of all cultures equally.

5. **Which of the following provides the best definition of cultural relativism?**

   A. Some cultural norms are superior to others, depending on the historical moment.
   B. Cultures are ranked hierarchically, relative to one another, depending on the society's beliefs.
   C. In order to understand another culture, you must adopt all of its practices, even if you find them inferior.
   D. Cultural practices need to be understood in the context of a particular culture, and we should not judge them.
   E. Cultural relativism implies that all cultural practices are universally applicable and should be adopted by every society.

6. _____ are a society's most deeply held beliefs, and violating them might also be violating _____.

    A. Laws; taboos
    B. Norms; customs
    C. Taboos; laws
    D. Laws; mores
    E. Mores; laws

7. **How is multiculturalism defined?**

    A. Allowing many individual cultures to exist within one country.
    B. The idea that there are many distinct cultures around the world.
    C. Weaving many cultures into one.
    D. Having distinct cultures in every nation.
    E. Forcing all cultures to conform to a single, dominant culture within a nation.

8. **What is cultural lag?**

    A. The phenomenon that occurs when changes in the culture are met with open arms and enthusiasm.
    B. The process of altering the structure of the cultural hierarchy.
    C. The phenomenon that occurs when changes in material culture occur before or at a faster rate than changes in non-material culture.
    D. The process of one culture gaining ideas and technologies from another.
    E. The rapid assimilation of cultural practices across different societies.

9. **The export of Western values to other cultures, whether consciously or unconsciously, is known as which of the following?**

    A. Multinationalism
    B. Globalization
    C. Sedentarism
    D. Cultural relativism
    E. Cultural imperialism

10. **Which of the following is an example of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis?**

    A. The sexist language that our society uses affects how we think about women.
    B. Our values influence how we think about language.
    C. Our culture influences our opinions about marriage.
    D. All of the options are correct.
    E. Only A and C.

Chapter 4: Society and Social Interaction

Overview

This chapter explores the various types of societies, as well as the theoretical perspectives of society, including Emile Durkheim's functionalism, Karl Marx's conflict theory, and Max Weber's symbolic interactionism. It also looks at social constructions of reality and the concept of status and role within sociological contexts. These topics help to explain how sociological principles shape our understanding of the world and influence our behavior and interactions.

Learning Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Discuss the different types of societies and how they interact with one another.
- Explain the various theories of society and its structure, such as Durkheim's functionalism, Marx's conflict theory, and Weber's symbolic interactionism.
- Understand how social constructions of reality shape and influence our interactions with others.
- Describe and analyze the different statuses and roles within society and how they can shape individual actions and responses.

A. Types of Societies

Sociologist **Gerhard Lenski** defined society in terms of technological complexity. As discussed in Chapter 3, when society advances, the use of technology advances as well. There are three main types of society, which include a variety of forms within each type—**early** (hunter-gatherer and pastoral societies), **developing** (horticultural, agricultural, or feudal societies), and **advanced** (industrial and post-industrial societies).

Table 23 - 4: Types of societies

Pre-Industrial These societies came before the evolution of large machinery to help with mass production.	
Hunter-gatherers	- Existed since the beginning of human life. - Men typically hunt large game for food, while women and children gather edible plants; **nomadic** and strongly dependent on the environment.

Pastoral societies	- Began around 12,000 years ago. **Semi-sedentary**: they move less frequently compared to hunter-gatherers. **Animal herders** who live off of the resources derived from their animals. - Do small-scale trading and selling with other groups. - Example: Maasai villagers.
Horticultural Societies	- Began between 10,000 and 12,000 years ago. - The life cycle of plants and ease of cultivation served as the foundation for the entire society. - Used **simple hand tools** and did small-scale farming.
Agricultural	- Began about 8500 years ago. - Larger populations of people. **Sedentary** and utilizes advanced technology, such as fertilizer and irrigation systems for large-scale farming.
Feudal Society	- Began in the 8th century. - Social structure based around land ownership, - Power distributed through a complex network of loyalties & obligations between a lord & their vassals. - An example of a feudal society is that of Medieval Europe. This era was characterized by a strict social hierarchy, with the monarch at the top and nobles, knights, peasants, and serfs below. Several hundred years would pass before the Industrial Revolution would bring an end to the feudal system.

Industrial
- Began with the **Industrial Revolution** (1780s-1850s), prioritized the employment of both mechanical & human labor in the mass production of goods.   - Characterized by a centralized workplace, economic interdependence, formal education, and complex social systems where people shifted from the agricultural way of life to working in factories.

Post-Industrial Society	
Information societies	- Also called digital societies centered on the production of services, goods, and information. - Even though post-industrial cultures continue to use industrial methods & produce goods, they have shifted their attention to providing services (such as electrical repair or medical operations).

Since Lenski's original work, the **postmodern society**—a culture obsessed with consumer goods and media images—emerged in the latter 1970s. It uses technology extensively and also has emerging cultural groups and social interaction patterns.

B. Theoretical Perspectives on Society

Emile Durkheim and Functionalism

Emile Durkheim coined the term **collective conscience** to describe communal beliefs, morals, and attitudes. He also believed in **social integration**, defined as the strong ties people have to their social groups. Durkheim further suggested that social integration was a key factor in social groups and social life.

Durkheim believed that the bond within cultures was not strong, and they were indeed failing. He argued that societies would grow more complex and that social order would transition from mechanical (or acting automatically according to society's expectations) to organic (or accepting natural individual differences). He stated that **preindustrial societies** were held together by a collective acceptance of how everyone was meant to fit into the norms of society. **Solidarity** describes connections between individuals that allow them to form a cohesive social unit. Durkheim argued solidarity is significant because it is a necessary component of a functioning civilization and a fulfilling human life. Durkheim described **two forms of solidarity**: **mechanical** and **organic**, roughly corresponding to smaller and larger societies. *Mechanical solidarity* refers to connection, cohesion, and integration born from homogeneity or similar work, education, religiosity, and lifestyle. Durkheim called this type of connection "mechanical" making an analogy with the way atoms mechanically form connections to create molecules in nature. In contrast, *organic solidarity was* based on the comparison between society and how the body's organs have their special tasks but still depend on one another. This describes the connections that are born from the interdependence of individuals in more advanced societies, particularly the dependence people have in the professional/working world, where everyone is dependent on the specific job everyone else has to do. This interdependence allows for the division of labor and specialization, creating a stronger bond between individuals and leading to a more effective societal structure.

Karl Marx and Conflict Theory

Karl Marx viewed societal conflicts as a means of social change. From an economic point of view, he believed that conflict occurred between landowners and laborers. The **bourgeoisie** were the owners of the land/means of production (e.g., factories). They purchased and exploited the labor provided by the **proletariat**.

Marx noted that conflicts were consistent throughout history, especially during social revolutions. As industrialization expanded during the mid-19th century, labor conditions became more exploitative. Marx described **capitalism** as an economic system in which things used to create products are owned by individual people and companies rather than the government. Marx suggested that capitalism would inherently lead to class struggle, as the bourgeoisie aims to maximize profits by exploiting the labor of the proletariat. Marx called this the "**dictatorship of the bourgeoisie**."

The dictatorship of the bourgeoisie is characterized by the dominance of capitalist ideology, where the capitalist class's interests are presented as society's general interests. The bourgeoisie hold political power and control the legal system and other institutions of governance. This perpetuates inequality, exploitation, and the alienation of the working class. According to Marx, **alienation** refers to a condition in which the individual is isolated and divorced from society, work, or sense of self. Marx defined **four different types of alienation**.

Table 24 - 4: Four different types of alienation

Alienation from the product of one's labor	Alienation from the process of one's labor	Alienation from others	Alienation from one's self
Workers typically do not have a connection to the product that they are producing. Most of the time, workers do not even care about the product & how it contributes to others or society. They only care that they have a job.	Usually, workers are not allowed to control their occupation. They have no say in the methods used or overall decision-making. For example, workers at Coca-Cola who are on the production line cannot change the soda's recipe.	Workers may compete with one another rather than work together. They may compete for bonuses, the best work hours, & even compete for their jobs.	An outcome of industrialization is the disconnect between workers and what makes them human. When nothing connects workers to labor, there is a lack of sense of self. This stems from workers not being able to take pride in their work. Work becomes a means of survival rather than a fulfilling activity.

Deriving from the Marxist theory of social class, **false consciousness** is a concept that describes a state where an individual's beliefs, ideas, or ideology do not align with their best interests. This misalignment often arises when a dominant class imposes its ideology upon proletariats. In contrast, **class consciousness** refers to the awareness of one's position within the social hierarchy. Once the proletariat becomes aware that they are being exploited, they will become a "class for itself" rather than a "class in itself" and rise and effect social change.

Max Weber and Symbolic Interactionism

While both Karl Marx and Max Weber recognized the alienating effects of modern society on individuals, they attributed the phenomenon to different root causes. Marx pinpointed economic inequality as the primary culprit, whereas Weber identified bureaucracy's isolating and dehumanizing nature as the main driver of alienation. Weber's studies focused on society's structure and how class, status, and power lay within society.

Weber's concept of **rationalization** is defined as the belief that modern society is built around logic and efficiency rather than morality or tradition. Weber believed that capitalism is entirely rational. Even though it leads to merit-based efficiency and success, there can be negative adverse effects in extreme cases. Weber used the term **iron cage** to describe the constraints and limitations that arise from the

increasing rationalization and bureaucratization of social and economic life in modern industrialized societies. The increased control and predictability of modern life can lead to a sense of confinement and the suppression of individuality, emotions, and authentic human experience.

Unlike Marx, Weber was more interested in how individuals experienced societal divisions than the divisions themselves. This is the basis of symbolic interactionism theory which emphasizes the viewpoint of the individual and how the individual interacts with society.

C. Social Constructions of Reality

In their book, *The Social Construction of Reality*, Peter Bergman and Thomas Luckmann argue that humans and human interactions are responsible for creating society. They call this habitualization. **Habitualization** is defined as the idea that we and those before us construct society and follow it like a habit. **Institutionalization** is the process of introducing a convention or standard into society. Institutions that are socially constructed are still considered to be accurate. The concept of habitualization was also studied by William Isaac Thomas and Dorothy Swaine Thomas, who formulated the **Thomas Theorem** in 1928, which states that *"If men define situations as real, they are real in their consequence."* This implies that a person's behavior may be determined by subjective construction instead of objective reality.

Example

> *Imagine a group of people waiting in a long line at a grocery store.*
>
> *Person A sees the long line as a sign of a fantastic sale and feels excited. They are eager to seize the deals. On the other hand, Person B interprets the long line as a tedious wait for groceries. They regret not choosing a different store.*
>
> *Both people are in the same objective situation, but their interpretations of it lead to different emotions and actions. Person A's positive interpretation leads to a positive experience, while Person B's negative interpretation leads to a negative experience.*

D. Status & Role within Sociology

Status can be defined as one's relative social position within a society, while role refers to the behaviors associated with a particular status. Together, status and role can influence how people interact with one another and the degree of social capital they possess. Within sociology, there are two types of statuses: **achieved** and **ascribed**.

- **Achieved statuses** are those individuals have worked towards, such as obtaining a college degree or a new job.

- **Ascribed statuses** are given at birth, such as race, gender, or age.

In *A Theory of Justice and Fairnes*s, John Rawls stresses the necessity of recognizing the implications of statuses and roles to prevent inequality and promote equal opportunities. Expectations for statuses and roles are sometimes unclear and can differ between individuals. Hence, it is crucial to understand and appreciate the complexities of these social positions in the study of sociology.

Example

> *Bethany is a stay-at-home mom who has two children. Before she started having children, she was a professional athlete and used to be the team captain. Bethany's status is mother and homemaker, and her role as a mother is to look after her children and provide for them. Her role as a homemaker is to take care of her household duties, such as cleaning and cooking. She has **achieved statuses**, as she worked hard to gain the positions of team captain and mother.*

Chapter 4: Review Questions

1. **Which of the following is not one of the six types of societies?**

   A. Mating societies
   B. Agricultural societies
   C. Pastoral societies
   D. Horticultural societies
   E. All of these are types of societies

2. **What are hunter-gatherers?**

   A. A group of people who move around a lot but still farm the land.
   B. People who eat a 100% meat diet.
   C. A group of people who live in one place, farming the land.
   D. A nomadic group of people who live by hunting, fishing, and gathering wild food sources.
   E. A group of people who domesticate animals and farm the land.

3. **Which of the following terms refers to a stage in a society's development during which the economy transitions from one that primarily provides goods to one that primarily provides services?**

   A. Industrial society
   B. Post-agricultural society
   C. Agricultural society
   D. Post-industrial society
   E. Hunter-gatherer society

4. **According to Durkheim, what is the key cause of organic solidarity in more advanced societies?**

   A. The Industrial Revolution
   B. Capitalism
   C. The division of labor
   D. Race and class differences
   E. Agricultural practices

5. **What did Karl Marx call the two classes?**

   A. The haves and the have-nots
   B. The elites and the peasants
   C. Labor and management
   D. The agrarians and industrialists
   E. The proletariat and the bourgeoisie

6. **What is the term used to describe a person who feels isolated from their own culture or is prevented from participating in society?**

    A. Assimilation
    B. Alienation
    C. Acculturation
    D. Anti-socialization
    E. Accommodation

7. **Class consciousness is when:**

    A. Workers do not recognize the injustice of their situation.
    B. Economists critique capitalist societies.
    C. Workers do realize the injustice of their situation.
    D. None of these are correct.
    E. A, B, and C are correct.

8. **Where did the concept of alienation originate from?**

    A. Thomas Hobbes
    B. Emile Durkheim
    C. Rousseau
    D. Edmund Burke
    E. Karl Marx

9. **A metaphor for how society can become so focused on efficiency that it stifles freedom and creativity.**

    A. Iron Cage
    B. Bureaucracy
    C. Instrumental-rational action
    D. Emotional
    E. McDonaldization

10. **This sociological theory examines the development of jointly constructed understandings by focusing on people's experiences and interactions with one another:**

    A. Thomas theorem
    B. Ethnomethodology
    C. Special reactionism
    D. Functionalism
    E. Social constructionism

Chapter 5: Socialization

Overview

This chapter introduces theories of self-development and details the nature versus nurture debate, the benefits of socialization, and the different agents of socialization. It also describes the impact of housing, neighborhood, and community on our socialization. Lastly, it explains how we fulfill various roles and manage to present ourselves.

Learning Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Compare and contrast the different theories of self-development.
- Discuss the nature versus nurture debate and the importance of socialization.
- Identify the agents of socialization.
- Describe the effects of housing, neighborhood, and community on our socialization.
- Explain resocialization, social interaction theory, role theory, and impression management.

A. Theories of Self-Development

Sociologists and psychologists have weighed the differences between sociological and psychological development in humans. Both sociologists and psychologists agree that self-development is crucial in understanding how we socialize.

Generally, socialization is the process of people learning about cultures and developing their human potential. Friends and peers influence our childhood and adolescence beliefs, values, and behaviors as we struggle to forge our identities. People do not come into the world knowing anything about themselves or others. Instead, they enhance their morality, reasoning skills, personality, and sense of self through observation, interaction, and contact. We will look at the following theoretical insights on the topic of socialization:

- Sigmund Freud (1856–1939): **Id, Ego & Superego**

- Jean Piaget (1896–1980): **Stages of Cognitive Development**

- Lawrence Kohlberg (1927–1987): **Stages of Moral Development**

- Carol Gilligan (1936–present): **Theory of Moral Development**

- George Herbert Mead (1863–1931): **The Self, "Me" & "I"**

- Erik Erikson (1902–1994): **Stages of Psychosocial Development**

B. Psychological Perspectives on Self-Development

Freud's Theory of the Id, Ego, & Superego

Sigmund Freud believed personality was connected to sexual development. Based on this, he advanced the five-stage psychosexual theory of development: oral, anal, phallic, latency, and genital. This theory revolves around:

- **Libido**: Sexual dynamism that can take numerous forms in behavior.

- **Fixation**: The notion that a person's libido is fixed in a certain developmental stage due to overindulgence or disturbance.

- **Erogenous Zone**: An area sensitive to stimulation and may generate a sexual response.

Table 25 - 1: Freud's stages of psychosexual theory of development

Stage	Age (years)	Erogenous Zone	Major Conflict	Adult Fixation Example
Oral	0–1	Mouth	Weaning off breast or bottle	Smoking, overeating
Anal	1–3	Anus	Toilet training	Orderliness (anal-retentive), messiness (anal fixation)
Phallic	3–6	Genitals	**Oedipus complex**: Male children have a sexual attraction to female caregivers **Electra complex**: Female children have a sexual attraction to male caregivers	Vanity, overambition
Latency	7–11	None	None but past fixations may start manifesting	Lack of knowledge of the opposite gender and the inability to socialize with them
Genital	12+	Genitals	Balancing internal desires while trying to become a functioning member of society	If fixation develops during a previous stage, it will affect the rest of the lifespan.

According to Freud, at the **latency** stage, the superego develops and suppresses the id. At the **genital stage**, the ego and superego become fully developed. Note the iceberg diagram illustrates the relationship between the conscious, preconscious, & unconscious and the id, ego, & superego.

In his work *Interpretation of Dreams*, Freud proposed a **model of three mental systems**—conscious,
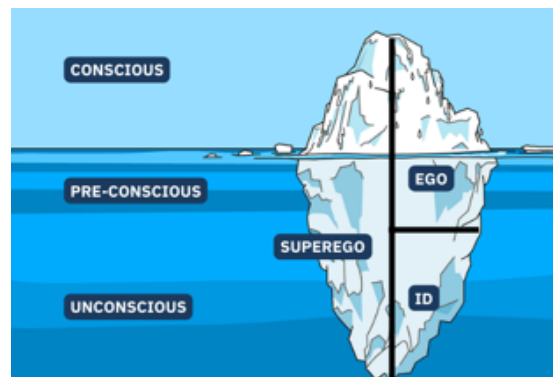
preconscious, and unconscious—and how they work together. He likened this to an **iceberg** in water, with the **conscious** mind being the tip of the iceberg visible above the surface. The **preconscious** lies just below the surface of the water, while the **unconscious** mind is located below the preconscious and deep below the surface of the water.

Freud's **second topographic model** delves into the **three parts of the mind**: the id, ego, and superego. The **id** resides in the unconscious part of the mind, while the **ego** and **superego** have conscious, preconscious, and unconscious elements.

Table 26 - 5: Second topographic model - Three parts of the mind

Id	Ego	Superego
In charge of basic instincts, drives, and needs	In charge of self as contrasted to others	In charge of the rules of society and morals
Completely unconscious	Conscious, preconscious, and a small part unconscious	Partly conscious, preconscious, and mostly unconscious
Impulsive	Decision maker	Strives for perfection
Infantile in function	Works with reason	Incorporates values and society morals
Meeting basic needs such as a hungry baby crying until it is fed.	The hungry child asks their parents for food instead of taking food from the dinner table.	A hungry child sees food. They could just grab it, but instead, they decide not to, knowing that their caregiver would be upset if they did.

Source: Study.com

Jean Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development

Jean Piaget was a prominent Swiss scientist and philosopher whose primary area of research was devoted to explaining how humans develop knowledge. According to Piaget's theory of cognitive development, children progressively develop and organize knowledge. This theory explains how children develop *cognitively*, meaning it focuses on thinking or conscious mental processes instead of emotional or identity development.

Table 27 - 5: Piaget's stages of cognitive development

Stage	Age	Description
Sensorimotor *Presymbolic and preverbal*	Birth to 2 years	• Children learn by using their senses. • **Goal**: Object permanence, understanding that a thing continues to exist even if it has been moved out of sight.
Preoperational *Partial logical thinking*	2 to 7 years	• Children perceive the world as it appears to them (**egocentric view**). • **Goal**: Symbolic thought.
Concrete Operational *Capable of conservation and reversibility*	7 to 11 years	• Children engage in complex thoughts and behaviors, and they understand conservation, the concept that even though an item changes appearance, some attributes remain the same. • **Goal**: Logical and operational thought.
Formal Operational *Solve cause and effect problems*	12 years to adulthood	• Have the ability to have hypothetical thoughts about the future. • **Goal**: Scientific reasoning and abstract concepts.
Post-Formal Operational Stage *This stage was added later after the initial cognitive development stages.*	Adults	• Ability to appreciate multiple perspectives and contradictions • Adults who completed college or graduate education.

Important Concepts in Piaget's Theory

- **Schemas**: These can be compared to internal scripts that remind us how to respond to stimuli and are the building blocks of knowledge. Children create increasingly elaborate schemas as they learn new things. A child identifying any man with a big belly and a white beard as Santa Claus is an example of a schema.

- **Assimilation**: When presented with new information, a child will try to fit it into an already-existing schema. For instance, a child believes Santa Claus has round bellies and a white beard. If a child sees a man who looks like that, they might think he's Santa, too.

- **Equilibration**: Piaget considered that people seek order in their minds and are uncomfortable with information contradicting their preconceived notions or mental models. For instance, a parent might address a child's misconception of Santa Claus by clarifying that the man does not wear a red coat or pull a sled pulled by a reindeer. The child may alter their conception of Santa if this explanation makes them uncomfortable.

- **Accommodation**: This is the process of modifying current schemas or creating new ones to include new information. For instance, a child may accommodate their perception of Santa as a portly man with a white beard and a red coat to a portly man with a white beard and any color coat. Or they may need to create a separate schema for new information that does not fit their previous schemas.

Challenges to Piaget's Stages

- Piaget's stages are arranged in a particular order; however, children may achieve them in different orders. Some also argue that **cognitive development is continuous**.

- Not all individuals will necessarily reach the formal operational stage. According to several studies, many people struggle with formal operational thinking.

- Piaget's theory **does not consider the impact of culture or social interaction**. Researchers have discovered that some patterns of thinking are mastered by children in some cultures earlier or later than in others.

- **Piaget's study may not be generalizable to all children** because much of his theory came from only observing his children, along with others from similar socioeconomic backgrounds.

Kohlberg's Stages and Theory of Moral Development

According to **Lawrence Kohlberg's theory of moral development** humans develop moral reasoning through progressive succession. **Moral reasoning** is the cognitive process that occurs as an individual decides whether a potential action is right or wrong. Kohlberg presented individuals with moral dilemmas and observed their responses. He was more interested in the moral reasoning leading to their conclusion than their response. Kohlberg suggested that humans undergo **three levels of moral reasoning**: Pre-Conventional, Conventional, & Post-Conventional, each having two stages.

Table 28 - 5: Three levels of moral reasoning

Level	Definition	Stages
Level 1: Preconventional Morality typically occurs from childhood **to around age 9**.	**Understanding the difference between right and wrong;** determined by rewards and punishment.	**Stage 1: Obedience & Punishment Orientation** A child's understanding of right and wrong is chiefly determined by rewards and punishments. Good behavior is typically linked to following rules to avoid punishment, while bad behavior leads to negative consequences. This stage is characterized by a focus on self-interest and a lack of empathy. **Stage 2: Instrumental Purpose Orientation** During this stage, children become more aware of the benefits of following rules and expectations, developing a sense of personal responsibility and self-control. Rewards like sleepovers are often given for good behavior.

Level 2: Conventional Morality generally occurs during **adolescence**, although it can continue into adulthood.	The view that others matter, either avoiding the blame or attempting to seek approval. They become more concerned with meeting society's expectations than those of an authority figure.	**Stage 3: Good Boy, Nice Girl Orientation** - Behavior focuses on cultivating positive interpersonal relationships and acting virtuously to gain the respect of others. **Stage 4: Law-and-Order Orientation** - People emphasize upholding laws to maintain order and have a responsibility to act as good citizens.
Level 3: Post-Conventional Morality - reasoning is more abstract and not tied to personal or societal norms.	This is an abstract notion of justice. Others' rights may take precedence over adherence to laws and regulations. Morality is judged using universal values and ethical principles that promote dignity, equality, and justice. Only a few people reach this level.	**Stage 5: Social-Contract Orientation** - Individuals take an objective view of morality, looking at laws as acceptable only if they are fair. They rely on their values and conscience when assessing rules and regulations, which may lead to speaking up against corporate inequalities. **Stage 6: Universal-Ethical-Principle Orientation** - Not all individuals will reach this level. At this stage, one's ethical rules of conscience guide one's decision. These ideas are universal in scope and abstract in nature. This reasoning entails considering the viewpoints of each individual or group who may be affected by the decision.

Kohlberg later suggested a **seventh moral stage** based on religious beliefs. However, transcendental morality is not a fully developed theory of his and remains somewhat speculative. Generally speaking, the line between religion and morality is often blurry and hard to define, making it difficult to apply to ethical theories.

Criticisms against Kohlberg's Stages

One of the most significant criticisms is that his studies were conducted on boys between the ages of 10-16. This limits the findings of the study due to age and gender bias. Carol Gilligan, who will be discussed next, has done extensive research on gender differences, particularly in the moral development of females.

Carol Gilligan's Theory of Moral Development (Ethics of Care)

Sociologist Carol Gilligan found that Kohlberg's theory showed a gender bias because his research only included male subjects. Gilligan contested Kohlberg's belief that only men can attain the topmost level of reasoning because of their **justice-based morality**, which views all problems as a conflict where only one party is correct.

Gilligan labeled her theory **Ethics of Care** based on a **care-based morality**. It states that people (predominantly women) go through stages while trying to balance caring for themselves and others.

Stage 1: Pre-conventional: When a woman is focused on herself, she can better understand and cater to her needs and interests. This allows her to be more successful and fulfilled in her life.

Stage 2: Conventional: As women move into adulthood, they often think more about their responsibilities to others. This can involve feeling more empathy and concern for others and orienting themselves toward their feelings.

Stage 3: Post-Conventional: Women can achieve true selflessness and understanding. It's the most advanced level one can achieve as a woman and is something to be proud of. Females make decisions as they share the responsibility for caring for themselves and their loved ones.

Gilligan's Criticisms of Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Development

- Kohlberg believed that **justice** is the most important element of moral development, while Gilligan argued that caring, which is more commonly displayed by women, is equally important.

- Gilligan argued that Kohlberg's research implies that moral judgment leads to moral action, which may not always be true.

- Gilligan also maintained that Kohlberg's stages of moral development are **not clearly delineated, lacking empirical evidence**.

Mead's Theory of Self: The "Me" & "I"

The term "self" was first used by **George Herbert Mead**, who described it as a person's unique identity formed via social contact. He contended that the **self is shaped by society's experience**, which would be part of a person's personality, including self-awareness or self-image. This **self-image** is based on how they think others perceive them. According to Mead, people develop their identities through **self-socialization** and interactions with others. Mead outlined a **three-stage role-taking process** or how one's self develops.

Table 29 - 5: Three-stage role-taking process

Preparatory or Language Stage	Play Stage	Game Stage
Children will often **copy** the actions performed by another individual.	Children will **start taking on roles** that they view others performing.	Typically occurs when children learn to look at different roles simultaneously and interact accordingly.
Symbols often take the place of words. People adopt the way someone else does something as their own, like when children imitate what others are doing around them.	Children are developing their ideas of what is fair, not following the rules, and enjoying breaking them. Children copy the behaviors of the ones they love by trying their best to be like them in their games.	When a child is seven or older, they enter the "game stage." In this phase, children can play **more structured games** that they understand. For example, children may still play house but act as if it's different from the one they live in.

Mead also proposed **two phases of the Self**, the "Me" and "I."

Table 30 - 5: Two phases of the Self

Me	I
"Me," or the interpersonal Self, is the organized collection of perceptions that one accumulates.	"I" is a person's response to other people's feelings.
The "Me" is shaped by people's interactions with others and their environment. This refers to the **person's knowledge of their immediate surroundings and sense of self.** For example, an individual builds a sense of themselves as a woman if they can see how other women react to them.	The "I" becomes imaginative if it sees itself as unique. If the "I" violates social law, it is because of the other person in one's own body controlling it. The "I" is held by the "Me."

Mead's concept of taking on another persona is a foundation for self-socialization, as it is composed of **three distinct parts**: the "I," the "Me," and the "Generalized Other." The "**I**" is the active, self-aware individual constantly changing and growing. The "**Me**" is the social self, the part of the individual shaped by society and interacts with others. Mead calls the interaction of "Me" and "I" the **stream of thought**. He believed that children learn about **generalized others**—a general society's behavioral expectations. Usually, individuals can imagine how others may view them at this stage. The generalized concept of others is essential to fitting into society and living intimately with others.

Socialization and Self Theory: Looking-Glass Self

Charles Cooley's **looking-glass self** is related to Mead's theory. There are three unique components to the looking-glass self:

- In social situations, people tend to imagine how they appear to others and how they would ideally like to be perceived.

- People also imagine how they are judged.

- Based on how people interpret the actions and words of others, they develop their self-perceptions and responses.

As a result, even if others' perceptions of a person's character aren't accurate, that person's conduct will be influenced. A "mirror" or a "looking-glass" is used to explain social interaction because one's self-perception and self-confidence are based on others. A person here synthesizes the external perspective about themselves.

Erik Erikson's Stages of Psychosocial Development

Erik Erikson believed that development followed a series of psychosocial stages, each presenting a unique challenge that individuals need to address. Although his theory was partially based on Freud's theory, Erikson's focus was not on sexuality but rather on the emotions that an individual would go through. Let's look at the life stages according to Erik Erikson.

Table 31 - 5: Erik Erikson's stages of psychosocial development

Stage	Conflict	Virtue	Description
Infancy Birth through 18 months	Trust vs. Mistrust	Hope	Trust (or mistrust) that basic needs, such as nourishment and affection, will be met.
Early Childhood age 18 months–3 years	Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt	Will	Develop a sense of independence in many tasks.
Play Age 3–6 years	Initiative vs. Guilt	Purpose	Take initiative on some activities—may develop guilt when unsuccessful or boundaries overstepped.
School Age 6–12 years	Industry vs. Inferiority	Competence	Develop self-confidence in abilities when competent or a sense of inferiority when not.
Adolescence 12–18 years	Identity vs. Role Confusion	Fidelity	Experiment with and develop identity and roles.
Young Adulthood (19–40 years)	Intimacy vs. Isolation	Love	Establish intimacy and relationships with others.
Adulthood (40–65 years)	Generativity vs. Stagnation	Care	Contribute to society and be part of a family.
Old Age (65 years to death)	Integrity vs. Despair	Wisdom	Assess and make sense of life and the meaning of contributions.

Source: Simply Psychology

C. Nature vs. Nurture

The nature versus nurture debate examines the relative importance of genetics (nature) and the environment (nurture) on human development. Some theorists believe that internal factors play a greater role, while others argue that external factors are more influential in shaping individuals. Overall, sociologists agree that both nature and nurture play significant roles in human development.

D. Why Socialization Matters

Socialization is the process through which individuals learn the norms, values, and behaviors of their society. We learn how we fit into the mix of society and our material and non-material culture.

E. Agents of Socialization

There are several agents of socialization. **Primary agents** are the first social groups we encounter and have the most profound impact on our initial development. This includes family, peers, schools, and mass media. **Secondary agents** come into play later in life and have a more specialized influence. They include religious institutions, political groups, and the workplace.

Family

The family is considered the first agent of socialization and plays a critical role in teaching children the necessary skills and social norms to navigate the world. However, social factors, including race, social class, and religion, significantly influence how children are socialized within families. Wealthier families may have more resources to invest in their children's education, shaping them to value higher education and providing them with opportunities to excel academically. On the other hand, poorer families may prioritize teaching their children job skills over education due to limited resources.

Peer Groups

Peer groups are groups of people similar in age and social status who also share common interests. Peer groups usually begin early in a child's life. Values such as sharing and taking turns are taught within playgroups. They may shape children's speech patterns, interests, strategies, and beliefs.

Institutional Agents

Social institutions including schools, businesses, and even the government can help individuals learn how to behave within these agents. Let's take a look at some of the institutional agents.

Schools

Schools play a significant role in the socialization of children. Students typically spend around seven hours a day in school for approximately 180 days a year. This gives schools ample time to influence children's development, both formally and informally. In addition to teaching academic subjects, schools also teach social skills such as teamwork, responsibility, and following a schedule. These skills may not be part of a specific curriculum and are hence sometimes referred to as a **hidden curriculum**.

The Workplace

The workplace plays a key role in shaping our social lives. However, the level and nature of socialization at work vary greatly depending on the job and the company culture. Some jobs require frequent travel and meetings with new people, while others involve less travel and more interaction with the same

colleagues every day. Regardless, employees are expected to follow certain rules when interacting with others.

Religion

Religion plays an important role in the lives of many people. The United States is home to a diverse range of religious institutions, such as synagogues, temples, churches, and mosques. These institutions provide members with a space to connect with their faith and community. Religious practices often involve interacting with material cultural items, such as prayer rugs, altars, or religious texts. Rituals and ceremonies are also important to many religious traditions. Religion can also play a role in moral development, as it often teaches members about right and wrong behavior.

Government

The government establishes many **age norms**, and individuals go through rites of passage as they reach different ages. In the United States, a legal adult is one who is 18 years or older. When individuals turn 65, they become eligible for pensions and government benefits such as Medicare. They enter a new category that requires new socialization - learning new vocabulary and behaviors.

Mass Media

The distribution of information to a broad audience via television, newspapers, radio, and the internet is considered **mass media**. Statistics show that the average person spends approximately 7 hours in front of a screen per day. Some believe that the media can be highly influential and media portrayals of social norms and behaviors can shape our actions and expectations.

F. Housing, Neighborhood, and Community

Our housing situation and socio-cultural community can impact our well-being. When discussing the following subtopics, consider how the elderly are impacted by their housing situation, neighborhood, and community.

The Impact of Housing Situations

A housing situation that does not accommodate a person's **physical needs** can present difficulties. For a person who is unable to climb stairs, a home with only stairs would not be ideal housing. There are many other considerations to take into account when finding housing, such as **accessibility**, **affordability**, and **proximity** to desired amenities.

The homes of older adults are often a key factor in maintaining a sense of well-being. The ability to "age in place," remaining in their homes and communities for as long as possible, is a desire for many seniors. However, achieving this goal requires a delicate balance between independence and appropriate care.

The Impact of Neighborhood

One's neighborhood can have both a positive and negative impact on **quality of life**. A key factor in assessing neighborhood quality is **walkability**, which refers to how easy it is for residents to get around on foot and whether there are sidewalks or other walking paths nearby. Good walkability can improve residents' physical health and mental well-being and also make it easier for them to access essential services and social connections. Another factor is the **crime rate** in a neighborhood. A high crime rate can put elderly residents at an increased risk of victimization

The Impact of the Community

The terms neighborhood and community are often used interchangeably, but they refer to two different concepts. **Neighborhood** refers to a geographic area, while **community** includes the larger values of one's environment. For example, a community in rural Montana may have different values overall than the urban community of Chicago. Also, a single geographic neighborhood could have multiple communities, such as a community of both religious and non-religious persons.

When we feel safe and supported by our community, we are more likely to thrive. Conversely, we are more likely to struggle when we feel isolated and disconnected. Therefore, creating community environments that promote health and well-being for all is important.

G. Socialization Across the Life Course

Socialization occurs throughout the lifespan. Children often will play dress up and engage in **anticipatory socialization** or the preparation for future life roles. Adults can experience anticipatory socialization as well. As adults get older, they will start thinking about saving for retirement and looking into future healthcare options. The **life course method** examines each period of socialization—childhood, adolescence, adulthood, and old age. The method looks at how a person's decisions are influenced by their life history.

Stages of Socialization

Table 32 - 5: Stages of socialization

Primary Stage	Secondary Stage	Adult Stage
From ages 0-5 years, primary socialization takes place. During this stage, a child will start learning their culture's behaviors, language, values, & cognitive abilities. These lessons are passed down through the immediate family to the child. A child at this age is not	Typically happens throughout puberty & around the end of childhood. At this stage, socialization is influenced & determined by people other than family members. A child is regarded as a young adult who notices practically everything at this point since entire physical, emotional & cognitive growth takes	This stage is linked to having all the obligations of an adult. A person might start a new job or become a parent. As a result, the person fills responsibilities for which their preparation in primary and secondary school was insufficient. The new adult learns to accept new

morally conscious. The child picks up knowledge by observing members of their immediate family & in the process, develops experience in making those moral judgments.	place. In this stage, the individual picks up academic material and social abilities like following orders & understanding deadlines. Peer groups have an impact on leadership, academic motivation & empathy, as well as an impact on criminal behavior or drug & alcohol abuse. The beginning of romantic engagement among young adults preparing to exit adolescence is a key life experience connected to this stage.	roles & responsibilities and marriage is the primary development connected to this stage. Other changes include parenthood and career development.

H. Resocialization

Unlike anticipatory socialization, which is an action of a person, **resocialization** is imposed by a group on a person (new member) so that this new group member fits the identity of the group. **Resocialization** also means transitioning from one role to another, which requires replacing the old norms, practices, and values with new ones. One example of resocialization occurs when an individual has been secluded from society. After returning to society, they must learn to obey new societal norms and rules.

Resocialization is a two-step process. The first step, the **degradation ceremony**, occurs when the individual or member leaves their old identity. In the second step, individuals must get a new identity in their new environment. This is not always a simple process.

I. Social Interaction Theory

Social interaction theory illustrates the patterns of behavior in response to other people. According to this theory, a person's actions clearly indicate how aware they are of social expectations. These expectations also establish **social roles** that specify how members of a broader social group are expected to interact. These social roles may also affect how we behave both privately and publicly.

J. Status Set

Social status refers to the position one holds in a group, organization, or society. A status is something we possess, while a **role** is something we play. This will be further discussed later, but for now, think of status as a title on an organizational chart, while role is the job description that comes with that title. Also, a **status set** is a collection of a person's statuses, with one primary status taking precedence over the others.

Table 33 - 5: Types of social statuses

Achieved Status	Ascribed Status	Master Status
Achieved status reflects an individual's abilities, efforts & decisions. It is willingly taken on & can be publicly embodied with pride or conversely viewed unfavorably.	This is the type of status determined by factors beyond our control, like sex, race, & socioeconomic status at birth.	This status has a significant impact on an individual's social identity. A master status can take precedence over all other statuses (or status sets) & can sometimes play a major role in shaping a person's entire life.

K. Social Roles

Roles are the patterns of behavior that we recognize that represent a person's social status. Roles can change based on situations and environments. A **role set** is defined as the array of roles that are attached to it. Meanwhile, **role performance** is how a person expresses their role. When someone experiences too much within a specific role, they may experience **role strain**. Consider a stay-at-home mom who tries to care for her kids, keep her house clean, feed her family, run errands, and more. She may experience some strain or stress by trying to accomplish too much in her role.

Individuals may also experience **role conflict** when one or more roles contradict another. Think about a father who also has a full-time job. He may experience role conflicts if he needs to do something for his child, but he also must maintain his job to continue to provide for his family.

Role Theory

Role theory explores the different culture-specific expectations for certain roles. They change over time, and each person can have multiple roles in society. Role theory is based on **six propositions**.

- Roles exist in a hierarchical structure and there is a division of labor among the roles.

- Social roles are defined and directed by social norms. When someone goes against the grain, they usually aren't playing their part in society.

- Individuals ("actors") perform roles as part of their status.

- When someone accepts a role, it is assumed that they will carry out the duties of that role to avoid punishment or disapproval.

- Time and social pressure can change.

- People frequently fulfill the demands of the role to receive a certain benefit or reward.

Role theory is criticized for emphasizing conformity and neglecting the impact of personal choice on personality development and occupation.

Presentation of Self

In his *The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life,* Erving Goffman claimed that every person in society acts like an actor by choosing their outfit, attitude, and even the stage and props. His theory, **dramaturgical analysis**, is the study of human social interaction in terms of a theatrical performance. Note the base word "drama," such as one might watch actors in a play. Every status a person holds is comparable to a character in a play, and the role serves as the script, guiding us on how to behave. Typically, we are concerned about how the "audience" will respond and evaluate our performance. The goal of **impression management**, the act of attempting to manage impressions and opinions of oneself, is to influence how others perceive and judge us. Of course, we want others to think positively of us, and as a result, we **idealize** or exaggerate our favorable traits.

We can convey some characters without using words through **nonverbal communication**. Nonverbal communication encompasses the physical cues we associate with body language, such as our postures, eye contact, facial expressions, and other cues like our voice tones.

Chapter 5: Review Questions

1. **The concepts of id, ego, and superego are associated with which of the following theorists?**

   A. Piaget
   B. Kohlberg
   C. Gilligan
   D. Cooley
   E. Freud

2. **Cece went for a walk in the park. Along one of the hiking trails, she spotted a $20 bill on the ground. No one was around to claim it. What would her superego tell her to do?**

   A. Leave the money right where it is. The owner will realize it's missing and come back for it.
   B. Pick it up and leave a $5 bill. That way, she isn't taking the whole thing.
   C. Wait a few minutes, and then take it. If they haven't realized it's missing yet, they probably won't.
   D. Take the money!
   E. Take the money and share the money with a friend.

3. **The stage of Piaget's cognitive development theory is characterized by the development of abstract systems of thought that allow learners to solve complex problems with multiple factors.**

   A. Operational
   B. Formal Operational
   C. Sensorimotor
   D. Concrete Operational
   E. Preoperational

4. **The process of incorporating new information into existing knowledge is known as _____, whereas the process of adjusting our schemas to fit new information and events is known as _____.**

   A. Organization; assimilation
   B. Schema, accommodation
   C. Accommodation; assimilation
   D. Assimilation; accommodation
   E. None of these.

5. **According to Erikson, at which stage does a child first develop a sense of independence?**

   A. Industry vs. inferiority
   B. Initiative vs. guilt
   C. Autonomy vs. shame and doubt
   D. Trust vs. mistrust
   E. Intimacy vs. isolation

6. **A child hiding a cookie so that he doesn't have to share it with the other kids is in what stage of moral development?**

   A. the second post-conventional stage (stage six)
   B. the first conventional stage (stage three)
   C. the second pre-conventional stage (stage two)
   D. the first pre-conventional stage (stage one)
   E. the first post-conventional stage (stage five)

7. **What element did Gilligan consider in her theory of moral development after it was not fully addressed by Kohlberg?**

   A. Gender differences
   B. IQ differences
   C. Geographic location
   D. Religious preferences
   E. Age differences

8. **The play stage, game stage, and the concept of the generalized other are associated with the work of**

   A. Sigmund Freud.
   B. Charles Horton Cooley.
   C. Erik Erikson.
   D. Carol Gilligan.
   E. George Herbert Mead.

9. **All of the following are true about social roles, EXCEPT:**

   A. There can be multiple roles for a single status.
   B. Role expectations can change over time.
   C. Role expectations differ between cultures.
   D. All of our social roles are permanent.
   E. A person can have multiple social roles.

10. **The ability to easily connect with services and other people in your immediate environment through utilizing paths and sidewalks is best described as which of the following?**

    A. Community
    B. Walkability
    C. Support system
    D. Neighborhood
    E. Affordability

Chapter 6: Groups and Organization

Overview

This chapter first defines the concept of group and its types. Next, it also describes leadership types and the various group phenomena (groupthink, social loafing, conformity, etc.) Additionally, it describes the different forms of organization, characteristics of bureaucracy, rationalization, and the McDonaldization of society.

Learning Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Identify the different types of group and leadership styles.
- Explain how groupthink, social loafing, and conformity operate.
- Describe the different forms of organization and characteristics of bureaucracy.
- Discuss how a society undergoes rationalization.
- Understand the elements of McDonaldization.

A. Defining a Group

A **group** is a collection of at least two people who interact with some frequency and share some sense of aligned identity. A set of individuals present at the same time and location but otherwise have nothing in common is called an **aggregate**. An example of a social aggregate would be a crowd at a sporting event or the audience at a concert. On the other hand, a **category** is a set of people who share similar characteristics.

Individuals within an aggregate or category can become a group, especially during natural disasters. For example, during a hurricane, persons may need to seek shelter. They may eventually develop a friendship and after the disaster, these individuals may form a preparedness group for potential future disasters.

B. Types of Groups

Sociologist Charles Horton Cooley identified two distinct kinds of groups (primary and secondary), and later theories added the reference group.

- **Primary Groups:** Small, informal groups of people who are closest to us and known for their critical role in individuals' lives (e.g., your nuclear family)

- **Secondary Groups:** Larger and more impersonal groups that are task-focused and time-limited (e.g., a group you are doing a project with at school, tour groups)

- **Reference Groups:** A group that people use to evaluate both themselves and their behavior. Reference groups can serve as role models.

Primary groups have an **expressive function** —that is, they serve an emotional need. Families provide an expressive function by providing emotional support to the individual. Meanwhile, secondary groups serve to satisfy **instrumental functions** or functions oriented toward a specific task or goal. Some examples of secondary groups include students in a classroom, political parties, and labor unions. For students, the classroom is considered an instrumental function as it provides a place for learning. People from primary groups may move to secondary groups and vice versa.

In-Groups and Out-Groups

William Sumner introduced two concepts: in-group and out-group. An **in-group** is a group a person belongs to and feels is an essential part of his identity. Meanwhile, an **out-group** is a group an individual is not a member of and may even compete with.

Group affiliations can be positive or negative. People who belong to an in-group or an out-group may encounter unfavorable treatment from others. For example, in high school, there is a student body and different cliques within that student body. In this example, the student body is a secondary group, while the cliques are the in-groups. The out-groups are the other cliques that might clash with an individual's clique. Favoring an in-group is called in-group favoritism or **in-group bias**, whereas feeling threatened or being hostile to an out-group is called **out-group derogation**.

Dyads, Triads, and Large Groups

Georg Simmel studied the differences between **dyads** (two-member groups) and **triads** (three-member groups). If a member leaves either of these groups, the group will not exist. Think about a husband and wife team; they are a dyad. If the husband or wife files for divorce and leaves, then the dyad no longer exists. If one member leaves a triad, it becomes a dyad. Triads can be prone to power imbalances, where two members might team up against the third. As the group size increases, a person has less of an opportunity to be heard.

There is no specific terminology used when it comes to large groups. Large groups typically have more than five people. They sometimes share geographical locations. Examples include sororities and fraternities.

Leadership Styles and Types

Leadership is vital within groups to make sure that there is some order. Formal leadership is usually rare, but in secondary groups, leadership tends to be more overt. The **functions of leadership** are reflected in the focus or goal of the group's leader. An **instrumental leader** is goal-oriented, and their focus is on accomplishing specific tasks. **Expressive leaders** focus on promoting emotional strength and health and making sure that people feel supported. **Leadership styles** are how a leader achieves goals or elicits action from group members. Let us look at the three different types of leadership styles.

- **Democratic or Participative Leaders**
  - Leaders who encourage group participation and consensus-building before moving into action.

- Example: A club whose members will vote on activities or what project to pursue.

- **Laissez-Faire or Delegative Leaders**
  - A hands-off leader who often defers to group members' decisions and rarely provides guidance.
  - Example: A music teacher who provides numerous folders of sheet music to students by leaving them on the table for the students to take and practice.

- **Authoritarian or Autocratic Leaders**
  - A leader who tends to control everything and assigns tasks without consulting the team.
  - Example: A leader who wants the staff to report their accomplishments every hour.

C. Conformity and Obedience

Conformity is a type of social influence that entails a person or group of people changing their usual beliefs or behaviors to fit into the norms of a particular group. Most people reach a point where they feel the need to fit in or belong to a group. They may desire to change something about themselves, such as their clothing and preferences, to be like others in their group. However, sometimes, a person may not conform to a specific group or norm, and they stand out from the crowd.

Psychologist **Solomon Asch** conducted numerous experiments that demonstrated the pressure to conform to the group is so strong that when participants were asked to give an obvious answer, such as what line was the same length as another line on a poster, they would deliberately choose to agree with what they could see was the wrong answer. Asch stated that it was social pressure causing this. Asch found that participants were more likely to conform in a group setting and less likely when they responded privately. **Normative conformity** occurs because of a desire to be liked and accepted (e.g., peer pressure) while **informational conformity** occurs because of the desire to be correct.

Another type of social influence is **obedience**, in which people follow orders given by **authority figures**. Obedience can also occur as a result of fear. One of the most controversial studies on obedience was done by **Stanley Milgram** who aimed to understand how people obey authority figures even when their actions might harm others. Participants were instructed to administer increasingly strong electric shocks to a person (an actor pretending) as a punishment for incorrect answers. 65% of participants were willing to administer the strongest electric shock. Although obedience is likely more coerced than conformity, conformity can still happen involving people of equal or unequal standing through expressed or unspoken influence.

D. Groupthink

Group conformity sometimes becomes so strong that a group will not consider outside ideas or influences. Extremely cohesive groups or ones with charismatic or strong-willed leaders might make decisions using groupthink. **Groupthink** refers to a phenomenon wherein group members often yield to the majority's opinion to preserve group harmony. Hence, decisions are usually made without individual input or alternative ways of thinking or acting.

Conditions that Lead to Groupthink

According to social psychologist **Irving Janis**, groupthink is more likely to occur when the following conditions are present:

- **Cohesiveness**: Groups that are highly connected or have strong group identities are more likely to engage in groupthink.

- **Pressure**: Pressure within the group may force members to withhold their dissent.

- **Charismatic leader:** If the leader has an authoritative or charismatic style, groups may accept and follow the leader no matter what.

- **Assumption of unanimity:** Members are less likely to voice their dissent if they think other group members agree with a decision.

- **No space to question**: A group that attacks external opinion or downplays productive debate is prone to groupthink.

Groupthink: Decision-Making Process

People who are exposed to groupthink may experience the following changes in how they make decisions:

- **Rationalization**: Some people may use rationalization techniques to prevent cognitive dissonance between their personal beliefs and the group's beliefs.

- **Self-censorship:** People may self-censor if they believe their concerns are not important enough to be brought up in front of the group for discussion due to fear of rejection or other reasons, potentially preventing fruitful debate.

- **Complacency:** Groupthink encourages group members' complacency, which may lead them to place excessive faith in the group's judgments, particularly those made by the group leader.

- **Stress:** People under more stress may be less logical in their thinking and less likely to start arguments.

Characteristics and Signs of Groupthink

- Decisions are emotion-based instead of logical.

- Decisions are incomprehensible to outsiders.

- Rapid decision-making: there will be little to no consideration of complex issues.

- Unanimous decisions on issues expected to receive dissent.

- Decisions are often harmful to others.

Kinds of Biases in Groupthink

- The group is always right.

- Outside opinion is harmful.

- The leader knows what's best.

Ways to Avoid Groupthink

- Playing devil's advocate

- Fostering debate

- Establishing a system for decision-making

- Encouraging participation

- Taking time for complex issues

- Brainstorming

Aside from groupthink, there are other consequences or tendencies when working in a group:

- **Social Loafing**: Also known as the **Ringelmann effect**; the tendency for people to put *less* effort towards a goal or action when they are in a group.

- **Social Facilitation**: The presence of others can influence performance. People perform better on simple, **routine activities** but perform worse when doing challenging or novel tasks.

E. Formal Organizations

Organizations are groups that exist for a particular purpose or to achieve the desired goal. They may be informal or formal. **Informal organizations**, like a local bowling league, don't follow specific rules or structures. **Formal organizations** are large, impersonal organizations that have a **formal structure**.

Characteristics of Informal Organizations

- Based on formal organization

- Lack of written rules or guidelines

- Flow of communication is not clearly defined

- Not intentionally established

- Informal relationships and networks among employees are not clearly documented

- Personal and lack stability

Characteristics of Formal Organizations

- Clear objectives and goals

- A lifespan that outlives its creators and personnel

- An organizational structure with a clear chain of command, power, and authority

- A job-focused mindset and more emphasis on work than the people

- Division of labor based on expertise

- Chains of command/hierarchies that uphold operational checks/balances and encourage loyalty.

- Each position and job holder's power and obligation are clearly defined.

Because of the nature of formal organizations they can become **bureaucracies**. Bureaucracies are formal organizations characterized by a hierarchy of authority, a clear division of labor, explicit rules, and impersonality.

Amitai Etzioni introduced the following **three types of organizations**:

- **Utilitarian Organizations**: People receive wages or rewards in exchange for work. Both high school and the workplace are examples of utilitarian organizations—one joined to pursue a diploma, the other to make money.

- **Normative Organizations** (**voluntary** organizations): Normative organizations such as *Greenpeace* exist to achieve a worthwhile goal without expecting compensation. Utilitarian and normative organizations represent ideal types, though, and many organizations might have both utilitarian and normative characteristics (e.g., a church or political party).

- **Coercive Organizations**: Organizations that people do not voluntarily join, such as a prison or a mental hospital. Erving Goffman stated that most coercive organizations are **total institutions** in which participants live a controlled lifestyle and in which total resocialization occurs (e.g., a prison or military unit).

Let's look at how these formal organizations differ in a side-by-side chart.

Table 34 - 6: Three types of organizations

	Normative or Voluntary	Coercive	Utilitarian
Benefit of Membership	Intangible Benefit	Corrective Benefit	Tangible Benefit
Type of Membership	Volunteer Basis	Required	Contractual Basis
Feeling of Connectedness	Shared Affinity	No Affinity	Some Affinity
Other Characteristics	Members donate money and time to the movement	Steep hierarchy, rigid submission to authority, order, and repetitive way of life	Focused on productivity

All organizations have **informal structures**, which may be as important to the functioning of an organization as their formal structure. Friendships, allegiances, and loyalties between organization members make up informal structures.

F. Max Weber: Verstehen and the Rationalization of Society

Many of Max Weber's works have been highly influential, including *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism* and *Economy and Society*. The former work asserts that capitalism is derived from a **Protestant work ethic** and is concerned with **predestination**. According to Puritan beliefs, predestination suggests that suffering was the outcome of a pre-assigned destiny designed by God. Meanwhile, the latter work supports Weber's **rationalization thesis**, which argues that a certain type of Western reasoning has replaced traditional forms of authority.

Max Weber's Verstehen

Weber examined how individuals in society can interpret certain actions and behaviors. He described his method for examining social ties and behaviors using the German word **verstehen** (**"understanding"**). Two different approaches can be taken to gain a better understanding of a subject.

- **Observational verstehen**: A method of understanding the motivations and subjective aspects of another agent by observing their signs and external behavior. This can be done by observing facial expressions, body language, and other cues.

- **Explanatory verstehen** or interpretive verstehen: Investigating and explaining the agent's actions in terms of the subject's motivations.

For Weber, the second strategy is more illuminating and empathetic as it explains **why** people behave the way they do. Additionally, a researcher can employ an ideal type of something to delve further into its social context. An **ideal type** is not the "best" or "perfect" version of something; rather, it is an abstract idea of the aspects of the concerned issue that are the most constant.

Types of Rationality

Weber divides **social action into four types of rationality**, each characterized by a different logic. When a member of society does an action, their reasoning will manifest one of these rationalities:

Table 35 - 6: Four types of rationality

Practical Rationality	Individuals display sensible reasoning in their **day-to-day lives** by setting **achievable goals** and determining the steps required to reach them. Example: If one needs a car to get to work, one puts a reasonable action and savings plan together to purchase a vehicle.
Substantive Rationality	When people act according to **their core values**, they are exhibiting substantive rationality. Example: If a person takes on a public service job, it is likely because they believe they have a sense of duty to serve others. However, social conditions can sometimes make it difficult for people to act in a substantively rational manner. Example: The individual who accepts a position in public service may experience financial difficulties.
Formal Rationality	This describes a mode of thinking whereby people focus on obeying **formal procedures or rules**. This type of rationality is often seen in **bureaucratic institutions**. Another example is driving on the left side of the road in England.
Theoretical Rationality	This is often thought of as a **scientific endeavor**, where people use **formal logic** or models to explain the world. However, rationality can also be exhibited in social action. In other words, people can be rational when they use logic and reasoning to make decisions, even if those decisions are not based on scientific models.

Rationalization of Society

Rationalization is the process of making something more efficient or easier to understand. It can lead to an **iron cage**, a situation where rules and regulations control people, and innovation is stifled. This can be dehumanizing, as people are not able to express their individuality.

Moreover, Weber's rationalization thesis posits that social actions are increasingly being organized under different forms of rationality (especially formal rationality). In other words, society is becoming more rationalized, which is replacing earlier models of leadership and structure. Before the modern age, there was more focus on tradition, sentiment, customs, and other methods that may not have been the most effective way to achieve a goal. Weber saw that in the modern age, deliberate *formal rationality* became the basis for calculating the most effective modes of action to maximize the ability to reach goals.

The first type of action is **affective action**, in which a person acts impulsively according to their "affect" or "emotions." The second involves acting based on a tradition known as **traditional action** or what is considered normal. For example, if someone steps into their father's position/role at their family business without thinking about it, they might be acting traditionally.

G. Bureaucracies

According to Max Weber, bureaucracy is characterized by a division of labor, a hierarchy of authority, clear norms, and sometimes even impersonality.

- **Hierarchy of authority** is the aspect of bureaucracy that places one individual or office in charge of another. Each position is a level on the hierarchy of authority. Consider employees at a retail store. The shift supervisor assigns tasks to the employees. That shift supervisor then reports to a store manager. The store manager answers to the regional manager. This management chain continues from the bottom of the organization to the CEO.

- **Clear division of labor** is defined as the fact that everyone in a bureaucracy has a specialized task to perform. While some tasks may overlap, it is mostly clear who performs what tasks. Think about college professors. While they work for the college, they would not handle students' financial aid.

- **Explicit rules** refer to how tasks are outlined, written down, and standardized. Some examples of explicit rules are outlined in a student handbook or an employee manual. These are updated as regulations change.

- **Impersonality**, or the exclusion of personal feelings from a professional setting, is another trait of bureaucracies. This characteristic evolved from the need to protect organizations from **nepotism,** the practice of favoring family members or close friends for employment or promotions, regardless of their qualifications or merits.

- Theoretically, bureaucracies are **meritocracies**, meaning that hiring and promotion decisions are based on proven and documented accomplishments rather than bias or chance.

- Bureaucracies are characterized by an **iron rule of oligarchy** in which only a few elites rule an entire organization.

While they generally seem negative, bureaucracies have some positive aspects, such as their efficiency. They also make sure that there are equal opportunities for all. Within bureaucracies, most situations require that there is a strict hierarchy.

H. The McDonaldization of Society

Drawing on Weber's theory of bureaucracy, sociologist **George Ritzer** suggested that, in a capitalist system, those who follow a process he terms "**McDonaldization**" are more likely to be successful. Despite the term's origin with the fast-food giant McDonald's™, Ritzer contends that most facets of American society have undergone McDonaldization—that is, **four principles** drive them: efficiency, predictability, calculability, and control.

- **Efficiency** measures how well a system or process operates. It compares systems or processes to identify the most efficient. Efficiency is determined by how well inputs are converted into outputs. Fewer inputs mean a more efficient system or process.

- **Predictability** matters to businesses, like restaurants, as it lets customers know what to expect regardless of location. Predictable locations help build customer loyalty and keep them coming back.

- **Calculability** is prioritized by fast-food restaurants that value speed and quantity over quality. Large, affordable, and quick meals are preferred. Success in a McDonaldized society is measured by timely job completion. In business and economics, "calculability" refers to the availability of items in bulk, maximizing efficiency and minimizing waste.

- Businesses exert **control** over employees and customers. Employees are trained for specific tasks and often face micromanagement via technology or supervisors. Uniformity, often including name badges and sometimes hats/aprons, is common. Security systems protect merchandise and employees.

Chapter 6: Review Questions

1. Zoe admires the cheerleaders at her school and enjoys watching them at games. She frequently copies hairstyles that she sees the girls wearing. The cheerleading squad is an example of a _____.

    A. Primary group
    B. Secondary group
    C. Tertiary group
    D. Reference group
    E. Dyad group

2. Which of the following is NOT a characteristic of members in an ingroup?

    A. An awareness of the outgroup's differences.
    B. A sense of 'we' rather than 'I.'
    C. A feeling of unity.
    D. Similar likes/dislikes.
    E. Same preferences.

3. Brenda supervises a large group of employees and frequently encourages them to be creative and to use teamwork to solve problems. She listens to her employees before making a decision. Which of the following describes Brenda's style of leadership decision-making?

    A. Laissez-faire
    B. Authoritarian
    C. Democratic
    D. Expressive
    E. None of these

4. What preventative measures can be taken to reduce the chances of groupthink?

    A. Support debate and productive conflict in the group.
    B. Encourage full participation by every group member.
    C. Divide group members into smaller brainstorming groups before sharing ideas with the larger group.
    D. All the answers are correct.
    E. None of these.

5. Which of these is NOT a characteristic of groupthink?

    A. Feeling unable to disagree because of group size.
    B. Every group member feels included.
    C. Majority often feels unanimous.
    D. Thinking all actions are right and correct.
    E. Difficulty in expressing dissent.

6. Which of the following is NOT one of Weber's four types of rationality?

    A. Substantive rationality
    B. Subjective rationality
    C. Practical rationality
    D. Theoretical rationality
    E. Emotional rationality

7. According to Max Weber's model of bureaucracy, the following are characteristics of a bureaucracy:

I	II	III	IV
A fixed set of rules and regulations	Power is distributed hierarchically	Employment is based on the qualifications of the applicants	Rules are to be meted out impartially

    A. I only.
    B. IV only.
    C. II, III, and IV only.
    D. I, III, and IV only.
    E. I, II, III, and IV.

8. More and more people are signing up on social media sites every day. Trying to understand why people are doing this is an example of _____.

    A. Capitalism
    B. Rationalization
    C. Verstehen
    D. Bureaucracy
    E. McDonaldization

9. A prison is an example of a(n) _____.

    A. Coercive Organization
    B. Informal Organization
    C. Utilitarian Organization
    D. Normative Organization
    E. Transactional

10. Which of the following is NOT one of the principles of McDonaldization?

    A. Automation
    B. Control
    C. Calculability
    D. Efficiency
    E. Predictability

Chapter 7: Deviance, Crime, and Social Control

Overview

This chapter first discusses deviance and its causes and types. Afterward, it describes ways to maintain social order through sanctions and social control measures. Lastly, it presents the different types of crime and theories on why or how crimes happen.

Learning Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Explain the causes and types of deviance.
- Identify the types of sanctions, social control, and crimes.
- Understand how sociological theories can be applied to deviance and crime.
- Describe the fundamental criminal justice models.
- Discuss crime statistics specific to the United States.

A. Deviance and Control

Sociologist **William Graham Sumner** defined deviance as the violation of established contextual, cultural, and social norms, whether folkways, mores, or codified by law. Deviance can be seen as offensive by others but is not always considered "bad." For example, someone who dresses neatly in a group where most people dress casually may be seen as deviating from the norm, but this does not necessarily mean their behavior is wrong. When we act in a way that goes against social standards, we frequently have to endure some **negative informal sanctions**, such as being shunned or shamed by our social groups, or **negative formal sanctions** imposed by authorities, such as imprisonment. If our behavior conforms to social norms, we usually receive **positive informal sanctions** through social acceptance and popularity. Similarly, we may receive **positive formal sanctions** such as a certificate or a prestigious job.

There is no definite definition of deviant behavior as the definition depends on the **location**, the **audience**, and the **individuals** committing the deviant behavior. What is considered deviant in one culture may not be deviant in another.

Causes of Deviance

Some factors that contribute to **social deviance** include:

- Poverty and lack of essential facilities
- Lack of morality
- Broken family and poor socialization

- Societal rejection
- Mass media influence
- Peer pressure

Types of Deviance

There are **two types of deviance**, formal and informal deviance:

- **Formal deviance** - This is a violation of legislated laws. Examples include murder, rape, and robbery.

- **Informal deviance** - This refers to behavior that goes against informal social norms. There are certain unwritten rules of life that everyone is expected to follow. Breaking these rules is considered wrong and can lead to social consequences. Examples of such deviances include belching loudly, peeping into another person's phone, and picking one's teeth in public.

B. Social Control Theory

Societal organizations often employ social control to maintain social order and ensure conformity to shared norms and values. **Social order** refers to people, groups, and institutions adhering to the social contract by following laws, rules, norms, standards, and values.

Developed by **Travis Hirschi,** the **social control theory**, or **social bond theory,** emphasizes the importance of social bonds in shaping an individual's behavior. These social bonds consist of attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief, which act as internal forces that deter individuals from engaging in deviant behavior.

- **Attachment**: If someone has strong **connections** to the community or its members, they are less likely to commit criminal behaviors that damage the community or its members.

- **Commitment**: If someone has **obligations** to employers, dependents, or other members of the community, then there is a greater chance this can deter an individual from doing criminal activities that impede the fulfillment of their commitments.

- **Involvement in society**: If someone has **low involvement** in society, they are more likely to commit criminal acts.

- **Belief**: If someone strongly believes in the teachings of society, then they are more likely to follow its teachings.

Similarly, **Walter Reckless' containment theory** states that inner containments (personal characteristics like self-control and morality) and outer containments (social influences like family and peer groups) can either deter or push individuals toward delinquency.

Table 36 - 7: Comparisons between pressures and containments

Factors		Description	Adherence to Law
Pressures	Internal	**Within** the person, such as feelings of inferiority, personality traits, or anger issues	More likely to disobey the law
	External	**Outside** of a person, such as abuse, low income, poor living conditions, etc.	
Containments	Internal/Inner	**Within** the person, such as a strong inner compass, resilience, or impulse control	More likely to follow the law
	External/Outer	**Outside** of a person, such as strong family support	

Types of Social Control

- **Informal Control:** Adopting a belief system acquired through socialization, particularly informal socialization. Agents of control are family, colleagues, and friends.

- **Formal Control:** Control deployed by cities, governments, and bureaucratic organizations like the police or the military. Education and religion can also be agents of formal control.

Members of society can also be controlled through the following.

- **Customs:** A traditional, commonly accepted way of acting or doing something unique to a certain society. For example, gift giving at birthdays and/or a wedding. We are simply supposed to do it; no rules require us to.

- **Laws:** Written or unwritten rules that a community uses to control behavior are enforced through punishments. Unlike customs, laws are mandatory. For instance, kidnapping someone would still result in sanctions and punishments.

- **War:** According to the United States Marine Corps, "war is a violent clash of interests between or among organized groups characterized by the use of military force." An example would be the beginning of World War II when Great Britain and France declared war against Germany for invading Poland.

C. Types of Crime

Although deviance and crime are often used interchangeably, the two are different as **deviation** violates societal norms and conventions that are not always written into law, whereas **crimes** breach statutes,

formal rules, and laws. Crimes are categorized according to the level of severity and involved parties. The harshness of the sentence varies depending on the type of offense.

Type of Crime Based on Level of Severity

Countries sometimes differ in classifying crimes. According to the FBI's Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) Program, crimes in the U.S. are classified as follows:

- **Violent Crimes**: Offenses that involve force or threat of force.

  - Examples: murder, manslaughter, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault.

- **Nonviolent crimes**: Offenses without force or threat of force against the victims.

  - Examples: Property crime, which includes burglary, motor vehicle theft, and arson.

These types of crimes are split into one of three major categories: felony, misdemeanor, or violation. The most serious type of crime, a **felony**, typically entails lengthy prison terms and high fines. A **misdemeanor** is a less serious offense that often entails a brief jail sentence and/or small fines. The least serious type is a **violation** (also called infraction). Typically, violations result in warnings, penalties, or minimal fines.

Type of Crime Based on Involved Parties

- **Corporate crimes**: Crimes committed by white-collar workers, usually in a business environment. Examples include embezzlement, insider trading, and tax evasion.

- **Street crimes**: Crimes that often involve the **general public** and cause harm or injury to another person or people. Examples are arson, assault, and robbery.

- **Victimless crime**: A crime where the perpetrator is not harming another person. Crimes such as drinking beer under the age of 21 are considered victimless.

- **Hate crime**: A criminal act aimed at a person due to their gender, race, ethnicity, religion, sexual identity, or disability. Hate crimes are motivated by prejudicial attitudes toward a group or groups of people.

Other types of crime will be discussed under the Conflict Theory.

D. Sociological Theories on Deviance and Crime

Some sociological theories attempt to explain deviance and crime using social conditions, situations, and pressures. Based on the major theoretical perspectives in sociology, this section will first discuss theories from **functionalism** (social strain theory, social disorganization, and cultural deviance theory), followed by **conflict theory** (unequal system and power elite), and **symbolic interactionism** (labeling theory, social control theory, and differential association theory).

Functionalist Theories

The functionalist perspective views deviance as a normal and potentially functional part of society. It focuses on understanding how deviance can contribute to social stability and order, rather than simply focusing on it as a negative disruption.

Durkheim's Deviance Theory

Emile Durkheim believed that deviance was necessary and served **four vital functions** in society. These functions are:

- Deviance helps to **explain and reinforce the values of a culture**. The punishment of a thief reinforces the norm against stealing, reminding everyone of the expected behavior

- The way society responds to deviant behavior **demonstrates what its moral values** are. For example, if a community has a strong negative reaction to a murder, society as a whole likely disapproves of such an act.

- The response to deviance serves to **unite members of society against outcasts** (those who do not conform to the norms). This function highlights how individuals in a society can come together to address deviant behavior and ultimately strengthen the ties between them.

- Deviance can lead to **social change**. It can challenge existing norms and social structures, potentially leading to positive change. Early 20th-century suffragettes engaged in acts of civil disobedience. Their persistence ultimately led to the expansion of voting rights for women.

Merton's Strain Theory of Deviance

Merton introduced the **strain theory of deviance** to explain the crime rates in America. The theory argues that crime is caused by a **lack of opportunities for people to succeed in society**. The barrier to achieving one's goal creates a strain, which may cause people to deviate from social norms to meet their goals. His typology included several **types of adaptation** or **responses to strain**: rebellion, innovation, ritualism, conformity, and retreatism.

- **Rebellion/rebels**: Individuals attempt to replace society's goals and means of accomplishment with their own; violent means are sometimes used.

- **Innovation/innovators**: A person with a socially acceptable goal uses illegal means (breaking the law) to achieve the goal; examples of illegal means include stealing, embezzlement, and drug dealing.

- **Ritualism/ritualists**: People who abandon their societally accepted goals or accept that they might not achieve them but carry out socially acceptable or legitimate functions.

- **Conformity/conformists**: People who want to fit in or "conform" to established social norms do so by using ways that are approved by society. Some examples of conformity include going to school to further one's education, paying taxes, or obeying the laws set by society.

- **Retreatism/retreatists**: People who reject the goals and means by which society has approved them choose to live completely outside of society or "off the grid."

Robert K. Merton's Deviance Typology

Institutionalized Means

	Accept	Reject
Cultural Goals Accept	CONFORMITY	INNOVATION
Cultural Goals Reject	RITUALISM	RETREATISM

New means

New goals | REBELLION
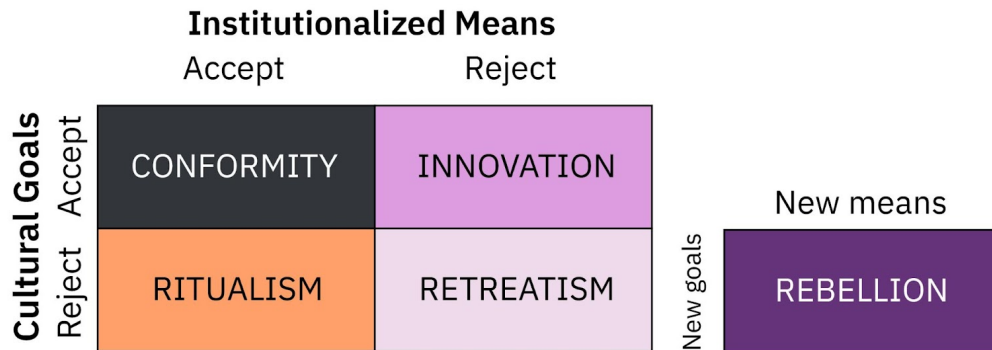
Merton also explained strain theory using the concept of the **American Dream**. The American Dream is the belief that all Americans have equal opportunities regardless of social status. However, the dream was not achieved by some people, so they resorted to deviant behavior, such as robbery, to try to achieve the goal.

Social Disorganization Theory

This theory, developed by **Clifford Shaw** and **Henry McKay**, argues that **areas with weakened social bonds** have a greater likelihood of having more crimes. Such areas include those with high emigration rates, diverse demographics, and poverty. For instance, areas where residents frequently change result in a lack of relationships with neighbors, making them less likely to care for each other. This suggests that public interventions must strengthen social capital, connection, and family ties within communities.

Related to this, the **broken window theory** asserts that visible indicators of crime, antisocial conduct, and civil disorder invite additional crime and disorder. Hence, repairing the damages early on and enforcing social norms may encourage other residents to maintain the standards.

Cultural Deviance Theory

Cultural deviance theory, sometimes used interchangeably with social disorganization theory, suggests that deviance is often the result of the community where a person lives rather than the person. It also implies that there are more crimes in low-income areas than in high-income areas. Clifford Shaw and Henry McKay studied crime and crime patterns in Chicago during the early 1900s. At the time, their research found that there were more crimes or deviance in the middle of Chicago (**transitional zone**), and the number of crimes got fewer in areas farther away from the center. They found that this pattern also followed the migration patterns of the citizens of Chicago. More impoverished immigrants were living in the middle of the city while more privileged individuals went farther from the city. Cultural deviance theory was criticized for having poor test conditions, low reliability, and low cultural awareness.

Social Conflict Theory

Unlike functionalists, conflict theorists focus on how powerful groups use their power to construct laws and policies that criminalize those with less power, thus protecting their interests. Conflict theorists contend that those with high social and political power dictate what can be considered a crime. Likewise, the **social conflict theory of criminology** states that social inequality and a lack of resources lead to an ongoing conflict between the rich and the poor, which in turn causes criminal conduct.

Similarly, the **conflict theory of deviance** states that individuals who are weaker or try to oppose capitalism face harsher punishments for their deviance. People with less influence are more frequently classified as deviants. For example, government officials are less likely to be labeled deviant, but homeless people tend to be considered deviant just because they appear helpless.

Moreover, the **feminist theory of crime** posits that males have more societal power in patriarchal countries, and this discourages female deviance. Based on this, the **theory of double deviance** claims that women who engage in one deviant behavior actually engage in two deviant acts simultaneously. Not only do they deviate from society's norms, but they also disregard norms expected of women. So, in tandem, the feminist theory of crime and the theory of double standard would say that women are frequently evaluated and punished more harshly for their offenses than their male counterparts since society generally expects men to exhibit deviant conduct more frequently than women.

Unequal System

Karl Marx argued that the **continual fight between the proletariat (the working class) and the more powerful elite class (the bourgeoisie)** causes societal turmoil that results in crime. Additionally, he believes that economic inequality leads to the proletariat's discontent, which fuels rebellion and calls for better treatment and compensation.

Power Elite

Expanding Marx's argument, **C.S. Wright Mills** argued that those in top positions in the government, military, and corporations held all the power (the **power elite**). They exert significant influence over society and have the power to define criminal behavior. Their actions can also disproportionately impact those with less influence.

Applications of Conflict Theory of Crime

The type of crime one commits has an impact on the punishment. The severity of the punishment is also dependent on how much power one has.

- **White-collar crime:** Crimes committed by individuals occupying positions of power and societal advantage, typically motivated by financial gain and not usually violent. Conviction of such offenses often results in minimal punitive measures and limited public exposure.

- **Blue-collar crime**: People with lower social status and less financial resources commit crimes of this kind. Due to their lack of influence, those who commit blue-collar crimes tend to face the full force of the law.

- **Corporate crime**: This involves engaging in illegal activity while acting in the organization's best interests. An example is a business that knowingly offers consumers a defective or harmful product. Similar to white-collar criminals, corporate criminals have the status and power to receive little public attention and light punishment.

- **Organized crime**: This refers to the actions of individuals who engage in illegal activities for financial gain, using complex organizational structures. These groups operate through corruption, violence, and international commerce and are involved in a range of criminal activities such as drug trafficking, human trafficking, money laundering, and cybercrime. They consistently seek to profit from their illegal actions and use various tactics to protect and expand their operations globally.

Symbolic Interactionist Theories

Unlike the macro-level approaches of the structural-functional and conflict paradigms, **symbolic interactionism is a micro-level theory** that examines the interactions and exchanges among individuals and small groups. A symbolic interactionist approach to understanding deviance asks why an individual comes to engage in deviant behavior in the first place.

Labeling Theory

Labeling theory posits that the social labels that are applied to people can influence their behavior. For example, someone who is labeled a criminal may be more likely to behave in ways that are consistent with that label.

This theory was introduced by Emile Durkheim and Frank Tannenbaum and popularized by **Howard Becker**. According to the **labeling theory of deviance**, people exhibit deviant actions because their identity is forced upon them by others. (To connect this to its larger context, this would be an example of nurture rather than a natural explanation of behavior.) Thus, stigmatization is necessary for this process to be successful. There are **two types of deviance** under the labeling theory:

- **Primary Deviance**: This is a kind of deviance that the powerful do not notice. It is the initial stage of manifesting deviance when a person does not fully embrace a criminal identity. For example, skipping school and constantly being late.

- **Secondary Deviance**: Once other people identify an individual as deviant (labeling them "a criminal" or "delinquent"), the internalization process begins. The individual then starts to believe the identity to be true and behaves accordingly, reaching secondary deviance.

Retrospective Labeling is a more specific labeling theory that involves connecting a person's prior bad behavior to their current bad behavior. For instance, when someone has recently been caught stealing, witnesses may mention that the offender had been present when things went missing in the past. Even

though this is not true, the fact that the offender was caught stealing could lead others to believe the offender had done it before. Retrospective labeling comes in a variety of forms, some of which are as follows:

- **Descriptive Labels**: Detailed descriptions of the conduct in question.

- **Informative Labels**: Provide information about the person and connect it to their behavior.

- **Grade Labels**: Utilize symbols to indicate the person's supposed behavior.

- **Brand Labels**: Distinguish the behavior from other deviant behavior and connect it to a person.

Differential Association Theory

Edwin Sutherland proposed the **differential association theory**, which states that **criminality is a learned behavior**, and if we often socialize with criminals, we also have a higher chance of committing crimes. Additionally, Sutherland was also one of the first to emphasize white-collar crimes (or crimes committed by powerful or wealthy people), which counters criminology's tendency to focus on crimes from lower-class citizens.

Social Control Theory

The social control theory described in *Section B* of this chapter, the social control theory also has elements that align with symbolic interactionism. This theory emphasizes the importance of social bonds, relationships, and interactions between individuals and their social environment in determining deviance. Social control theory is important for understanding how individuals are influenced by their social environments and how they can be effectively guided toward conforming to societal expectations.

Table 37 - 7: Summary of theories on deviance & crime

Theory	Theorist	Deviance arises from:
Functionalism		
Strain Theory	Robert Merton	Lack of socially acceptable means for people to succeed in society
Social Disorganization Theory	University of Chicago researchers, including Clifford Shaw & Henry McKay	Weak social bonds
Cultural Deviance Theory	Clifford Shaw and Henry McKay	Cultural norms of where the offender lives, especially in low-income neighborhoods
Conflict Theory		
Unequal System	Karl Marx	Continual fight between the working class and the ruling class

The Power Elite	C. Wright Mills	Power elite dictates what is considered deviant to maintain their power
Symbolic Interactionism		
Labeling Theory	Howard Becker	People labeling someone as criminal or deviant
Control Theory	Travis Hirschi	Low societal attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief in mores and norms
Differential Association Theory	Edwin Sutherland	Interactions with criminals which lead to learning their behavior

E. Fundamental Criminal Justice Models

Herbert Packer proposed two fundamental criminal models:

- **Crime Control Model**: A "conservative" justice model asserting that the criminal justice system's main purpose is to prevent and manage the commission of crimes. Its core idea is that penalizing those who commit crimes would deter the general public from committing crimes. An example is the **three-strikes law** in California, where criminals who have multiple felony or misdemeanor charges face substantial punishment.

- **Due Process Model**: A "liberal" justice model arguing that every person has a right to a fair trial. This means that before a decision is reached regarding the accused, all evidence—both incriminating and exonerating—has been taken into account. As the famous phrase coined by the British barrister Sir William Garrow states, defendants are "presumed innocent until proven guilty."

Categorizing the crime control model as "conservative" and likewise the due process model as "liberal" are simplified generalities more than precise definitions. However, understanding that the two models reflect political standpoints in the modern political era is prudent.

F. Crime Statistics

Most public institutions, including colleges, universities, and police departments, are required to submit crime statistics to the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) to evaluate the efficiency of justice systems and the frequency of crimes in a certain area. The FBI usually compiles all the information and publishes the Uniform Crime Reports (UCR). The UCR will not always account for all the crimes that have occurred in the United States, as many crimes go unreported.

To address this, data is also collected annually through **self-reports**. This entails gathering data through voluntary response methods such as questionnaires or telephone interviews. This is headed by the United States Bureau of Justice, and their report is called the **National Crime Victimization Report** (NCVR).

The United States Criminal Justice System

The **criminal justice system** in the United States involves different organizations that exist to help with the enforcement and reinforcement of laws, rules, and regulations (known as the **legal code**). The criminal justice system has **three branches**: police, courts, and corrections.

Police are in charge of enforcing laws and public order at the federal, state, or local levels. While some may think there is a unified force, there are different agencies at the federal, state, and local levels. Some examples of federal agencies are:

- The Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI)

- Central Intelligence Agency (CIA)

- Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, Firearms, and Explosives (ATF)

- Department of Homeland Security (DHS)

County officers only handle county matters, and local agencies handle things in smaller cities or towns. If rural areas are not highly populated, then county officers will usually handle the law enforcement. Even some state agencies will handle rural areas if there is a need.

When solving crimes, the police must still follow **due process**, which means that police and other enforcers must operate according to the law to enable a fair trial for suspected criminals. This is covered by the Fifth Amendment of the Bill of Rights. If violated, a case may be dismissed, and a suspect may be freed.

A person suspected of committing a crime will face a judge and often a jury in court. The **court** is a system with the power to render judgments following the law. There are state and federal courts.

Table 38 - 7: Differences between state and federal courts

State Courts	Federal Courts
• Trial Courts • Appellate Courts • State Supreme Courts	• District Courts • Circuit Courts (also known as Appeals Courts) • The Supreme Court
Most criminal cases take place in trial courts and general jurisdictions.	Handle federal matters such as trade disputes, military justice, and government lawsuits. The judges for federal courts are selected by the president with the consent of Congress.

In trial courts and general jurisdictions, a judge and jury are present, and it is the **jury**'s role to find out if the accused party is guilty or innocent. The judge determines the punishment. However, some states allow the jury to recommend the punishment. Meanwhile, the United States **Supreme Court** is the highest court within the judicial system. The Supreme Court only handles issues of national importance or those involving constitutional rights. Its decisions are final, and they cannot be appealed.

Last, we have the **correction system** that supervises individuals arrested for, convicted of, or sentenced for criminal offenses. According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics, towards the end of 2021, there were approximately 5,444,900 persons under correctional supervision (this includes probation, parole, prisons, and jails) in the United States. Of that 5,444,900, approximately 2,256,920 were incarcerated in jails and prisons. Jails and prisons are completely different. **Jails** are for *temporary* supervision, typically lasting for less than a year while **prisons** incarcerate individuals usually for over a year.

Table 39 - 7: Four basic reasons why society punishes wrongdoers

	Retribution	Deterrence	Rehabilitation	Societal Protection
Definition	Punishment aiming to make the offender experience a level of suffering equivalent to the suffering caused by the crime	Punishment is applied to prevent criminal activity	Punishment aiming to change the offender so that they do not commit crimes again	Punishment that removes the offender from society
Examples	Death penalty	Hefty fines	Drug rehabilitation	Imprisonment or execution

Chapter 7: Review Questions

1. **Primary deviance and secondary deviance are concepts related to which of the following theories of deviance?**

   A. Labeling theory
   B. Differential association
   C. Control theory
   D. Neutralization theory
   E. Strain theory

2. **_____ sanctions are enforced by institutions or governing bodies in our society.**

   A. Formal
   B. Informal
   C. Positive
   D. Negative
   E. None of these

3. **Acme Chemicals was found guilty of knowingly selling an unsafe product to the public. This is an example of:**

   A. Blue-collar crime
   B. Organized crime
   C. White-collar crime
   D. Corporate crime
   E. Street crime

4. **Robert was found guilty of assaulting his neighbor. He was subsequently ordered to pay for his victim's physical and emotional suffering and to cover the victim's medical bills and lost wages. This punishment is an example of _____.**

   A. rehabilitation
   B. deterrence
   C. societal protection
   D. retribution
   E. revolution

5. **Which of the following is NOT one of the major categories of crime?**

   A. Violent crimes
   B. Violations
   C. Felonies
   D. Misdemeanors
   E. Non-violent crimes

6. Anarchist and militant groups would be an example of which mode of adaptation?

   A. Rebels
   B. Conformist
   C. Retreatist
   D. Innovators
   E. None of these

8. Which of these situations best exemplifies Merton's Strain Theory?

   A. Maria and Sean are married with two young children. Maria works while Sean stays at home and watches the children.

   B. Jennifer is not paid enough by her job to buy a car. Most people in Jennifer's society are car owners. Jennifer feels pressured to own a car and steals money from her job to pay for it.

   C. Michael has been selling narcotics for a number of years. He does this because he has an inborn tendency to commit crimes.

7. A vigilante on a television show is viewed as a hero by the community, while law enforcement sees him as a criminal. This illustrates _____.

   A. Anarchist theory
   B. Primary deviance
   C. Labeling theory
   D. Projective labeling
   E. Strain theory

   D. Li dresses in all-black leather clothing and has many piercings. This non-conformity is a natural part of the functioning of Li's society.

   E. In a society that values artistic expression, Alex becomes a painter who creates unconventional artworks. His unique career choice is celebrated as a form of self-expression.

For **Questions 9-10**, please refer to the image provided. These questions aim to test your ability to analyze graphs.

9. Based on this chart, which is the most common *property* crime?

   A. Burglary
   B. Theft
   C. Aggravated assault
   D. Robbery
   E. Rape

10. Based on this chart, which is the most common *violent* crime?

   A. Larceny/theft
   B. Burglary
   C. Aggravated assault
   D. Motor vehicle theft
   E. Robbery

U.S. crime rates per 100.000 people, by offense type, in 2019

● **Violent crimes** ● Property crimes

Larceny/theft	1,549.5
Burglary	340.5
Aggravated assault	**250.2**
Motor vehicle theft	219.9
Robbery	**81.6**
Rape	**42.6**
Murder/non-negligent manslaughter	5

Note: FBI figures for arson are not included because of data limitations.
Source: Federal Bureau of Investifation (FBI).
PEW RESEARCH CENTER
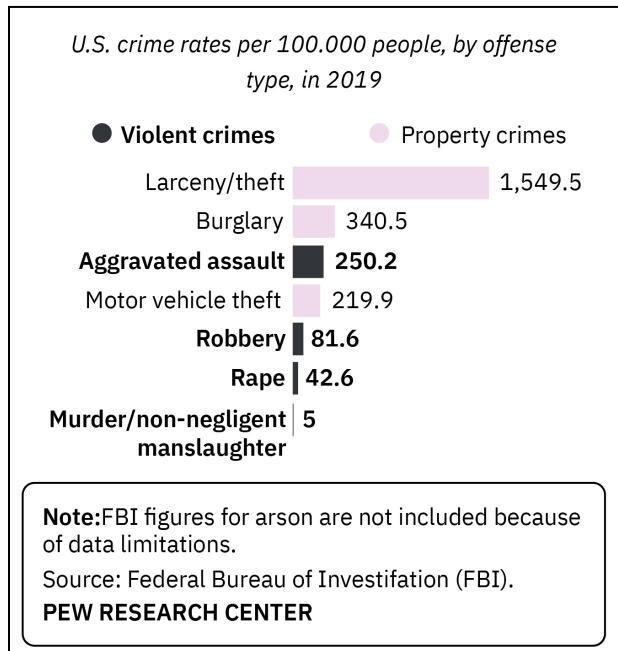
Chapter 8: Media and Technology

Overview

This chapter will explore the implications of media and technology on society. We will look at the different types of media and technology in use today, as well as their potential global implications. We will also explore the various theoretical perspectives proposed to understand media and technology. Finally, we will discuss the role of socialization and social isolation related to media and technology.

Learning Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Define and describe the various forms of media and technology today, including their key characteristics and impact on society.
- Understand the global implications of media and technology, including their role in globalization and cultural exchange.
- Identify and explain the different theoretical perspectives used to understand media and technology and analyze their strengths and weaknesses.
- Evaluate the role of socialization and social isolation in relation to media and technology and discuss their effects on individual and societal behavior.
- Reflect on the ethical considerations and potential consequences of media and technology use.

A. Technology Today

Technology has powerful implications for our society. Technology can refer to the tools and techniques applied within the field of sociology to deepen our understanding of the relationship between technology and **social structure**. It can refer to the technical innovations that affect society, such as the numerous **communication channels** (media) including television, radio, newspapers, magazines, books, films, and the Internet.

There are multiple ways in which technology can be divided and placed into categories. This section will focus on the **patents** for which inventors can apply. A patent is a legal right granted by the government to an inventor or company that allows them to produce or sell a certain item they have created, distinguishing it from others for a certain period.

Table 40 - 8: The three types of patents

Utility patents	Design patents	Plant patents
Grants the **inventor** the **exclusive legal rights** to use, make, & sell a new product or process. This is the most commonly known patent seen by the public. Examples of products granted utility patents include the telephone, mp3 player, & the electric vehicle.	Grants claim to a particular design of a new ornament or decorative look for an item. The item itself can be **tangible or intangible** & the patent does not cover the underlying structure or function of the item. Eligibility for a design patent requires the design elements to be **ornamental in nature** & be more than mere surface ornamentation. Examples of design patents are the ornamental design of a laptop computer, the design of a new car, or the design of a camera.	Granted to an individual or institution that has **discovered or bred a new variety of plants**. Examples of plants that have received patents include the Eve-Flowering Freesia, the Dawg Pound potato, and the Moonflower sea poppies.

In 1882, **Charles Babbage** created the first computer that paved the way for technology today. In 1990, **Philip Anderson** and **Michael L. Tushman** suggested there was an **evolutionary model of technological change,** meaning a breakthrough in one technology leads to other breakthroughs. This is closely tied with **Moore's Law**, which states that the processing power of technology doubles approximately every two years. Think about the first storage disks. They started as huge, floppy disks, then they turned into smaller, square discs, and now we have even smaller flash drives and memory cards.

The growth of technology has both positive and negative effects on sociology. The introduction of machines led to fewer manual labor jobs but increased the need for machine operators and mechanics, which essentially culminated in the **urbanization** of society.

Social media technologies have allowed people to collaborate on projects, discuss their beliefs, and develop relationships more easily than ever before. Unfortunately, the rise in technology has encouraged an unhealthy, excessive reliance on social media and has created a level of **digital addiction**. For some, checking their social media multiple times a day has become a **compulsion,** and **technology overload** can lead to stress and anxiety.

Technology has also had a profound influence on research and data. Through more advanced **data analysis**, researchers can now make more informed observations and predictions about social trends.

Technological stratification refers to dividing a society's citizens into different social classes based on their access to and use of technology. The **technological inequalities** within society are categorized into two types: the **usage divide** and the **knowledge divide**. Some individuals may have access to the latest technology while others may not (**usage divide**). Some individuals may be proficient in using certain technology while others may not (**knowledge divide**).

This disparity in understanding and using technology can lead to inequality in job opportunities, education, and power. Furthermore, poor access to technology can cause disparities in access to resources, information, and services that foster social inequality. These disparities can affect people's ability to compete in a global, **tech-driven economy**. Even as we try to close the digital divide, there is another evident gap—**e-readiness**. This is the preparedness to effectively use digital technologies to support technology-enabled solutions in an increasingly digital world.

Net Neutrality

Net Neutrality is the principle that **internet service providers** (ISPs) should treat all Internet traffic equally regardless of its source, destination, or content. It means ISPs cannot discriminate against certain types of data or speed up or slow down access to specific websites or services. First established in 2015 by the **Federal Communications Commission** (FCC), former President Barack Obama enacted net neutrality in the United States to ensure the freedom and openness of the Internet for all consumers and businesses. **Conflict theorists** suggest that discrimination in internet service (e.g., establishing different service tiers for businesses or individuals) could lead to large companies like Amazon paying for premium services to maintain profitability. It could potentially disadvantage smaller, local businesses, who would be unable to afford the same premium service and thus would have difficulty competing. This could result in an oligopoly.

Types of Media and Technology

Advances in media and technology have become essential components of our everyday lives, allowing us to connect and engage with the world in unprecedented ways.

Table 41 - 8: Types of media & technology

Print Newspaper	Radio	Television	Films	New Media
One of the earliest forms of **print media**. The invention of the printing press changed the way people shared the news. The evolution of print newspapers has allowed more individuals access to newspapers, magazines, etc.	The invention of the broadcast radio made mass media a reality, & allowed people to listen to news reports & music in real time from all over the world.	Television dramatically changed how people consumed media & information. Television became the perfect vehicle for education & awareness, leading to changes in the political landscape of the twentieth century.	The film industry skyrocketed during the 1930s. Today, society has new options for watching movies, such as streaming technologies.	Defined as the encompassing of all interactive forms of information exchange. It includes social media websites, such as Facebook & Twitter, blogs such as WordPress, podcasts, Wikipedia, & virtual worlds such as Half-life.

x

x

x

x

The Future of Media and Technology on Society

There are three newer technologies that are considered to be having a drastic impact on society today.

1. **Virtual Reality (VR)**: VR technology enables people to immerse themselves in virtual experiences, such as exploring different worlds or attending events from a distance. It allows people to interact with digital content in an incredibly rich and engaging way, inspiring new ways of learning, experiencing art, entertainment, and much more.

2. **Artificial Intelligence (AI)**: AI technology enables machines to intelligently understand and process complex data to make decisions and solve problems. It revolutionizes how businesses operate, allowing them to use data to quickly identify patterns, provide accurate predictions, and make the most efficient and cost-effective decisions.

3. **Robotics**: Robotics enable machines to physically interact with the environment through automated tasks. Businesses can automate tedious and repetitive tasks, reducing the need for human labor and aiding in producing more accurate and efficient products. Robotics is also helping people with physical disabilities to improve their quality of life.

B. Global Implications of Technology and Media

Media Globalization

Media globalization is the process of integrating all forms of media by exchanging ideas across cultures. It refers to the spread of media products and services worldwide, allowing people to consume international media such as film and entertainment shows, television programs, newspapers, magazines, and books, regardless of physical borders. An example of media globalization would be companies from different countries joining forces to produce a new television series or a movie.

Recent statistics taken between 2018 and 2023 suggest that there are approximately 1,279 different newspapers, 74,578 book publishers, 7,416 different magazines, and 15,445 commercial radio stations within the United States. However, these figures are misleading. Most media outlets are owned and controlled by fewer and fewer owners. This is referred to as **media consolidation** and creates an oligopoly. An **oligopoly** is a market structure where few firms control a given marketplace. In 1983, 50 corporations owned a bulk of mass media outlets. As of 2023, only about six corporations have control over 90 percent of media outlets. They are:

- Comcast
- Walt Disney
- AT&T

- Paramount Global
- Comcast
- Sony
- Fox

The significance of oligopolies is often underestimated. Competition reduction may compromise the quality of service for consumers since dissenting opinions and diverse viewpoints are less likely to be shown.

Technological Globalization

Technological globalization is the exchange of information, communication, and products across cultures, made possible by technological advances. An example of technological globalization is the ability to access the same online services, such as streaming media, virtually anywhere in the world.

Technical diffusion is defined as the spread of technology across borders. In 2008, the World Bank Report shared the benefits of diffusion, stating that **technological progression** and economic growth were intertwined; this led to technological advancement and improvement for those living in poverty. The report also highlighted that low-tech and rural products could benefit from new **technological innovations**.

There is always that digital divide among the countries of the world. Technological growth in some countries has increased dramatically while there has been little spread in others. Some individuals have no training and skills in new technology and, therefore, need help to navigate it.

C. Theoretical Perspectives on Media and Technology

Media and technology have become a defining part of everyday life in our increasingly globalized world. Let's explore the theoretical perspectives on media and technology by explaining their intersection and examining their implications in today's world.

Functionalism

The functionalist theory assesses how media and technology effectively contribute to the well-being and functioning of modern society. It focuses on how these technologies can improve and enhance everyday life. The theory recognizes that media and technology can shape social relationships and institutions and how people experience the world. According to functionalism, technology provides four main functions.

Table 42 - 8: Functionalism applied to media and technology

Commercial Function	Entertainment Function	Social Norm Function	Life-Changing Function
Refers to the use of media & technology for the purposes of marketing & generating economic benefits. A brand may launch a website with helpful information, run	The provision of enjoyment, pleasure & emotional satisfaction to audiences. An example of this entertainment function is the growth of streaming services, such as Netflix,	Has to do with the media's role in reflecting & influencing societies. Media & technology socialize people by teaching them attitudes, values, beliefs &	Refers to the way that media & technology can be used to bring about change in people's lives. An example of a life-changing function is how social media can connect people from

advertisements, and use sophisticated data-driven tools to target customers, with the direct aim of getting people to buy more of their products. These tactics create a unified customer experience, leading to sales.	due to convenience, variety, & affordability.	behaviors appropriate for society and culture. For example, the media will produce shows teaching children the importance of respecting their parents and having a good education.	around the world and create a sense of global community. By allowing individuals to connect & share ideas, social media can help to create social movements & generate revolutionary changes in society.

Conflict Perspective

Conflict perspectives focus on the creation and reproduction of inequality—more specifically, how the media may disrupt society instead of providing positive operations. One of the major focuses of the conflict perspective concerning media and technology is how different access to vast amounts of media and technology become embodied within the digital divide.

Some powerful individuals and social institutions have a huge influence on what types of technologies are introduced to society and when they should be introduced. They also control what is portrayed in the media. This is an example of **gatekeeping**, the practice of shaping thousands of messages into something appropriate for mass media and reducing them to a manageable level. Simply put, those in charge of the media decide what the public should be exposed to.

Gate Keeping Theory

N - Source of news item
N1,2,3,4 - News items
M - Audience
N1,4 - Discard item
N2,3 - Selected item
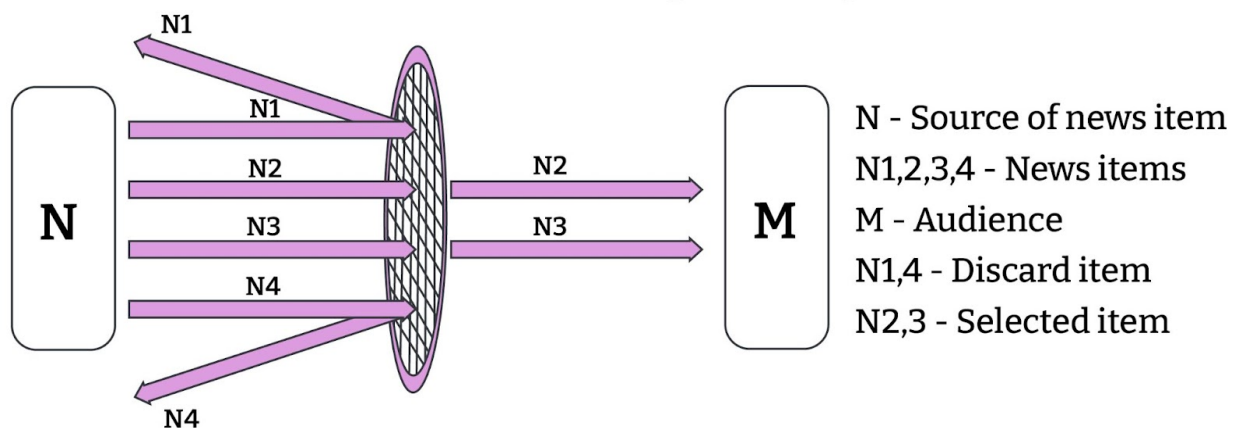
Some conflict theorists suggest that the media in the United States has added to an already unbalanced political arena. This means that only those who have the means, usually wealthy individuals, can and will have more exposure through media outlets. Take political advertisements on television, for example. Suppose an independent ran for office against the established political parties. In that case, they may not have the finances to run the same quantity of advertisements as the candidate with the monetary support to place frequently running commercials on television and multiple media outlets.

Let's discuss technological, social control, and digital surveillance. In the late 18th century, Jeremy Bentham described a system of surveillance in which individuals are constantly monitored, often without their knowledge, creating a sense of being under constant observation. This concept, called **panoptic surveillance**, can be seen in various technologies today. We can be monitored via cell phones, digital cameras, and social media as well as through facial recognition technology.

Feminism

Feminist perspectives have highlighted the pervasive influence of media in shaping societal perceptions of women. Throughout history, women have been subjected to idealized beauty standards. Feminist scholars argue that these unrealistic standards contribute to the creation and reinforcement of harmful stereotypes. From video game characters to comic book heroines, female representations are often shaped by societal expectations of femininity. Even news media can perpetuate these stereotypes, featuring conventionally attractive women as news anchors, often driven by ratings considerations. This exposure to idealized female imagery can create unrealistic expectations for women, potentially leading to feelings of inadequacy and body image issues. **Cyberfeminism**, which focuses on applying and advocating for feminism online, has gained growing prominence in conversations about new media and feminism.

Symbolic Interactionism

Technology serves as a symbol to many people, offering insight into what they stand for and their social status. From the car they've chosen to the clothes they wear, technology can reflect an individual's wealth. This is why some, referred to as **neo-luddites**, view technology as a symbol of alienation in modern life. Those on the opposite end of the spectrum, known as technophiles, view technology as a beacon of hope for a brighter future.

The media is well-known for constructing and spreading symbols throughout society, providing a shared understanding to the public. It can construct reality in various ways, such as allowing viewers to become part of a primary or small informal group, which can also act as a reference group.

D. Socialization and Social Isolation

Given the advancement of technology, people can now learn about other cultures across the globe even without leaving their homes (socialization). At the same time, some are hooked to their gadgets for entertainment, which decreases their human interaction (social isolation).

- **Socialization**: A process through which a group teaches each member the norms and abilities necessary to contribute to that community. It is a lifelong process of acquiring or disseminating social norms, habits, and beliefs.

- **Social Isolation**: A lack of interaction with others in a person, a group, or society. It is one of the main strategies used to teach social norms, as people who violate norms are isolated.

Agents of Socialization

As discussed in Chapter 5, Section E, agents of socialization are the forces in someone's life that impart knowledge about the world and their place in it. The four main socializing agents include **family**, **schools**, **peers**, and **the media**. **Media** can enable communication between people and their relatives from far away, as well as provide information that people might not otherwise have access to.

However, media can also expose children to violent or sexual material and media bias, which can reinforce harmful stereotypes about gender, race, etc., and potentially reduce in-person socialization in favor of online interactions.

Moral Panic & Mass Hysteria

Moral panic and mass hysteria refer to the phenomena that manifest through exaggerated or irrational reactions of people to events or groups of people they think to threaten the existing social order or culture. **Moral panic** refers to the induced fear in a group of people perpetuated by the media. In contrast, **mass hysteria** refers to the unidentifiable source of psychological trauma that leads to a collective outbreak of symptoms among them. Both of these exhibit similar symptoms of fear and paranoia; however, how they manifest and develop differs significantly. Throughout history, several instances of moral panic and mass hysteria can be found, and they highlight the deeper psychological impact of such occurrences.

Media and technology often play a central role in how moral panic and mass hysteria are spread and perpetuated. The media create and reinforce a particular set of expectations and beliefs about the social order, and technology can be used to spread these messages and incite intense public outcries. It can damage individuals or groups who are the target of moral panic and mass hysteria. For example, moral panic and mass hysteria can lead to increased surveillance of certain communities, increased regulation of certain types of technology, or even restrictions on certain kinds of released content. In the field of sociology, these events are closely observed and examined to understand how media and technology shape our perceptions of different communities and how powerful public outcries can be used to influence governmental regulation.

Mass Behavior in Technology & Media

Mass behavior is a form of collective behavior where individual members of a group adopt certain attitudes and/or behaviors seen and shared by other members. Mass behavior results from social interactions and is often seen as a component of the larger social structure. Examples of mass behavior include conformity, mob mentality, fads, and fashion trends. Mass behavior is a key area of study within sociology, as it provides important insight into how society functions and changes over time.

Table 43 - 8: Mass behavior within technology & media

Mass Hysteria	Gossip	Fads	Fashion	Rumors
The phenomenon of a group exhibiting a similar emotional, behavior, or physical response to a situation, regardless of the actual cause. Often caused by information that can spread rapidly across the media. The propagation of fear combined with media and technologies can cause people to act based on emotion rather than facts.	Often involves deceitful, exaggerated, or false stories that can be spread like wildfire if they involve famous individuals. Social media and other digital technologies have the potential to spread gossip quickly and widely, often with little regard for the truthfulness of the information.	Short-lived crazes that can spread quickly through media and technology. Popular items influenced by fads may become more widely available due to increased demand. For example, sneaker companies often launch limited-edition collections inspired by current fads, which can be promoted on social media & digital marketing platforms.	Can have a huge impact on media and technology. Media and technology are used as a platform for influencers & brands to showcase the latest trends. Fashion-related websites & magazines can capitalize on the latest trends to create content that draws in readers.	Stories that spread quickly through media and technology. Digital platforms can quickly spread rumors & these can have serious consequences as people make decisions based on the rumors.

Chapter 8: Review Questions

1. **A type of patent that is granted to those who create the design for a new item, not the physical item itself.**

   A. Utility patent
   B. Design patent
   C. Plant patent
   D. All of the above.
   E. None of the options are correct.

2. **What is the term for unequal access to technology?**

   A. The digital divide
   B. The knowledge gap
   C. Media globalization
   D. Technological globalization
   E. Media consolidation

3. **Why is the increase in the digital divide considered to be negative?**

   A. Because it spreads knowledge equally.
   B. Because it makes it impossible for anyone to succeed.
   C. Because it creates a knowledge gap.
   D. Because it allows those who try harder to succeed.
   E. It is not considered negative.

4. **Bob lives in America. Ralph lives in Germany. Bob and Ralph follow each other on Twitter, where they are confronted with each other's ideas and cultures. What is this an example of?**

   A. Knowledge gap
   B. Digital divide
   C. Technological globalization
   D. Media globalization
   E. Media consolidation

5. **An oligopoly occurs when?**

   A. Firms don't control the market.
   B. Only one firm controls the market.
   C. Many firms control the market.
   D. There are a few firms that control the market.
   E. Only the government controls the market.

6. **How are a crowd and a mass different?**

   A. Both are groups of people rallied around a common concern, but people in a mass are not within close proximity of each other.
   B. A mass is a group of people rallied around a common concern, while a crowd is a group of people with different concerns.
   C. A crowd is a group of people rallied around a common concern, while a mass is a group of people with different concerns.
   D. Both are groups of people rallied around a common concern, but people in a crowd are not within close proximity of each other.
   E. They are not different.

7. **A teacher reported a petrol smell in class and said he felt ill. His students immediately reported the same symptoms. This is an example of _____.**

   A. Poor lesson planning
   B. Regression therapy
   C. Moral panic
   D. Mass hysteria
   E. Casual behavior

8. **Why is mass media an important agent of socialization?**

   A. It allows children to learn things without the supervision of an adult since they can watch TV in their rooms.
   B. It is where children get their first sense of right and wrong and develop other important value systems.
   C. It reinforces gender stereotypes and allows children to see things their parents might not want them to
   D. It is not important when it comes to socialization.
   E. It is the first agent that exposes children to societal norms

9. **Ruby thinks that Sam looked intoxicated at the office party so she mentions to another co-worker that he must have been drunk because his girlfriend probably broke up with him. This is an example of a _____.**

   A. truth
   B. rumor
   C. mass hysteria
   D. fad
   E. fashion

10. **Among the answers listed, which are platforms of mass media?**

   A. Radio.
   B. Television.
   C. Internet.
   D. Options A, B, and C are correct.
   E. None of the options are correct.

Chapter 9: Social Stratification

Overview

In this chapter, we will discuss the different aspects of social stratification using different approaches. We'll start by introducing social stratification and its basic principles, different stratification systems, and how it is based and structured in the United States. Then, we'll discuss the economic changes regarding stratification, poverty in the US, and at-risk populations. The chapter examines social mobility and class systems, global stratification and how it is divided into income classifications, wealth, and poverty on a global scale, as well as issues faced by various nations worldwide. Finally, it looks at theoretical perspectives on global stratification, from modernization theory to world systems theory, and their strengths and weaknesses.

Learning Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Define social stratification and its principles, including how it is structured in the United States.
- Identify the different types of stratification systems and how they impact individuals and societies.
- Analyze economic changes and their effects on social stratification, including poverty and at-risk populations in the United States.
- Explain the concepts of social mobility and class systems, including their role in perpetuating or challenging social stratification.
- Evaluate global stratification, its different classifications, and the issues faced by different countries around the world.

A. What is Social Stratification?

Social stratification refers to the ranking of individuals in a society based on various factors, including wealth, authority, and status, illuminating social disparities and imbalances worldwide. There are two dimensions within stratification: gaps **between** nations and gaps **within** nations. Population size, geographic size, and income figure into how nations are stratified globally. **Global stratification** is often interpreted as economic inequality by comparing the wages of one country to another.

Global inequality focuses on the concentration of resources in some nations and how they affect the opportunities of those in less fortunate and less powerful countries. The **Gini Coefficient** measures the economic inequality of a population. It uses a scale between 0-100 where 0 represents perfect equality, and 100 represents complete inequality, such as when one person in a population would earn all the income, and the rest would earn nothing.

Four Basic Principles of Social Stratification

- **Societal Trait** – Social stratification emerges naturally in any society due to flexible boundaries and resource access. In a capitalist society, for example, social stratification forms based on the amount of resources each group can access and accumulate.

- **Carries Between Generations** – Typically, social stratification will remain similar between generations as resources tend to be inherited. For example, in a society based on wealth, those in the higher socioeconomic classes are more likely to pass those resources and opportunities down to their children.

- **Variable Structure** – The specific structure of social stratification varies from society to society. In the United States, wealth isn't the only factor that plays into social stratification—race and gender also play a part in determining the amount of privilege and discrimination that people may experience.

- **Inequality in Beliefs** – Social stratification can be reflected in an individual's belief system. For instance, studies have shown that those from lower-income households are more likely to believe in God than those from higher-income households.

Types of Systems

Stratification systems generally refer to how people, groups, and nations are divided into distinct hierarchies of wealth, power, and prestige. Stratification systems can be open or closed. In an **open system**, one's position can change, perhaps via work or merit. The ability to change one's position (**status**) is called **social mobility**. In closed systems, there is no social mobility. Your position is determined at birth. The most common types of stratification systems include **caste**, **class**, and **meritocracy**

Table 44 - 9: Types of stratification systems

Caste	Class	Meritocracy
The roles & rights of individuals are predetermined based on their position in society, and often based on ethnicity, ancestry, or religious beliefs.	An organized & hierarchical structure of social groupings is divided based on social factors like wealth, income, education, & occupation.	Social standing is determined by a person's skills, ability, & effort. Encourages individuals to strive for excellence, challenge themselves, & compete for better opportunities.
For example, in traditional India, the Hindu caste system divided people into four groups based on their occupations: the Brahmins (priests and scholars), the Kshatriyas (warriors and rulers), the Vaishyas (farmers and merchants), and the Shudras (servants).	Typically arranged in ranked order, with some classes having greater privilege & greater access to resources than others.	One example of a meritocracy system of stratification is a university admissions process, wherein applicants are evaluated based on their academic performance and skills.
Castes are **closed** systems.	An example of a class system would be the stratification in a Feudal Society based on land ownership - nobility, clergy, and peasantry.	There is rarely a pure meritocracy.

Unions between individuals of different social groups are called **exogamous**, while unions between individuals of the same social group are called **endogamous**. Closed systems do not allow for exogamous unions.

Status consistency refers to the degree to which socioeconomic indicators such as income, education, and occupation are aligned. Caste systems have high levels of status consistency as these factors all match. In open systems, one can have a low level of education but still have a high income. Think of someone with only a high school degree who works hard and starts a successful business. This is status inconsistency.

B. Recent Economic Changes and Stratification in the United States

The Great Recession (December 2007 to June 2009) led to prolonged high unemployment rates, affecting lower-income individuals the most. Lack of post-recession job opportunities trapped many in long-term unemployment, leading to financial struggles, car and home loss, and reduced access to healthcare.

The COVID-19 pandemic (March 2020 - May 2023) exacerbated economic disparities. By 2021, about one-third of U.S. small businesses closed, notably impacting the restaurant sector. The pandemic also widened wealth gaps. During a short 11-week period in 2020, billionaires' wealth in the U.S. increased significantly while the lower and middle classes faced financial losses. This trend extended globally, with billionaires owning a larger share of household wealth by 2021. The combined impact of the Great Recession and COVID-19 compares to some of the most significant economic and social shifts in decades, with COVID-19 likened to World War II regarding its influence.

C. Social Stratification and Mobility in the United States

Many sociologists define **social class** as a grouping based on common social factors such as:

- Wealth

- Income

- Education

- Occupation

These factors can affect how much power a person has. Other factors that affect social standing include ancestry, race, ethnicity, gender, age, IQ, athletic ability, appearance, achievement, and personal skills.
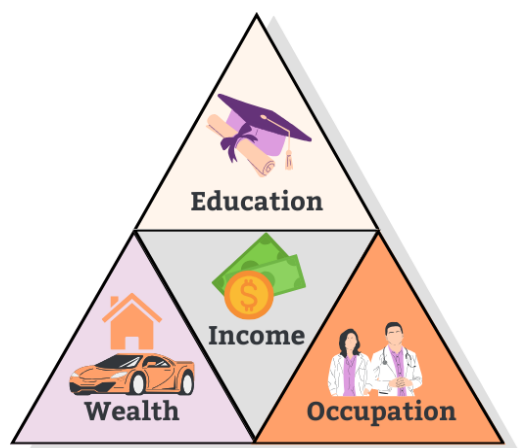
Common Social Factors of Social Class

Evolution of the American Class System

Pre-Industrial Revolution	Post-World War II	Late 20th Century
Ruling	Ruling	Upper
Artisan	New Middle	Middle
Peasant	Peasant	Lower

Before the Industrial Revolution in the **18th and 19th centuries**, class systems appeared uniform worldwide. The **ruling class** consisted of a few wealthy individuals, followed by the **artisan class** with a moderate income, while the **peasant class** had the lowest income. However, factory jobs became the primary type of employment during the Industrial Revolution, and more people moved to the city.

In the **20th century**, the modern American class system was established. During this time, the U.S. supplied the world with cars, machinery, and other goods, which paved the way for the expansion of the new middle class—unlike the original middle class, which consisted of skilled artisans, the **new middle class** included many Americans doing unskilled labor.

After some decades, the **American social structure** further evolved. Instead of the ruling, artisan, and peasant classes, the classification changed to **lower**, **middle**, and **upper** classes. By the **late 20th century**, the lower and upper classes were increasing while the middle class was declining.

Types of Social Classes in the United States

The three main social classes are lower, middle, and upper classes, each having other subcategories. Wealth is usually found within the upper class. Those living in poverty usually are considered to be in the lower class. Moreover, some sociological perspectives have distinguished classes according to the **power and control** that one has over their life.

Upper Class (Ruling class)

The upper class has long had a prominent voice in the United States. For example, the Founding Fathers were among the wealthiest individuals in the Thirteen Colonies at the time. After more than 200 years, people from this class have expanded their businesses, allowing them to amass more money - enough to finance future generations of their families. These families include the Rockefellers, Vanderbilts, Du Ponts, and Hearsts, to name a few. Hence, people from these families are referred to as coming from **old money** because their wealth was initially acquired long ago. Meanwhile, those who have earned wealth recently were labeled as coming from **new money**.

Middle Class

In the 1950s and 1960s, most middle-class people left the urban areas for their homes in a housing tract when suburbs were built. Because the majority of their jobs did not require specialized knowledge,

most did not need to attend college. However, many middle-class jobs in the 21st century require a college degree.

Lower Class (Working Class and Working Poor)

People who have not benefited from the same advantages as the other two classes mentioned above make up the **lower class**. They were left in the cities as the suburbanization process progressed. While schools and other public facilities in the suburbs received plenty of financing, the hearts of cities were neglected for decades.

The lower class is also sometimes subdivided into three:

- **Upper-Lower Class**
  - The highest level within the lower class.
  - Frequently find respectable employment in industries like food service or custodial work. They usually land hands-on jobs that require a lot of physical effort, like landscaping, cooking, cleaning, and construction.

- **Working Poor**
  - They work in low-paying, unskilled jobs, but their roles are frequently seasonal or transitory, and their employers rarely include benefits like health care or retirement planning. The majority in this class are considered to be working poor.

- **Underclass**
  - The lowest tier in the United States.
  - People who usually live within inner cities, do not have jobs, and/or work for jobs with extremely low pay.
  - Usually receive benefits such as SNAP benefits, housing allowances, etc.

Contrary to the widespread belief that those in poverty are lazy, a person's economic situation nearly always depends on the challenges and opportunities that their ancestors had.

Table 45 - 9: Summary of class differences

Upper Class	Middle Class	Lower Class
Managers of middle-class supervisors.	Supervisors of the lower class.	Supervised by the middle class.
Has both power and control over their lives and others.	Has control over their lives but not of others.	Generally has little control and power over others and their lives.

Higher education than the middle class.	**Upper-middle class** usually with bachelor's or postgraduate degrees in business management, medicine, or law. **Lower-middle class** usually have a bachelor's earned from two or four-year colleges or universities, technical certificates, or an associate degree.	Has lower educational attainment than those in the middle class.

D. Poverty in the United States

For many Americans, poverty means struggling to pay for necessities like food, rent, or mortgage. The definition of poverty in the United States includes the inability to buy essential household items such as clothing or furniture. There are various categories of poverty in the United States.

Types of Poverty Classification

The term **relative poverty** refers to a lack of resources compared to a society's average standard of living. For example, a person may be able to pay all their bills but cannot afford a car while their neighbors have more than one car.

Absolute poverty (also called extreme poverty) is the inability to meet basic needs, including food, clean water, shelter, clothing, and education. It is determined by a set poverty line. An individual living alone and earning less than $14,580 in the United States is considered below the poverty line (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2023). The international poverty lines are $2.15, $3.65, and $6.85 per day for low-, lower-middle-, and upper-middle-income countries, respectively (World Bank, 2023).

Subjective poverty is an individual's perception of their financial status. Those whose income does not meet their expectations and perceptions are experiencing subjective poverty. As this is subjective, it is not directly measurable.

Measures for Determining Level of Income

Given the different ways of considering who is poor, the U.S. Census Bureau and other countries use a more concrete way to determine who is poor through the use of the **poverty line**. It is the estimated minimum level of income required to fulfill basic needs and is adjusted based on inflation. There are two ways to calculate this level of income.

- **Poverty Threshold**: It is the estimated minimum level of income, which considers different variables like the number of children and their ages. It may vary depending on the presence of those under and over 18 years old.

- **Poverty Guideline**: It is a condensed version of the poverty threshold and is crucial for determining who is eligible for government benefits and programs. Age or the number of children has no bearing on them; they fluctuate according to household size.

The poverty line calculation is often criticized for failing to account for price differences between areas, government benefits, disability categories, changes in employment trends, and other reasons that prevent people from considering themselves as poor.

At-Risk Populations in the United States

Based on recent data, a notable poverty trend in the U.S. shows increasing poverty, especially among racial minorities, children, and women.

- **Increase in 2020**: The poverty rate was as low as 8.3% in the 1960s and the early 1970s. It had declined in the previous five years but increased again to 11.4% in 2020.

- **Racial Minorities**: Racial minorities in America are more likely to experience poverty. In 2022, African Americans had a poverty rate of 17.1% (U.S. Census Bureau, 2023).

- **Children**: The poverty rate of children (those under the age of 18) has decreased from 16.2% in 2018 to 14.9% in 2023. Children are the poorest age group.

- **Women**: The **feminization of poverty** phenomenon is the observation that women tend to have higher levels of poverty compared to men. For example, women as household heads recorded a 23.4% poverty rate, the highest in the United States and higher than men, who had a rate of 11.4% in 2020.

Standard of Living

What is Standard of Living?

The standard of living refers to a measure of a society's overall well-being, considering economic and non-economic indicators. The standard of living is typically measured based on economic factors such as per capita income, life expectancy, literacy rates, access to education and healthcare, and housing conditions. A strong economy, extended life expectancies, high incomes, good access to healthcare, quality housing, and education accessibility can indicate a high standard of living. Ultimately, the standard of living of a society is an essential indicator for assessing economic growth and individual quality of life.

Table 46 - 9: Criteria for assessing the standard of living

Clean water & sanitation	Adequate shelter	Healthcare	Education	Reasonable working hours	Liveable wages	Healthy diet
Help to prevent the spread of disease, keep people hydrated, &	Safe housing provides people with a secure & comfortable place to live,	Provides people with the essential services they need to stay healthy,	Provides individuals with the skills & knowledge they need to	By guaranteeing reasonable working hours, people can have a	A livable wage should be enough to cover people's essential	A balanced diet consisting of healthy foods provides the nutritional

provide the ability to improve hygiene.	with protection from weather and other external hazards.	including preventive care, diagnosis, treatment & rehabilitation.	become productive & successful.	balanced lifestyle between work, rest & leisure.	needs & leave them with some extra income for leisure activities.	benefits they need to stay healthy & strong.

Standard of Living Factors

A standard of living factor is an indicator used to measure a population's quality of life or well-being. These factors include class disparity, poverty rate, affordable access to healthcare, economic and political stability, infrastructure, and economic growth. These factors can help make decisions and create policies that benefit the population.

- **Class disparity** - Class disparity is the gap between the rich and the poor. An example of this would be the widening wealth gap in the United States, where the wealthiest 1% of the population holds a disproportionate amount of the national wealth.

- **Poverty rate** - Poverty rate is the percentage of people living in poverty. An example of this would be the high poverty rate in many African countries, such as Rwanda, where more than 50% of the population lives in poverty.

- **Affordable access to healthcare** - Affordable access to healthcare is the ability for people to access healthcare without it being unaffordable. An example of this would be the implementation of Obamacare, which provided millions of Americans with access to healthcare at a much lower cost.

- **Economic and political stability** - Economic and political stability refers to a country's reliable economic and political system. An example of this would be the stability enjoyed in the Scandinavian countries, with a robust economy and relatively little political unrest.

- **Infrastructure** - Infrastructure refers to the physical infrastructure of a country, such as roads, railways, ports, etc. An example is the high-quality infrastructure in many European countries, such as Germany, France, and the Netherlands.

- **Economic growth** - Economic growth is the rate at which a country's economy expands. An example of this would be China's recent high economic growth rates.

How is Standard of Living Measured

The standard of living in a country is typically measured using a combination of indicators, including GDP (gross domestic product) per capita, which is a measure of the country's economic output divided by its population, per capita income, which gives us an idea of how much each person in the country earns on average, the Human Development Index, which is a measure of life expectancy, educational attainment, and income and the Gini index, which tells us how evenly distributed income is in a country.

E. Social Mobility

Social mobility is the ability to move up or down within a social stratification system due to changes in economic status. **Vertical social mobility** is movement to a better (**upward**) or worse (**downward**) position within the social hierarchy. For instance, someone born into a low-income family who becomes a doctor through education and hard work would be an example of upward mobility. Conversely, a high-earning executive losing their job and struggling to regain financial stability could illustrate downward mobility.

According to **Sorokin**, **horizontal social mobility** (or lateral mobility) can be defined as any change in religion, occupation, or domicile that does not lead to upward or downward vertical mobility. One simply moves to a similar level or category. An example is a teacher moving from one school to another while maintaining the same position and salary.

Mobility can also happen within or across generations. **Intergenerational mobility** is defined as the variation in socioeconomic class across multiple family generations, and **intragenerational mobility** is defined as the difference in social class within the same generation.

Structural mobility usually occurs when societal changes enable a whole group of people to move up or down the social class ladder. In today's society, many jobs are being outsourced to other countries. This causes individuals in the United States to experience economic setbacks, which in turn has caused a downward structural mobility.

F. Class Traits

The usual behaviors, customs, and norms that characterize each class are considered **class traits**, also known as class markers. Class traits are also an indication of the amount of money that a person can spend on particular things. Some examples include:

Class Traits

Hobbies

Individual or family vacations

Entertainment such as movies, theater tickets, and sporting events

In the past, certain classes were associated with certain leisure activities. While upper-class individuals have significantly more resources and wider access to leisure activities, the lines between social classes and leisure preferences are becoming increasingly blurred in modern society.

G. Global Stratification and Inequality

Global stratification is the unequal distribution of resources around the world. During the 19th century, the Industrial Revolution created large amounts of wealth. New mechanical inventions led to mass production and also increased employment in factories. The increase in employment rates resulted from the need for more persons to operate these mechanical inventions. As some nations became industrialized, they experienced a rise in wealth, while others remained impoverished.

Models of Global Stratification

Three-World Model

This paradigm was created during the Cold War to identify which countries were grouped ideologically. The **Cold War** was a long period of geopolitical tensions between the United States and the former Soviet Union that lasted from 1945 to 1989. During this time, countries were divided into three distinct groups:

- **First world**: The United States and its allies. Colloquially refers to rich, industrialized countries such as Japan, Australia, and Canada.

- **Second world**: The Soviet Union and its allies. Now, it refers to less industrialized countries that were previously communist-socialist, such as Poland and the Czech Republic.

- **Third world**: Those that did not ally with either party. They are often linked to poor, less industrialized countries like Somalia, Pakistan, and Guatemala.

Even though this model is typically regarded as outdated, the Cold War laid the foundation for today's global stratification. For example, countries like Burundi, on the side of the former Soviet Union, are heavily impoverished, while countries like Luxembourg, which was allied with the United States and its allies, are among the richest in the world.

The terms "**first world**" and "**third world**" (the second world has mostly been abandoned) are now commonly used to characterize the financial inequality between countries. The term "**fourth world**" was added later to refer to the world's least developed, poorest, and most disadvantaged places. Many people in these countries have no political affiliations and are hunter-gatherers from tribes or nomadic communities. Despite being fully functional and self-sufficient, they were given a fourth-world status based on their economic performance.

Income Classification Model

The grouping of low, lower-middle, upper-middle, and high-income was first introduced by the World Bank in 1978 and is still used today. The thresholds used to classify nations according to income vary yearly due to inflation. The following list uses the 2021 cutoffs.

- **High-income countries (HIC)**: More than **$12,695 Gross National Income (GNI)** per capita is the cutoff for high-income economies. Although HIC and developed countries share similarities,

they are **not** the same. HIC is based solely on income, while other factors, such as infrastructure and social institutions, determine if a country is developed. According to the dependency model's analysis, high-income nations are likely to be those that benefitted through colonization and still benefit from it today. These nations also tend to exploit the resources of other nations. Australia, Japan, Qatar, the United States, Finland, and French Polynesia are a few examples of these nations.

- The **upper-middle countries** earn **between $4,096 and $12,695** GNI per person. This list includes South Africa, Botswana, China, Iraq, and Argentina.

- The **lower-middle countries** earn **between $1,046 and $4,095** GNI per person. They include El Salvador, Belize, Haiti, Sri Lanka, and India.

- **Low-income countries** have a GNI **below $1,046** per capita. They include Afghanistan, South Sudan, Uganda, and North Korea. Higher birth rates, high unemployment rates, and rural economies are traits of low-income nations.

There are two methods of calculating gross domestic product (GDP). The **expenditure-based approach** sums the total spending of consumer goods and services, investments in capital equipment and inventories, government spending, and exports minus imports. The **income-based approach** sums the total national income, sales tax, depreciation, and **net foreign factor income**.

H. Issues Faced as a Result of Global Stratification

Issues Faced by Different Types of Nations

High-Income Nations

- **Capital flight**: the rapid movement of capital (services, jobs, and manufacturing) from one nation to another nation or region.

- **Deindustrialization**: a loss of manufacturing in industry-based regions, usually to peripheral and semi-peripheral nations where industry costs are lower. Deindustrialization can result from capital flight when no new influx of capital is available once a source is moved to another country. This capital reduction indicates a decline in the growth of a society's economy.

Middle-Income Nations

Debt accumulation is one of the biggest problems in middle-income nations. Debt accumulation is the buildup of external debt when countries borrow from other nations to expand their growth. As global economies are unpredictable, managing debt can become difficult. When the global market decreases the value of a nation's goods, its debt burden becomes much more challenging.

Low-Income Nations

Low-income nations face two significant challenges, the first being that most of the population lives in absolute poverty. Secondly, women are disproportionately affected by poverty compared to men. Examples of countries in this category are Afghanistan, Ethiopia, and Rwanda.

I. Global Wealth and Poverty

Measures of Global Wealth

The standard of living refers to the quantity and quality of material goods and services available to a given population. Although both economic and non-economic elements are measured, economic considerations are more important in determining a country's standard of life. Common metrics for assessing a nation's standard of living include the **gross domestic product** (GDP) and per capita income. **Per capita income** is a metric used to describe a nation's average per-person income. It can be an effective quantitative technique for determining a country's living standard. Alternative measurement techniques include the **Human Development Index** (HDI) and **Gini index**.

Global Feminization of Poverty

Research shows that women experience a disproportionate level of poverty over men and thereby bear the greatest socio-economical disadvantages. More women than men live in poor conditions without proper health care, are malnourished and lack clean drinking water. There are many reasons why this is happening. Let's take a look at three of them:

1. There has been an increase in the number of women-led households.

2. Women and girls face intra-household discrimination in education, which affects their skill levels and, thus, their economic opportunities.

3. Implementing policies that focus on privatizing industries, free trade, and limited government intervention has led to a global economic upset in the markets worldwide and negatively affected women.

African Countries

Some African countries face agricultural challenges due to limited arable land, a condition influenced by historical factors, including the 'scramble for Africa' beginning in the 1880s. During this period, European powers claimed large portions of sub-Saharan Africa and extensively utilized the continent's natural, agricultural, and mineral resources. The boundaries established by European powers often did not align with existing cultural or geographic divisions, which has been a factor in some of the political and social challenges these nations face today. These historical events have been considered as one of the contributing factors to the risk of civil conflict and poverty in some regions. However, it's important to recognize the complexity of these issues and the multitude of factors involved.

Asian Countries

Factors contributing to poverty in Asia include its large population and dependence on natural resources for income. Urbanization and a decrease in agricultural land have impacted food prices. Higher food prices can lead to malnutrition and illnesses. Similarly, natural disasters have the potential to impact tourism and agriculture, causing financial loss. Furthermore, global economic trends, including recessions, have impacted industries and employment rates in Asia, influencing aid programs and financial stability.

MENA Countries (Middle East and North Africa Region)

The Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region exhibits significant economic disparities, with income levels varying considerably between oil-producing nations like Iran, Qatar, and Saudi Arabia and resource-scarce countries like Syria and Yemen. Several countries are involved in armed conflict, further impacting financial stability and employment opportunities. Due to the continued need for services, many public employees, teachers, and hospital staff work without a salary, sometimes for years.

Consequences of Poverty

Inadequate health care, lack of birth control, and the absence of educational resources can fuel a cycle where the consequences of poverty can also be the cause. In their global inequality studies, Neckerman and Torche divided the consequences into three different areas:

- **The Sedimentation of Global Inequality**
  - This theory highlights the previously mentioned reciprocal cycle that exists when the consequences of poverty are also the causes. For example, being born into a low-income family often means being a poor adult.

- **Mental Health and Physical Health**
  - Emotional stress and feelings of deprivation affect people's physical and mental health. The impoverished experience more food insecurity, leading to poor physical health, for which they are often unable to receive adequate care.

- **Prevalence of Crime**
  - Across the globe, crime rates are higher in countries that have higher levels of income inequality.

Slavery

Slavery refers to a condition where an individual is legally owned and controlled by another person, often being compelled to work without fair compensation. Chattel slavery, a form seen historically in the pre-Civil War American South, involves individuals being treated as personal property. This category includes child slavery, where children are subjected to this ownership status. Debt bondage, another form of slavery, occurs when a person's labor is demanded as a means of repayment for a debt. Under

such circumstances, the person may be paid less than the value of their work, prolonging the duration of service. Practices like human trafficking, child labor, and certain forms of forced marriage are recognized as modern forms of slavery, where individuals are compelled to work under various conditions of coercion and control.

J. Theoretical Perspectives on Global Stratification

Functionalism Theory

The functionalist perspective argues that the uneven distribution of wealth and power across different nations in the world, while seemingly unfair, actually serves a necessary function for the overall stability and progress of the global system. Different roles in the global economy require varying levels of expertise and effort, and unequal rewards incentivize individuals to pursue these roles. For example, highly skilled doctors earn more than unskilled laborers, motivating individuals to invest in education and training. Developed economies provide capital, technology, and knowledge transfer while developing economies offer labor and resources. According to functionalists, this interconnectedness benefits all nations in the long run.

Conflict Theory

Conflict theory looks at the power dynamics between social classes. This theory states that there is a conflict between those who have power and those who don't, and this conflict between classes leads to the creation and perpetuation of social stratification. According to this theory, inequality benefits the dominant class at the expense of the working class. It is the basis of Karl Marx's theory of social stratification, which states there is a power dynamic struggle between the bourgeoisie (those with power and wealth) and the proletariat (those who do not have power and wealth).

Symbolism Theory

Symbolism theory believes symbols, such as certain material goods and activities associated with a certain class or status, reinforce social stratification. These symbols reflect and reinforce the idea that one class has more power and resources than others. Proponents of symbolism theory point out that while economic capital is a major driver of stratification, social aspects lend to a person's status. Goods and activities that appear particularly luxurious or are typically associated with the wealthy can be used to communicate power and create a means of distinguishing one class from another. Symbolism theory essentially focuses on the fact that status and access to resources are not solely determined by economic means but by their symbolic meanings.

Modernization Theory

Modernization theory states that a lack of industrialization affects low-income (peripheral) countries. It proposes that they can improve their global economic standing by adjusting their cultural values and attitudes to work, increasing industrialization opportunities in their countries, and creating other forms of economic growth. As peripheral nations become more like core (wealthy) nations, they will see more significant economic development.

Some critics of modernization theory are quick to point out that this theory highlights an **ethnocentric bias**. It assumes that all countries have the same intentions, resources, and abilities to gain the economic status of core nations such as the United States and Canada. It also assumes that all countries want to be as developed as these core countries. This theory does not allow for the premise that all countries may not need industrialization and technology to thrive and be fulfilled.

Dependency Theory

Dependency theory was developed as a counter to the modernization theory and stated that global inequality is caused by core countries exploiting semi-peripheral and peripheral countries, making them dependent on core or high-income nations. The theory proposes that if peripheral nations depend on core nations, they will never achieve stable and consistent economic growth. Unlike modernization theory, dependency theory sees the economic positions of wealthy and poorer countries as interconnected. Theorists point out that core nations use the natural resources and cheap labor of low-income countries to their benefit. This strategy keeps low-income nations in a position of dependency, as their resources are exported, and individuals are forced to work for low wages.

Immanuel Wallerstein: World Systems Theory

Wallerstein's world systems theory asserts that there is a world economic system in which some countries benefit while others are exploited. At its most basic interpretation, high-income nations will benefit from lower-income nations while exploiting their citizens. According to Wallerstein, the world system is a division of labor that breaks down this system into a hierarchy of **four types of countries**: core, peripheral, semi-peripheral, and external areas.

- **Core nations**, such as Australia, the United Kingdom, Canada, Finland, France, Germany, Japan, and the United States, have affluence, a robust military, and substantial imperial and social influence. Core nations often import more than they export, and many have a history of colonial rule over less developed nations.

- **Peripheral nations** have low levels of industrialization, exploitable natural resources, and are primarily agrarian. These include Afghanistan, Argentina, Bangladesh, Cambodia, the Central African Republic, Cuba, Greece, the Philippines, and Zimbabwe. Many peripheral nations are being or were colonized by core nations, destabilizing them further.

- **Semi-peripheral nations** have some traits of core and peripheral nations, such as developed economies, advanced technology, wealth disparity, etc. These include Brazil, China, India, South Africa, South Korea, and Taiwan. Semi-peripheral nations' standing may be less stable than others and change more quickly when the global economy changes.

- **External areas** refer to nations or areas not covered by the world systems theory. It is because they are primarily independent countries that grow their food, hire their labor, and don't materially depend on or exploit other countries.

Strengths of World Systems Theory

- A thorough comprehension of the changing international economic relations.

- A compelling argument against modernization theory contends that underdeveloped nations rarely profit from their trade links with core nations.

- Adaptability in characterizing the evolution of the world economy's centers and peripheries.

- The inclusion of semi-peripheral nations and outside regions to increase the complexity of how the world functions.

Criticisms against World Systems Theory

- **Globalization Critique**: The theory fails to consider the force of globalization. It presents globalization as a new term for an established phenomenon that, according to critics, cannot be extended to the world in the 16th century.

- **Positivist Critique**: The theory is prone to generalization; the world's intricate economic systems cannot be distilled down to just four groups of nations.

- **Marxist Critique**: The world systems theory prioritizes economics above social class; core nations have exploited social classes that benefit relatively little from the societies' strong economies.

- **State Autonomist Critique**: Wallerstein considers states and their interests too much like companies. These critics contend that states are not businesses and that Wallerstein understates the complexity of their position in the international arena.

- **Culturalist Critique**: The theory relies too heavily on decontextualized economic growth and is insufficient in addressing the significance of culture in the shifting global powers.

- **Colonial Critique**: Instead of considering countries in the Global South as complete entities in their own right, world systems theory perpetuates colonialist narratives.

Comparing all three theories, you will see that modernization theory attributes the situation of least developed countries to their internal issues, while dependency theory highlights the external factors. Lastly, the world systems theory asserts that internal and external factors must be considered.

Chapter 9: Review Questions

1. Which of the following would be considered a defining characteristic of a closed stratification system?

    A. Hereditary position plays little role in determining a person's position in the stratification system.

    B. Immigration from other nations is not allowed.

    C. The boundaries between classes are poorly defined, and people can cross them unnoticed.

    D. There are rigid boundaries between classes that are difficult or impossible for people to cross.

    E. Achieved status is more important than ascribed status in determining a person's position in the stratification system.

2. Which of the following statements best explains the poverty line?

    A. The point at which someone passes from being in relative poverty to absolute poverty.

    B. A somewhat controversial way to measure poverty in the United States that is adjusted for inflation.

    C. An official measure of poverty that varies by region and does not change from year to year.

    D. An indication on a map that indicates the border between higher and lower-income areas.

    E. The condition where a person's income exceeds the average standard of living in their society.

3. What is relative poverty?

    A. The amount of money needed to live a lavish lifestyle.

    B. The condition where a person does not have the minimum income needed to meet the minimum requirements for one or more basic living needs over an extended period of time.

    C. The condition in which people lack the minimum amount of income needed to maintain the average standard of living in the society in which they live.

    D. The state of having a high income that ensures access to all luxuries and extravagances.

    E. None of the options are correct.

4. Which of the following is an example of horizontal mobility?

    A. A Senator becomes a member of a school board.

    B. A former tax lawyer now works as a paralegal.

    C. The head of marketing becomes the new head of accounting.

    D. A machine operator is promoted to department supervisor.

    E. A junior nurse becomes the head nurse of the hospital.

5. Sue, a tenured professor at an elite college, accepts an offer to teach at another elite college. Her move is an example of

    A. Status mobility.

    B. Vertical mobility.

    C. Intergenerational mobility.

    D. Horizontal mobility.

    E. Structural mobility.

6. When the architectural firm Gary works for merges with another, he leaves his position as office manager and finds a secretarial job in a new office. This is an example of _____ mobility.

    A. Vertical
    B. Horizontal
    C. Intergenerational
    D. Status
    E. Structural

7. The main communist nation of the Second World was:

    A. China
    B. Cuba
    C. North Korea
    D. Vietnam
    E. The Soviet Union

8. Jill lives in a country that was one of the first to industrialize. The economy is capital-intensive and technologically advanced. Her country is considered a _____ country.

    A. Second-World
    B. Third-world
    C. Low-income
    D. Middle-income
    E. High-income

9. Which of the following is characteristic of low-income countries?

    A. They have longer life expectancies than the middle and higher-income countries.
    B. They have higher birth rates than the middle and higher-income countries.
    C. They are mostly industrial.
    D. They are mostly socialist.
    E. They have the highest levels of technological advancement.

10. Mark lives in a country with an economic system free from foreign influence and a unique labor market outside the world system. His country is an example of _____.

    A. An enclave
    B. A peripheral country
    C. A semi-peripheral country
    D. An external area
    E. Core nations

Chapter 10: Race and Ethnicity

Overview

This chapter will explore the concept of race and its impact on social groups in our societies. It will begin by examining various definitions of race and ethnicity and consider how subordinate and dominant groups interact. It will then discuss prejudice, stereotypes, and discrimination and how marginalized groups experience these. The chapter will also investigate theories on the origin of prejudice and the concept of intersectionality. Finally, it will explore how pluralism, assimilation, segregation, and expulsion affect intergroup relations.

Learning Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Define the concepts of race and ethnicity and explain how these social constructs impact social groups.
- Examine the various forms of prejudice, stereotypes, and discrimination experienced in the United States.
- Investigate and discuss the theories that explain the origins of prejudice.
- Analyze the concept of intersectionality and its role in shaping the experiences of individuals who belong to multiple marginalized social groups.
- Explore and assess the societal responses to racial diversity, including pluralism, assimilation, segregation, and expulsion.

A. Racial, Ethnic, and Minority Groups

What is Race?

The concept of race is complex and has evolved over time. Historically, race was based on various factors, such as geographic region, ethnicity, skin color, ancestry, and familial ties. Several social science organizations, including the American Association of Anthropologists, the American Sociological Association, and the American Psychological Association, have **rejected biological explanations** of race. Today, race is widely understood to be a social construct, meaning that racial categories are not biologically determined but are shaped by social, cultural, and political factors. For example, in some cultures, wealthy people are considered to be of a different race than impoverished people, even if they share the same physical traits. While race can be a source of identity for individuals, it is important to note that the specific terms used to describe racial groups can change depending on the social era.

What is Ethnicity?

Ethnicity can be challenging to define precisely as its meaning has also evolved over time. Ethnicity is also a social construct that refers to identifying a group based on shared cultural characteristics. These characteristics can include language, music, values, art, styles, literature, family life, religion, rituals,

food, and other aspects of culture. No single definition of ethnicity is universally accepted, and individuals may choose to identify with multiple ethnic groups. Look at the example below to better understand the complexity of defining ethnicity.

Example

> *In our diverse world, people from different nations and cultures have unique ethnic identities, often associated with specific recipes. With varying ingredients and measurements, debates may arise over how which culture defines a particular dish. Consider someone with dual ethnic backgrounds - which ethnicity would that individual identify with? Could they not choose to identify with one culture yet prefer how the other culture prepared the dish? Ultimately, the choice of ethnic identity lies with the individual.*

B. Social Minority vs. Social Majority

Social Minority

It is important to note that minority groups do not necessarily reflect a correlating numerical value in population size. In sociology, a minority group is a category of people who may experience prejudice, discrimination, and oppression due to their unique identity, such as their race, culture, or other characteristics. Minority groups often have less access to resources than the majority group. Minority groups may also be perceived as inferior to the majority group.

Social minority groups are identified through self-identification, government classification, and social norms. Membership is not always voluntary, and the boundaries of social minority groups can change over time. According to Charles Wagley and Marvin Harris, **social minorities** are often identified by the five following characteristics:

1. **Unequal treatment and less power over their lives**: Minority groups often face prejudice, discrimination, and less power.

2. **Distinguishing physical or cultural traits**: Minority groups are often distinguished by their physical or cultural traits, making them more visible and more likely to be targeted by discrimination.

3. **Involuntary membership in the group**: Minority group membership is often involuntary, making it difficult to leave or change identity.

4. **Awareness of subordination**: Minority groups often experience negative psychological effects due to their subordinate status in society.

5. **High rate of in-group marriage**: Minority groups often have high rates of in-group marriage to preserve their culture and identity.

Remember that these five characteristics are not always present in every minority group. Additionally, the boundaries of minority groups can be fluid and change over time.

Some examples of minority groups include:

- **Racial minorities**: People not considered part of the majority racial group in a given society.

- **Religious minorities**: People who do not practice the majority religion in a given society.

- **Ethnic minorities**: People who do not share the same cultural background as the majority group in a given society.

- **Sexual orientation minorities**: People who do not identify with the same sexual orientation as the majority in a given society.

- **Disability minorities**: People with disabilities.

Social Majority

A social majority is a group with the most influence in a given society. This influence can be based on various factors, including numerical representation, like the case of the white population in the United States, which constitutes a demographic majority. However, influence also stems from factors like social power, often held by established elites, cultural preferences that shape societal norms, economic advantage concentrated in certain wealth brackets, media representation that amplifies specific voices, and political clout. It is crucial to note that these factors intertwine and are not always equally distributed within a majority. For instance, while the white majority in the US may have greater access to economic opportunities and political power, there exist significant internal disparities based on class and education. Furthermore, the boundaries of social majorities are not static. For example, the growing Hispanic population in the US could potentially challenge the current demographic advantage of the white majority in the future.

C. Intersectionality, Prejudice, Discrimination, and Stereotyping

Intersectionality

Intersectionality is the understanding that **multiple factors**, including gender, ethnicity, class, sexual orientation, physical ability, and other social identities, shape people's experiences of oppression and discrimination. It means people cannot be simply categorized into groups based on a single identity.

For instance, someone from a specific country who identifies with a particular sexual orientation may have different experiences from someone from that same nation who identifies with a different sexual orientation. Their experiences are shaped by both their nationality and their sexual orientation. Because social identities are interconnected, people experience oppression and discrimination in unique ways.

There are three social biases: prejudice, which is emotional; stereotyping, which is cognitive; and discrimination, which is behavioral. Another way to remember them is by using the **ABC Model of Attitudes and Prejudice**. The letter A stands for "**affect**," another term for **emotion** in Psychology; "B" stands for "**behavior**," and "C" means "**cognition**," which relates to how one thinks. Let's examine these in more detail in the table below.

Table 47 - 10: ABC model of attitudes

Affect	Behavior	Cognition
Prejudice	Discrimination	Stereotype
Emotion bias	Behavioral bias	Cognitive bias
Emotional response that is usually irrational, but can grow into powerful convictions.	**Action** based on one's oversimplified idea or emotion toward an out-group.	Overgeneralized **ideas** that are realized through representations of social groups.

Prejudice

Prejudice is a preconceived feeling towards individuals or groups, either favorable or unfavorable, that is not based on reason or experience. Prejudice can be based on a person's race, ethnicity, religion, gender, sexual orientation, socioeconomic status, or any other social group membership. While not to be confused with stereotypes, prejudice can also be based on stereotypes. Prejudice can be both conscious and unconscious. **Conscious prejudice** is when people are aware of their negative or positive feelings towards others and may act on those feelings in discriminatory ways. **Unconscious prejudice** is when people have negative or positive feelings towards others that they are not aware of, and these feelings may influence their behavior even though they are not trying to be discriminatory.

Positive vs. Negative Prejudice

While negative prejudice is more common, positive prejudice can also exist. For example, someone may presume (prejudge) that adherents of Hinduism are deeply spiritual because they may associate it with yoga, which they have a positive view of. However, that may be an inaccurate assumption of Hinduism and its followers. While positive prejudice may seem harmless, it can be superficial and incorrect.

Explicit vs. Implicit Prejudice

When someone is open and conscious of their emotional biases, it is said that they are acting with **explicit prejudice**. Otherwise, they have implicit prejudice. Sociologists have measured implicit prejudice through the Implicit Association Test (IAT), where participants are asked to categorize words and images quickly. Most of the findings reveal that people are quicker to categorize words and images that positively represent their social groups or **in-groups** than those that represent out-groups.

Table 48 - 10: Theories of the origin of prejudice

There are different theories on the origin of prejudice.

Scapegoat Theory	The dominant culture needs someone to hold accountable for their errors and failings, so they point the finger at a weaker group.
Conflict Theory	When rewards or resources are few and the minority has equal or greater access to them, the majority culture would develop bias and become prejudiced.
Authoritarian Personality	Involves rigid and black-and-white thinking, which prevents people from recognizing the goodness of people from other cultures and backgrounds that are different from their own.
Social Identity Theory	People develop prejudices towards "out-groups" to boost their self-esteem and appeal to the "in-group."
Culture Theory or Cultural Transmission Theory	Media and societal norms teach people to be prejudiced.

Discrimination

Discrimination is treating people differently based on their social group membership. It can take many forms, such as denying someone a job interview because of their name, which might reveal their national origin or group affiliation. Discrimination can also be based on other social group memberships, such as race, age, gender, health, religion, and socioeconomic status.

Redlining is a discriminatory practice in which mortgage lenders refuse to lend money to people in certain neighborhoods, typically those with a high concentration of minority residents. Redlining has been illegal in the United States since the 1960s, but its legacy of racial inequality persists. Another example of discriminatory practices is **racial steering**, wherein real estate agents push potential homeowners away, depending on their race.

While potentially just as harmful, racist attitudes and beliefs are often more insidious and harder to spot than specific racist practices. American sociologist Robert Merton studied prejudice and discrimination and identified four types of people in society:

- **Unprejudiced non-discriminators** are open-minded and accepting. These individuals hold no personal prejudice and do not engage in discriminatory behaviors.

- **Unprejudiced discriminators** may engage in discriminatory behavior due to external factors. For example, they may discriminate to conform to the norms or expectations of their social group.

- **Prejudiced non-discriminators** harbor prejudice but choose not to act on it due to external factors like social pressure or legal boundaries.

- **Prejudiced discriminators** always act on their prejudice.

Discrimination can take many forms, including **individual** and **institutional discrimination**. Individual discrimination occurs when individuals treat others differently based on their social group membership. Institutional discrimination occurs when societal systems are designed or implemented in a way that disadvantages certain groups of people.

For example, a majority group would have the most power and influence to shape the institutions in society. By shaping institutions according to their norms, the majority group gains "institutionalized advantages," meaning they benefit from built-in privileges and resources within the system. This automatically disadvantages minority groups, whose own norms and needs are not reflected in the existing structures. This lack of representation and influence can translate into concrete forms of discrimination, like bias in decision-making and unequal access to opportunities.

Stereotypes

A stereotype is a mental shortcut formed by generalizing about a group of people, even though there is a lot of variation within that group. Stereotypes often arise from people's social positions. For example, individuals, or even whole groups, could be stereotyped to general concepts such as being either "emotional" or "unemotional," or even smaller specifics such as "afraid of insects" or "good mechanics." While stereotypes may be based on observations of the real world, it is important to consider why certain social groups have been historically assigned to certain social positions.

Positive vs. Negative Stereotypes

Positive stereotypes are favorable generalizations about a group of people. Positive stereotypes can be harmful, even if based on real observations. For example, a stereotype that a particular set of people are all good at math can create pressure to perform at an exceptionally high level. Additionally, positive stereotypes can lead to people being pigeonholed into certain roles. For example, persons who are stereotyped as good at caregiving may be more likely hired for jobs in childcare or nursing.

Negative stereotypes are unfavorable generalizations about a group of people. They can be based on real or imagined characteristics and can have devastating consequences for stigmatized groups.

Positive stereotypes can be more difficult to identify and challenge because people are often more likely to accept positive stereotypes than negative stereotypes. However, it is important to remember that all stereotypes can be harmful, even positive ones.

D. African Americans in the United States

People who were taken from the African continent and forcibly brought to the Americas to live in servitude are inextricably entwined with the history of the United States. Let's discuss how the Civil Rights Movement in the 1960s and African Americans' current demographics and culture were influenced by this early history of Africans in America.

17th-18th centuries European slave traders transported Africans to the United States

Early generations of African Americans experienced numerous challenges, some of which were visible and others of which were ignored by most. Early African Americans had the difficult task of developing a **pidgin**, a new, simplified language, to communicate with each other and English-speaking masters because they had been stripped of their native languages. They were also stripped of all outward signs of culture, including dress, hairstyle, and ornamentation.

1863 Emancipation Proclamation

President Abraham Lincoln's 1863 **Emancipation Proclamation** aimed to treat African Americans as full citizens of the United States. However, the Jim Crow laws, a set of state and local segregation laws that limited the rights, privileges, and protections afforded to African Americans, regrettably persisted and spread throughout the American South.

Civil Rights Act of 1964

During the 1960s, the African American community joined forces to advocate for equality alongside influential figures such as Malcolm X and Martin Luther King, Jr. These individuals spearheaded a movement that led to the implementation of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, crucial legislation that prohibits discrimination based on factors like race and ethnicity.

African Americans Today
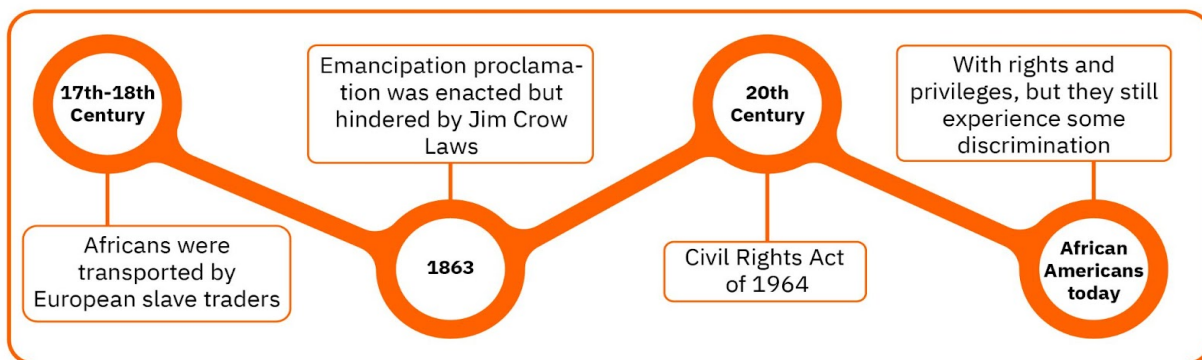
While there has been measurable progress since the Civil Rights Movement, African Americans still face discrimination in many areas of life. According to a **2017 study** conducted by Harvard University, National Public Radio, and the Robert Wood Johnson Foundation, 57% of African Americans reported

discrimination in the workplace, 60% said they or a family member had been mistreated by the police, and 51% had racial slurs directed against them. Today's generation is faced with the ongoing decision of whether to embrace, reject, or evolve their cultural heritage, such as through languages like Creole, which evolved from the pidgin spoken by early Africans or to use the English variant known as African American Vernacular English (AAVE) or **ebonics**.

E. Culture of Prejudice

The **culture of prejudice** refers to a social environment where prejudice, discrimination, and bias are ingrained in the beliefs, norms, and practices of a particular group or society. In a culture of prejudice, some stereotypes often go unchallenged. These stereotypes can lead to negative attitudes and beliefs about individuals from those groups. Discriminatory behavior, such as exclusion, harassment, or unequal treatment, may be normalized or encouraged in such a culture. Prejudice can also be passed down through generations as part of the socialization process. In some cases, prejudice becomes institutionalized, with discriminatory policies and practices embedded within governmental, educational, and economic systems.

F. Intergroup Relations: Interaction of Social Minority and Majority Groups

Table 49 - 10: Summary of social minority-majority intergroup relations

Summary of Social Minority-Majority Intergroup Relations	
Pluralism	When two or more groups coexist in the same society. Emphasizes tolerance, diversity, and equality. *Example:* Blue, red, and green gumballs live peacefully in the same gumball machine.
Assimilation	The process of one group of people adopting another group's language, culture, and beliefs. *Example:* The red gumballs are the social majority. The blue gumballs assimilate by conforming to the red gumballs' culture and speak their language. They then lose their unique identity.
Amalgamation	The process of different racial or ethnic groups coming together, intermixing, or merging in a way that results in a blending of their cultural, social, or genetic characteristics. *Note*: Amalgamation is also known as miscegenation. However, the term miscegenation has often been used negatively or pejoratively. *Example:* Over time, the gumballs mix together and interbreed, resulting in a new generation of gumballs that are a mix of blue, red, and green.
Segregation	Separation of people or groups based on their race, ethnicity, religion, or other social characteristics. **De jure segregation** is enforced by law, while **de facto segregation** isn't legally mandated but arises from social and economic factors. *Examples:* Jim Crow laws in the U.S. prevented blacks and whites from attending the same schools, sitting in the same train cars, and using the same facilities and drinking fountains.

Expulsion	When a subordinate group is forced to leave a particular area or country by a dominant group. Also known as "ethnic cleansing." It can be a factor in genocide, but it can also stand on its own as a destructive group interaction. *Examples:* In 1942, after the Japanese government attacked Pearl Harbor, United States President Franklin D. Roosevelt issued Executive Order 9066, which authorized internment camps for anyone with as little as one-eighth Japanese ancestry. Although there was no evidence of cooperation or espionage, over 120,000 lawful Japanese residents and Japanese American citizens, many of whom were children, were detained in these camps for up to four years. Recently, an increasing number of refugees from the ethnic Armenian community have left Nagorno-Karabakh after Azerbaijan's takeover of the disputed territory in September 2023. The Armenian government has accused Azerbaijan of ethnic cleansing in Nagorno-Karabakh.
Genocide	Refers to the intentional killing of a population. It might happen at the same time as a war. *Examples:* The red gumballs would be committing genocide if they decided to annihilate the blue and green ones. During the Holocaust, the Nazis arrested and killed millions of people for being Jews, homosexuals, Roma, or members of another targeted race. This is the most well-known genocide of the 20th century.

Chapter 10: Review Questions

1. **Stratification on the basis of race**

   A. is based on biological differences in groups of people which are translated, genetically, into different behavioral and personality traits.
   B. has often been justified by an ideology (racism) which contends that some races are innately superior to others.
   C. is synonymous with slavery since historically people have been enslaved on the basis of skin color.
   D. is insignificant compared to other stratification systems such as those based on age or gender.
   E. is one of the oldest forms of stratification.

2. **Regarding prejudice, the authoritarian-personality theory of aggression is best at explaining**

   A. why all people, to some degree, have prejudices.
   B. how prejudicial attitudes are transmitted across generations.
   C. the benefits a dominant group receives by subjugating a minority group.
   D. extreme prejudicial attitudes of a few.
   E. why some individuals blame their own problems on minority groups.

3. **Charlotte is a rigid thinker, obeys authority, sees things in black and white, and believes in a hierarchical structure of society. She strongly believes that Americans are better than people from other countries. Her thinking is an example of _____.**

   A. An apathetic personality.
   B. An authoritarian personality.
   C. A conflictive personality.
   D. A non-judgmental personality.
   E. A flexible personality.

4. **The _____ theory tells us that people engage in prejudice toward an out-group in order to boost their own self-esteem and to make the group they identify with more appealing.**

   A. Social identity
   B. Scapegoat
   C. Cultural transmission
   D. Authoritarian personality
   E. Normative

5. **A typically exaggerated and/or oversimplified belief about a certain group of people is known as a(n) _____.**

   A. Assumption.
   B. Prejudice.
   C. Stereotype.
   D. Discrimination.
   E. Assimilation.

6. **Tara asserts that people who drive foreign cars are snobs. Tara is exhibiting which component of the ABC model?**

    A. Contempt
    B. Affect
    C. Behavior
    D. Cognition
    E. Discrimination

7. **All of the following are forms of institutional discrimination EXCEPT:**

    A. A landlord's distaste for Latino tenants causes him to reject all applicants with Hispanic surnames.
    B. A geographic mismatch between workers and jobs following the move of a company from the inner-city.
    C. During an economic downturn, a policy of "last hired - first fired" has resulted in a disproportionate layoff of women and minorities.
    D. The administration of IQ and other standardized tests.
    E. Bank policies that mandate higher interest loans for individuals living in poor and minority sections of the city.

8. **Which of the following best explains the process of assimilation?**

    A. Assimilation refers to the marriage between two different racial or ethnic groups.
    B. Assimilation refers to the way that races are defined according to biological factors.
    C. Assimilation refers to the process through which ethnic minorities are incorporated into the dominant group in a society, through culture or biology.
    D. Assimilation refers to the process by which the divisions between ethnic groups become more pronounced in U.S. society.
    E. Assimilation refers to the process through which ethnic minorities are expelled by the dominant group.

9. **Which of the following equations best illustrates pluralism?**

    A. A + B + C = A
    B. A + B + C = D
    C. A + B = C + D
    D. A + B = B + C
    E. A + B + C = A + B + C

10. **During the 1960s, _____ was an influential leader in the Civil Rights Movement for equality in the U.S.**

    A. Martin Luther King, Jr.
    B. Lyndon B. Johnson
    C. George Jefferson
    D. Frederick Douglass
    E. Abraham Lincoln

Chapter 11: Gender, Sex, and Sexuality

Overview

This chapter first differentiates the concepts related to gender, sex, and sexuality. Next, it discusses the cultural differences and similarities in gender roles, sex, and sexuality. It also tackles the challenges of these concepts, including sex education, gender stereotyping, sexism, and sexual harassment. Similarly, it distinguishes patriarchy from matriarchy and presents the controversial issues of teen pregnancy, birth control, porn, and prostitution. Lastly, it describes the feminist theory (including the waves of feminism) and Queer Theory.

Learning Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Distinguish sex, gender, sexual orientation, gender identity, expression, and other related concepts from each other.
- Describe the gender roles observed among the Israeli Kibbutzim and the communities studied by George Murdock and Margaret Mead.
- Explain how sexual attitudes differ around the world.
- Describe the forms of sexism and sexual harassment.
- State the arguments for and against teen pregnancy, birth control, porn, and prostitution.
- Summarize the theories on patriarchy as well as Feminist and Queer theories.

A. Defining SOGIE

The **SOGIE** acronym, short for **sexual orientation**, **gender identity**, and **expression**, is often used to explain these interrelated concepts. One of the crucial things to remember in understanding SOGIE is.

<div align="center">

Identity ≠ Expression ≠ Sex ≠ Gender ≠ Sexual Orientation

</div>

As you read this chapter, you will learn why this is the case and why it is important to remember for your exam in Sociology. But before we dig deeper, let's first define sex and gender.

B. Sex and Gender

According to the American Psychological Association (APA), gender and sex are two distinct concepts. **Gender** refers to the socially constructed behaviors, roles, and expressions associated with being male or female in a particular society. **Sex** is often assigned at birth and refers to a person's biological characteristics. It is usually categorized as male, female, or intersex. Some indicators of biological sex include sex chromosomes, gonads, internal sex organs, and external genitalia, which are often classified into **primary** and **secondary** characteristics.

Table 50 - 11: Differences between sexes (primary & secondary characteristics)

	Male	Female
Primary Sex Characteristics Present at birth	**Internal**: XY chromosomes, testicles, vas deferens, etc.	**Internal**: XX chromosomes, uterus, ovaries, and cervix
	External: Penis and scrotum	**External**: Vagina and clitoris
Secondary Sex Characteristics Appear during puberty	Increased body hair, broadened chests, etc.	Developed breasts, etc.

Some individuals do not match these binary categories. APA uses the term **intersex** to describe people who are born with sex characteristics that do not fit neatly into the binary categories of male and female. For example, some intersex individuals may have both ovarian and testicular tissues. Other intersex individuals may have chromosomal combinations other than XY and XX. Additionally, some persons are born with external genitalia that are often classified as male or female but with different internal organs or hormones.

In sum, the primary distinction between sex and gender is that sex emphasizes biological distinctions, whereas gender tends to emphasize the social characteristics that society produces based on a person's biological characteristics.

Gender includes how a person feels about themselves (their gender identity) and how they show this to the world, as well as the roles and expectations society has about being male or female. This might change over their life and not match what society expects from their physical characteristics. While many places today think of gender as either male or female and decide this when a baby is born, there have been many societies that have accepted different kinds of gender identities and ways of expressing them.

Dimensions of Sex (Biological Variable) & Gender (Social and Cultural Variable)
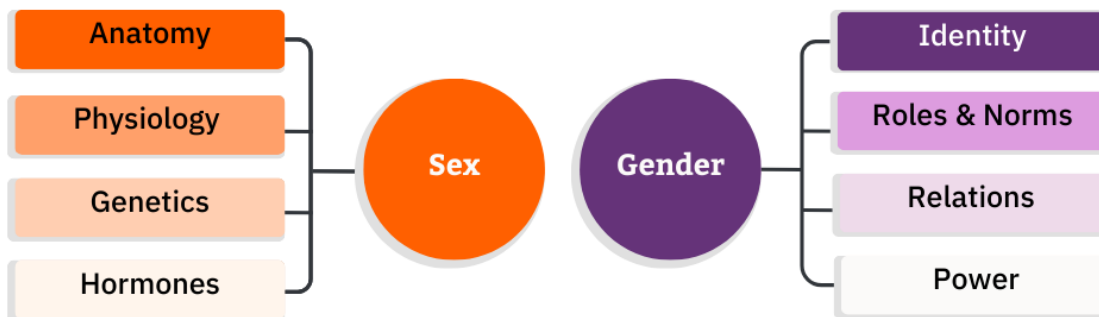
Individuals with ovaries and a uterus typically experience menstruation and breast development, regardless of their cultural background. On the other hand, gender expressions may differ amongst societies. For example, wearing a dress or skirt is sometimes regarded as feminine (or a characteristic of the female gender) in North American culture. However, in some Middle Eastern, Asian, and African cultures, dresses or skirts (often referred to as sarongs, robes, or gowns) are considered masculine garments. The thobe, a long, loose-fitting garment, is sometimes worn by men in some Arab countries. Similarly, the lungi is a skirt-like garment some men in South Asia and Southeast Asia wear. The ideas that there are only two sexes (male and female), that gender depends on sex, that there is a wider range of sexes, and that gender is fluid are present in different cultures and accepted to varying degrees.

Other Gender Identities

Aside from the male/female classification, there are also other identities such as non-binary, transgenders, and transsexuals.

According to the Gay & Lesbian Alliance Against Defamation (GLAAD), a non-profit organization promoting LGBTQ advocacy and cultural change, **non-binary** is used as both an umbrella term and a gender identity label to describe people whose gender does not fall under the binary distinctions between men and women. Some nonbinary people also call themselves transgender and identify as part of the transgender community, while others do not.

Also, GLAAD defines **transgender** as an adjective to describe people whose gender identity is different from the sex they were assigned at birth. Being transgender is not dependent upon physical appearance or medical procedures.

Originally, the APA used the term **transexual** to describe individuals who alter their bodies through medical interventions such as surgery and hormonal therapy so that they physically align with their gender identity. This term is used more in the medical and psychological communities, and it may be perceived as outdated and offensive to some (but yet may still apply to others). While some people who identify as transexual also identify as transgender, others do not. Some people **cross-dress** or wear clothing traditionally assigned to a gender different than their biological sex, but they may or may not identify as transgender or non-binary.

Lastly, the APA defines **gender dysphoria** as the distress or discomfort that may be felt by people whose sex assigned at birth differs from the one they identify with.

Sexual Orientation

The APA defines sexual orientation as an aspect of identity that includes a person's emotional, romantic, and/or sexual attraction to others. People can be attracted to men, women, both, neither, or people of any gender identity. It includes lesbian, gay, heterosexual, bisexual, queer, pansexual, and asexual people.

One researcher given credit for pioneering sociological investigations into sexology is **Alfred Kinsey (1894–1956)**, who believed that sexual orientation could be flexible and change over time. He

developed the **Kinsey scale**, which measures a person's sexual orientation using a scale from exclusively heterosexual to exclusively homosexual.

According to the United States Census Bureau (2021), 88% of Americans identify as heterosexual, 4% as bisexual, 3% as homosexual, 2% as all others, and 2% said they did not know. Continuing below, we will be looking at the top three reported sexual orientations: **heterosexual**, **homosexual**, and **bisexual**.

Adults Aged 18 and Over^

"Which of the following best represents how you think of yourself?"

Bisexual	**4.4%** +/- 0.1%
Gay or lesbian	**3.3%** +/- 0.1%
Straight	**88.3%** +/- 0.2%
Something else	**1.9%** +/- 0.1%
I don't know	**2.1%** +/- 0.1%
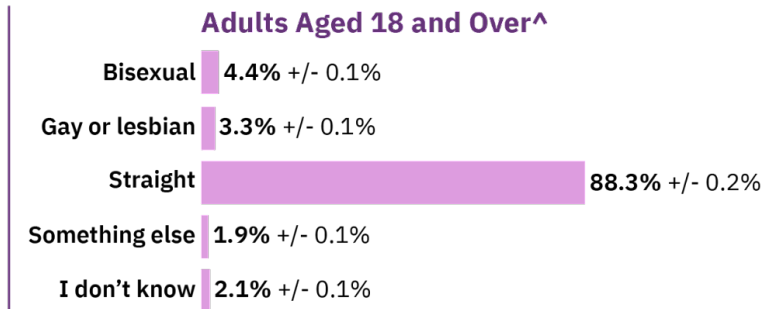
"Hetero" literally means "different," and so **heterosexuality** is characterized by individuals being attracted to members of the opposite sex, males and females. "Homo" means "same," and so **homosexuality** is characterized by individuals being attracted to members of the same sex (lesbian referring to homosexual women; gay for homosexual men). "Bi" literally means "two," so bisexuality originally meant being attracted to both sexes. However, following the Queer theory school of thought, which says sexuality is fluid, the understanding of bisexuality has broadened to include attraction to all non-binary and gender-diverse individuals. Because of the idea of sexual fluidity, sexual orientation is not limited to heterosexuals, homosexuals, or bisexuals. Still, there is a wide variety of attraction between individuals, including identifying as asexual, pansexual, or polysexual, among others. Now that you have read the definitions of SOGIE, here's a summary of their differences.

Table 51 - 11: Summary of SOGIE differences

Sexual Orientation	Gender Identity	Gender Expression
An aspect of identity that includes a person's attraction to others.	A person's innate sense of being a boy, a man, or masculine; a girl, a woman, or feminine; or a gender outside of these two categories.	A way through which one displays their gender identity through behavior, appearance, voice, and/or physical traits.
Includes but is not limited to lesbian, gay, heterosexual, bisexual, queer, pansexual, and asexual people.	Includes but is not limited to agender, nonbinary, bigender, and transgender.	Expressed in pronouns, clothing, behavior, etc.

Varying Viewpoints on Sexual Orientation

Sexual orientation is often examined from various perspectives, including traditional and modern viewpoints.

Stability of Sexual Orientation: This viewpoint emphasizes social stability and traditional norms. It questions the idea that sexual orientation is highly fluid or can change over time. This perspective focuses on maintaining stable social structures and upholding the traditional family unit, which aligns with the view that sexual orientation is constant.

Traditional Values: Some conservatives believe that recognizing heterosexuality as the societal norm reflects enduring cultural norms and values. While acknowledging that society is changing, some people argue that traditional values are important for stability.

Caution with Rapid Social Change: There are concerns about the rapid pace of social change in Western culture, particularly regarding shifts in how society perceives sexual orientation. This viewpoint urges caution, avoiding changes that could disrupt established social structures and norms.

The Role of Research: There's also an initiative to promote rigorous and unbiased research into the subject of sexual orientation. It underscores the need for balanced, evidence-based approaches in drawing conclusions about sexual orientation.

Concerns about Exposing Children to Diverse Sexual Orientations

There are concerns about exposing children to discussions and portrayals of diverse sexual orientations, particularly in the context of sex education and media influence. From this viewpoint, there are several key concerns:

Age-appropriate education: There is a call to deliver content appropriate for children's cognitive and emotional development. Some people argue that young children may not be able to fully understand complex topics related to sexual orientation, suggesting that exposing young children to such content might potentially lead to confusion or misinterpretation.

Potential for indoctrination: There are also concerns about the potential for ideological or political indoctrination when discussing sexual orientation. Some people believe it is important for children to be allowed to form their own opinions and beliefs, while others assert the value of exposing them to certain ideologies.

Developmental Stages: Children may develop at different rates, and their understanding of sexuality evolves as they grow. Some people argue that exposing children to discussions of sexuality is not developmentally appropriate and could affect their natural cognitive and emotional development.

Self-perception: Some people are concerned that early exposure to diverse sexual orientations could lead to children questioning their own identity prematurely or experiencing self-doubt when presented with a wide range of orientations before they have a chance to solidify their self-perception. Others

contend that this exposure might help children develop a stronger sense of identity by seeing a variety of different sexual orientations.

Culture's Influence on Gender Roles

- **Individual autonomy**: Cultural influences on gender roles may affect individual autonomy. People may or may not consider their unique qualities and interests.

- **Generalizations**: Human diversity is complex and cannot be easily categorized. Culture interacts with individual identity in complex ways. So, it is crucial to be careful about making sweeping generalizations about gender roles.

- **Cross-cultural understanding**: Gender roles may vary across cultures. Studying diverse cultures shows how gender roles may differ from or align with other cultures.

- **Evolutionary Factors**: Biological differences between sexes may affect the evolution of gender roles. However, these factors are not fixed and may not be used to justify cultural variations in gender roles.

- **Gender Equality**: Advancing gender equity is essential. It is a matter of fairness and recognizes the diverse capabilities that individuals bring, regardless of gender.

Gender Roles in Other Cultures

Israeli Kibbutzim

One of the cultures that researchers such as Melford Spiro studied in the 1950s and 1970s is the Israeli Kibbutzim. A **kibbutz** (the Hebrew word for "gathering") is essentially a small Jewish community attempting to establish an ideal society based on fairness and diligence. One of the ideal kibbutz tenets is **gender equality**. Spiro's initial findings in his 1979 study revealed that the early proponents of the kibbutz movement, as they aimed to establish a society founded on sexual equality, transformed the nature of marriage, family structure, child-rearing, and the division of labor based on gender. For instance, men are urged to handle traditional feminine roles like cooking and child care, but women may still carry out these duties. Similarly, both men and women are encouraged to work traditionally masculine jobs like farming and community security. To ensure that everyone in a kibbutz contributes equitably, members frequently swap the jobs they do on a daily or weekly basis.

George Murdock and Pre-Industrial Societies

On the other hand, in 1937, anthropologist George Murdock studied at least 200 pre-industrial areas or those present before cars, factories, and other contemporary technology revolutionized the world. He found two notable findings about 1) the role of physical differences in the tasks assigned to men and women, and 2) similarities of areas with greater gender equality.

First, Murdock noted that the **general social roles for men and women** were similar in nearly every one of the societies he investigated. He concluded that these cultural similarities were caused by the **physical differences** between men and women. Given that men are often taller and physically stronger than women, it makes sense why many countries assign men to jobs requiring physical strength. Hence, it makes it reasonable that communities would assign women tasks linked to caring for those youngsters because women are frequently softer and give birth to children.

Margaret Mead and New Guinea

Unlike Murdock, who examined cultural similarities, anthropologist Margaret Mead explored the differences among three groups in New Guinea. The table below shows some of her notable findings.

Table 52 - 11: Margaret Mead's notable findings among three groups in New Guinea

Arapesh	Mundugumor	Tchambuli
Basic equality between men and women, with both sexes performing **stereotypically masculine and feminine activities**.	The members of this tribe were cannibals and headhunters, and Mead described both men and women as selfish, aggressive, and masculine. This group exhibited gender equality as both men and women behaved *equally* and acted like **stereotypical men**.	People had **inverted roles** as men here were typically emotional, subservient, and more inclined to care for the children, while the women were usually dominant, intellectual, and in command.

Mead's results were challenged by other anthropologists. Some argued that because she sought differences between the three cultures, she may have missed the characteristics of each society that did not support her hypothesis. Nevertheless, even if Mead missed these similarities, her work still showed that culture **does** affect how men and women behave.

C. Sex and Sexuality

Sexual Attitudes and Practices

When studying sexuality, sociologists focus more on attitudes and behaviors than physiology or anatomy. A person's sexual thoughts, feelings, attractions, and actions toward other people are all part of **sexuality**. Cultures have varied views on premarital sex, the legal age of consent to have sex, homosexuality, masturbation, and other sexual practices, but sociologists have discovered that some societies share some similarities. In most cultures, there exist strict rules and norms regarding who one can have sexual relations with. These guidelines differ, but some are found to be nearly universal, such as most societies have a common understanding of the "incest taboo," which prohibits sexual relations among certain relatives.

What is considered "normal" sexual behavior can be based on the morals and values of society. Norms reinforce the established social structure of sexuality in most civilizations. For example, societies that emphasize monogamy would shun polygamy, and societies that emphasize fidelity in marriage would

shun extramarital sex. Also, people usually learn sexual attitudes from their families, educational systems, peers, media, and religion. Three sources that may significantly impact the choices people make regarding sexual behavior are religion, peer pressure, and media.

Sexuality Around the World

In 2013, the Pew Research Center surveyed 40,117 people across 40 countries to explore their views on eight moral issues: extramarital affairs, gambling, homosexuality, abortion, premarital sex, alcohol consumption, divorce, and contraceptive use. Participants were asked to classify each issue as **morally acceptable**, **morally unacceptable**, or **not a moral issue**. Their results are as follows:

Global Morality
% median across 40 countries who say ____ morally wrong

■ unacceptable   ■ acceptable   ■ not a moral issue

Issue	unacceptable	acceptable	not a moral issue
Extramarital Affairs	78	7	10
Homosexuality	59	20	13
Abortion	56	15	12
Premarital Sex	46	24	16
Contraception Use	14	54	21

Due to rounding, percentages may not total 100% | Source: Spring 2013 Global Attitudes Survey by Pew Research Center

Public opinion on moral issues varies significantly across countries. In general, extramarital affairs, homosexuality, and abortion are considered morally unacceptable by a higher proportion of respondents compared to other issues. Premarital sex is also deemed unacceptable by many. Contraceptives, on the other hand, are seen as acceptable by the majority of respondents. However, these views vary from country to country. In the United States, the results show the following:

Morality Survey in the United States
Do you personally believe that ___ is morally acceptable, morally unacceptable, or is it not a moral issue?

■ unacceptable   ■ acceptable   ■ not a moral issue

Issue	unacceptable	acceptable	not a moral issue
Extramarital Affairs	84	4	10
Homosexuality	37	23	35
Abortion	49	17	23
Premarital Sex	30	29	36
Contraception Use	7	52	36

Due to rounding, percentages may not total 100% | Source: Spring 2013 Global Attitudes Survey by Pew Research Center

D. Gender Roles and Gender Stereotypes

Gender roles and **stereotypes** are connected. Gender roles are the expected and accepted behaviors, appearances, and attitudes that society assigns to people depending on their gender. This is most typically based on the set of traits believed to be innate to women and men, respectively, referred to as **femininity** and **masculinity**. These concepts in society serve as the **foundation for gender stereotypes**.

Generally, a stereotype is an oversimplified conception, opinion, or image. When applied specifically to gender, the APA defines a **gender stereotype** as "a relatively fixed, overly simplified notion of the attitudes and behaviors deemed typical and suitable for individuals identified as male or female within a specific culture."

Gender Stereotypes

There is cultural variation in how femininity and masculinity are constructed, and these concepts may be linked to certain characteristics. Gender stereotypes can be based on behavioral observations, but it's crucial not to oversimplify the complexity of human nature. The stereotypical expectations of gender may be apparent in a given culture from an early age onward. In Western culture/The United States, for example:

As Children:

- Boys may be expected to like blue.

- Girls may be expected to like pink.

In Schools:

- Boys are expected to do well in math but not reading, like sports but not creative subjects.

- Girls are expected to be good at reading but not math and like art but not pursue sports.

As Adults:

- Women are expected to focus on family and neglect careers.

- Men are expected to focus on careers and neglect family.

- Women are believed to be emotional and natural nurturers.

- Men are believed to be objective and natural leaders.

These stereotypes are intrinsically associated with broader concepts of masculinity, femininity, and gender. The overlapping concepts of gender/queer theory, which holds that gender is not limited to only "male" and "female," play a role in shaping the stereotypes of what it means to be a hetero/homo/bisexual, as well as the stereotypes related to the diverse gender identities.

Intersectionality, coined by feminist scholar-activist **Kimberlé Crenshaw**, refers to the culmination of discrimination against all parts of an individual's identity, including race, class, religion, ethnicity, national origin, age, and other identity markers. Below, we will look at how gender stereotypes are connected to gender roles, as the stereotypes shape expectations for individual gender roles.

Effects of Gender Stereotypes

The effects of gender stereotypes are multifaceted and have broad societal implications, with a variety of both positive and negative consequences. While they may encourage positive attributes such as leadership or nurturing, nonconformity to gender stereotypes may lead to challenges. Societal expectations can create unjustified demands on individuals, such as having children or gaining work promotions. Other effects of gender stereotypes may include:

- Potential for **discrimination** based on a person's perceived gender identity.

- Risk of **marginalization** of persons who do not conform to gender stereotypes.

- Foster **gender-based violence or victim blaming**.

- Perpetuate **hyper behavior extremes** such as in sexuality or aggression.

- Assume that a **sexual assault** is not possible when married.

- Assume that men cannot be sexually assaulted **at all**.

- Increase **suicide risk** in that persons feel powerless and lose self-agency.

- Increase the likelihood of **hate crimes** against non-conformists.

Gender stereotypes have the effect of empowering society to pressure people to meet the expectations of those stereotypes. From that position of expectations, a lack of respect for a person's individuality and a decline in empathy or compassion can follow. An absence of respect, empathy, and compassion will only lead to the most negative characteristics of human nature to overtake society. Gaining knowledge and self-awareness of the existence of stereotypes and the behaviors associated with them is crucial in our society.

E. Sexism

Types of Sexism

Sexism is a form of prejudice and discrimination based on an individual's sex or gender. This term is believed to have been coined by **Pauline Leet**. In its most extreme form, sexism can manifest as **misogyny** or **misandry**, which actively targets women or men. Sexism overall manifests in a multitude of ways across many areas of society. Various forms of sexism include:

- **Benevolent Sexism**: This form of sexism is characterized by a seemingly positive but condescending view of gender. For example, it may manifest as an offering to carry something for a woman or to help a man with the laundry.

- **Hostile Sexism**: Hostile sexism involves hostile attitudes, thoughts, or actions directed toward a specific gender, often stemming from anger or resentment. For instance, rejecting a woman's legitimate relationship standards by insisting her primary desire is money or rejecting a man's legitimate need for intimacy by insisting his primary desire is intercourse.

- **Ambivalent Sexism**: Ambivalent sexism is a complex behavior that may be seen to utilize benevolent aspects as a hostile method of control. An example would be an offering to carry something for a woman to get her to accept that she is weak or an offering to help a man with the laundry to get him to accept that he is domestically incompetent.

  Moreover, ambivalent sexism theory suggests that hostile and benevolent sexism are not contradictory but rather complement each other to address the gender relationship paradox. Benevolent sexism influences the target, often without the target's awareness, into accepting the subordinate position. Meanwhile, hostile sexism functions to maintain the status quo by penalizing those who challenge traditional gender roles.

- **Institutional Sexism**: Institutional sexism permeates various societal institutions, such as media, government, finance, education, healthcare, and workplaces. It reflects systemic gender biases within these structures. For instance, there is a belief that men are better at math and make better engineers, whereas women are better at relationships and make better counselors.

- **Interpersonal Sexism**: This type of sexism manifests in personal interactions with individuals, including family, friends, coworkers, or even strangers. It includes behaviors or attitudes that reinforce gender stereotypes and biases. For example, a husband telling his wife to make dinner for him, or a wife telling her husband she will decide his outfit for him.

- **Internalized Sexism**: Internalized sexism is the acceptance of sexist beliefs, leading individuals to perceive themselves as less valuable than the other gender. Examples include a man who does not manifest his thoughts on raising an infant or a woman who does not express her feelings on vehicle repair.

Sexism may manifest in verbal and written expressions. This may involve using words that separate rather than unify gender (e.g., waitress/water rather than server), using gender-based titles such as "mid**wife**" or "mail**man**," or taking a gender-based word as the default (e.g., ballerina for both female and male ballet dancers).

Addressing Sexism

It is vital to confront genuine instances of discrimination while upholding a fair and respectful discourse that values individual freedom of expression and acknowledges the merits of traditional gender roles. Open dialogue, mutual respect, and fair treatment are key principles in addressing sexism in all its forms

wherever it may be found. This can be accomplished in part by encouraging individuals to recognize their intrinsic value and not accept the idea of being less valuable than the other gender. In general, emphasizing self-worth and individual strengths is fundamental to countering sexism.

F. Sexual Harassment

According to the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), sexual harassment involves unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature when this conduct explicitly or implicitly affects an individual's employment, unreasonably interferes with an individual's work performance, or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work environment. In every instance of sexual harassment, it is crucial to recognize that at least one person involved finds the behavior unwelcome and distressing. This problem can manifest in various settings, such as workplaces, religious institutions, or educational institutions. There are two main **types of sexual harassment**.

Quid Pro Quo Harassment

According to EEOC, quid pro quo harassment refers to a situation where an employee's job or job-related decisions are influenced by their response to unwelcome sexual conduct. Quid quo pro is a Latin phrase meaning **something for something**. Authority figures that engage in harassment expect individuals who report to them to accept unwelcome sexual interaction. Although it frequently happens in the workplace, it may happen anywhere if one person abuses their dominance over another to obtain anything sexual. Some examples include:

- An employer using the promise of or the threat of termination to coerce an employee into accepting unwelcome sexual interaction.

- A director implying that an actor needs to accept unwelcome sexual interaction to secure a role in a play or movie.

- Military superiors requesting that subordinates accept unwelcome sexual interaction to gain promotions or beneficial assignments.

It is essential to address sexual harassment from a conservative perspective that values individual rights, personal boundaries, and the dignity of all individuals involved. Moreover, upholding ethical conduct and respect for others in both personal and professional interactions is crucial.

Hostile Environment Harassment

Unlike quid pro quo harassment, **hostile environment harassment** can be initiated by anyone, including those who are not in positions of authority. EEOC defines a hostile work environment as a workplace where unwelcome sexual behavior or behavior targeting an employee based on their gender is offensive, intimidating, or hostile. This situation may negatively impact the employee's job performance. Identifying hostile environment harassment can be more challenging due to its subjective nature, as

what one person considers a hostile workplace may differ from another's perspective on acceptable behavior.

Some examples include:

- Comments about a coworker's physical appearance.

- Displaying photographs within an office that could be seen as sensual in nature.

- Engaging in discussions or telling jokes with sexual content in the workplace, even if the involved parties are comfortable with it, potentially making onlookers feel uncomfortable.

Please refer to the table below to further illustrate the difference between the two types. Note that, the EEOC clarifies that while these two types are considered theoretically distinct, they can overlap, and these two forms of harassment may happen together.

Table 53 - 11: Differences between quid pro quo & hostile environment harassment

Quid Pro Quo Harassment	Hostile Environment Harassment
Deliberate	Deliberate or indeliberate
Mostly performed by authority figures or superior individuals in an organization or corporation	Can be done by superiors or equals in an organization
Generally much harder to overcome as it involves workplace or cultural authority who can retaliate	Relatively easier to address compared to quid pro quo

It is important to understand that what is considered offensive varies from person to person. Differences in perspectives on sexual harassment could potentially lead to victim-blaming. **Victim blaming** refers to the practice of attributing sexual harassment to a weakness or error on the part of the victim.

G. Patriarchy vs. Matriarchy

Patriarchy and matriarchy are two social constructs that describe societies in which either males or females, respectively, hold authority over social groups or larger cultures as a whole. In a patriarchal society, men hold power over the decision-making process in the family and community. In contrast, a matriarchal society gives power and authority to women.

Theories around Patriarchy

At the time of this publication, in the early 2020s, there was significant discussion and contention regarding the modern impacts of a patriarchal society. Below is a summary of many different views and theories on patriarchy and its impacts on society.

Table 54 - 11: Differences theories around patriarchy vs. matriarchy

Sylvia Walby	Six main factors contributing to patriarchal control:
	1) In paid work, there are:
	   a) **gender pay gap** - women earn *less* than men for doing similar work or work of equal value
	   b) **glass ceiling** - unseen barriers that prohibit some professionals, often women, from reaching accomplishments, promotions, and success in the workplace
	2) Housework performed by women but benefiting men
	   - "**Second shift**" (developed by Arlie Hochschild) - This is unpaid work done at home after a person's paid employment. Although many men are involved in household chores nowadays, the primary duty for domestic tasks still largely falls on women, even when employed outside the home.
	3) Culture and gender stereotypes
	4) Sexuality and the double standard that allows men to have many sexual partners but not women
	5) Violence and men dominating women through physical strength
	6) Male-dominated politics

Steven Goldberg	He published *The Inevitability of Patriarchy,* which details how human biology serves as evidence that male dominance is universal.
Angus John Bateman: Bateman's Principle	Suggests that women invest more energy in rearing offspring than men, and men compete for access to females as a valuable resource. The idea that women and children rely on men for their daily necessities sparks competition among men to secure these resources.
Gerda Lerner	She published *The Creation of Patriarchy*, which details how patriarchy originated in the Middle East in the second-millennium B.C.E and how **women** were more **highly regarded before** this time. Lerner claimed that cultural progress, not human nature, was what led to patriarchy and that this progress was also the way to eradicate it. She also asserted that women were typically aware of their supposed inferiority until cultural progress made them conscious of it.
Susan Moller Okin	Similar to Sylvia Walby, Susan Moller Okin describes socially constructed differences between men and women in her book *Justice, Gender, and the Family:* 1) Power 2) Paid and unpaid work 3) Self-esteem 4) Physical or financial stability 5) Opportunities for self-development

While some speculate that patriarchal systems neglect the experiences and viewpoints of women, others speculate that the current focus on negative scrutiny of patriarchal systems could lead to an overcompensation that creates matriarchal systems that neglect the experiences and viewpoints of men. To combat extremes and the accompanying social faults that arise from them, the value, impact, and necessity of equal respect, universal compassion for others, and a constant effort to work to defend the dignity of others cannot be understated.

H. Sexual Viewpoints

The complex and multifaceted nature of sexuality and sexual behavior has brought these issues to the forefront of societal discussions and debates. These conversations often expose a wide range of perspectives, sometimes conflicting, with individuals holding strong convictions regarding their respective viewpoints. This article examines just some of the contentious topics, exploring the diverse perspectives on teen pregnancy, birth control, pornography, and prostitution.

Teen Pregnancy

The first issue is focused on the sexual activity of teenagers, specifically regarding teen pregnancy and its potential impact on adolescents. The table below summarizes some perspectives from the two primary differing views on the topic.

Table 55 - 11: Concurrent and critical viewpoints on teenage pregnancy

Concurrent	Critical
Younger women are more likely to have bodies and health to bear healthy children.	Teenagers' emotional maturity and financial stability may be too underdeveloped to have and raise children.
Younger women can use the energy of youth to care for and raise children.	Teenagers may have energy but not the necessary wisdom and experience to have and raise children.

Birth Control

The use of birth control and family planning methods encompasses a spectrum of diverse perspectives. While some individuals view abortion as an acceptable method of birth control, others hold the belief that all forms of birth control should be refrained from. The ethical considerations surrounding birth control extend to determining the appropriate circumstances for its use, accessibility, and the optimal timing for its implementation.

Access to a variety of fertility regulation methods allows individuals to make informed decisions about family planning. This enables them to consider their personal circumstances, career goals, and aspirations when contemplating parenthood. However, views on such methods differ extensively. On one end, some advocate for natural family planning approaches, while others view later-stage pregnancy termination as an acceptable option. Still others oppose any form of fertility regulation, citing religious,

cultural, or ethical reasons. Such diverse perspectives stem from a range of influences, including individual beliefs, media, politics, and sociocultural factors.

Pornography

While the definition of pornography can vary, one basic **legal definition** is "material that depicts nudity or sexual acts for the **purpose** of sexual stimulation." Pornography is found and consumed in a variety of ways, including audio, video, written, and animated. Legally speaking, part of what defines pornography is purpose. Textbooks that display illustrations of bare genitalia for educational purposes, or artistic depictions of nude individuals in museums may not be classified as pornography. There is much discussion and debate surrounding pornography along with studies on the effects of pornography on individuals and society. The table below summarizes some of the perspectives.

Table 56 - 11: Concurrent and critical viewpoints on pornography

Concurrent	Critical
Some see the pornographic industry as employing many consensual adults and thus providing financial independence and a product for the economy.	Some say engaging with pornography is immoral and perpetuates a sexually exploitative culture and society.
Some say that virtual pornography that does not involve any real people is a safe way for socially taboo sexual interests to be engaged with.	Some believe that pornography breaks down natural social boundaries, encouraging the acceptance of immoral or harmful behaviors.

Prostitution

Prostitution, dating back to at least 2400 B.C.E. in Babylon and also being documented in almost every civilization throughout history, is often called "the world's oldest profession." It is the formal agreed-upon exchange of something sexual for some form of payment. There are varying opinions of prostitution and it can be considered a controversial issue. The table below summarizes some of these perspectives.

Table 57 - 11: Concurrent and critical viewpoints on prostitution

Concurrent	Critical
Some say that the choice to offer themselves as a sexual commodity solely belongs to the individual.	Some believe that the reduction of a person to being bought for sex is immorally objectifying a human being.
Some view prostitution as an industry that provides sex workers with valid income and even supports larger society via taxes paid to the government.	Some compare the social effects of prostitution to the illegal drug trade and, based on morality and good will, dismiss the financial gains as irrelevant.

I. Sociological Perspectives on Gender

The three main schools of thought in sociology view gender in varying ways:

- **Structural-Functional Theory**: The division of work between genders in terms of roles and inequalities is productive.

- **Conflict Theory**: Social groups fight for supremacy. Men strive to maintain their control and power.

- **Symbolic Interactionism**: We learn about gender roles through socialization or interaction.

In addition to them, two other theories have risen to prominence:

- **Feminist Theory**: Gender depends on social and cultural factors.

- **Queer Theory**: Gender extends beyond the sexualities, identities, and practices of social norms.

Feminist Theory

The feminist theory explores how gender roles and hierarchies are created and maintained, and how they may benefit some people at the expense of others. Historically, there have been **four waves of feminism**, and each is based on the period in which the causes they fought for were most relevant:

Table 58 - 11: Periods in which feminist causes were fought

Wave	Period	Issues
First	19th to early 20th centuries	Right to vote
Second	1960s–1980s	Domesticity & Sexuality
Third	1990s–2000s	Diversity & Intersectionality
Fourth	2010s–Present	Empowerment using digital media

Similarly, there are also **four types of feminism**:

- **Radical feminism** seeks to dismantle the patriarchal system of capitalism to liberate women from the constraints of traditional domestic responsibilities. Radical feminists advocated for the following:
  - Deconstructing heteronormative gender roles.
  - Raising awareness of sexual assault and harassment.
  - Reproductive rights.
  - Recognizing the sexualization of women.

- **Marxist feminism** analyzes the relationship between gender and capitalism. Marxist feminists argue that capitalism is the root cause of women's oppression and that women's

liberation can only be achieved through the overthrow of capitalism. Some of the key principles of Marxist feminism include:

- Freedom from oppressive and unpaid domestic labor.
- Equal participation in the workforce and equal pay for equal work.
- Recognition of the emotional toll of traditional gender roles.
- Reproductive rights and bodily autonomy.

- **Cultural feminism** builds on the ideas of radical feminism, but it focuses on celebrating womanhood and feminine qualities. Cultural feminists view roles like motherhood as positive expressions of the female body, soul, and spirit. Some of the key values of cultural feminism include:
  - Promoting gender differences.
  - Celebrating stereotypically feminine qualities such as motherhood, peace, and passivity.

- **Liberal feminism** advocates for gender equality and women's legal rights. It emerged in the 19th century and has since influenced many other branches of feminist theory. Liberal feminists have campaigned for a variety of causes, including:
  - Educational access
  - Reproductive rights
  - Voting rights
  - Property rights

Feminism is complex and evolving, so no single feminist view should be taken as defining the sociological theory as a whole, along with any individuals professing feminist ideals.

Queer Theory

Queer theory is an interdisciplinary field of study that examines sexuality and gender in ways that go beyond traditional norms and assumptions. Queer theorists argue that sexuality and gender are not fixed or binary but rather fluid and complex. They also focus on the intersections of sexuality, gender, and other social factors such as race, class, and ethnicity. Queer theorists tend to avoid the use of labels to define sexuality, suggesting that traditional binary classifications are repressive and limiting.

Queer theorist Eve Kosofsky Sedgwick argued that North American society's view of sexuality is limited, as it focuses only on a person's desired partner's sex. Sedgwick noted a great number of further variations in people's sexualities, including:

- Similar genital acts convey quite different things to different persons.

- Self-identities can be influenced by sexuality for some and not for others.

- Frequency of sexual thoughts varies widely.

- Preferred frequency of sex varies greatly.

- Some people engage in sexual fantasies that they do not intend to or are not comfortable with but find that they provide them with the most mentally and emotionally stimulating experiences.

- Some people prefer structured sexual encounters, while others prefer those that appear unplanned.

- Some people who identify as LGBTQIA+ may feel that their sexuality is closely intertwined with gender roles and expectations, while others do not.

Queer theorists challenge society's views and experiences of sex, gender, and sexuality and aim to expand the basic understanding of the sociology of sex, gender, and sexuality and increase the awareness and acceptance of persons outside traditional social norms.

Chapter 11: Review Questions

1. **The term refers to biological differences between men and women, while the term ____ refers to a social construct involving how a person identifies as male or female and expresses those traits to others.**

    A. Sex; gender
    B. Transgender; intersexual
    C. Intersexual; transgender
    D. Gender; sex
    E. Gender identity; sexual orientation

2. **External and common differences between men and women that don't include genitalia, such as differences in height, men's ability to grow beards, and women's breasts, are examples of ____.**

    A. Primary sex characteristics
    B. Secondary sex characteristics
    C. Tertiary sex characteristics
    D. Quaternary sex characteristics
    E. Quinary sex characteristics

3. **Which statement BEST reflects how women in a benevolent sexist society are harmed?**

    A. It makes women incapable of handling challenging tasks.
    B. It implies that women have to wear lots of makeup to look pretty for men.
    C. It makes women desire compliments from strange men.
    D. It insinuates that women are dependent on men.
    E. It implies that women are bad and unworthy of respect.

4. **The belief that men are superior and should be in control of the family and society is called**

    A. patriarchy.
    B. matriarchy.
    C. patrilineal.
    D. patrilocal.
    E. paternal.

5. **Which of the following likely explains the behavior Mead observed among the Mundugumor tribe of New Guinea?**

    A. Their cannibalistic society required masculine, aggressive behavior of both males and females.
    B. Physical labor required more masculine, cannibalistic behaviors.
    C. Their cannibalistic society required genders to work together, sharing the work and child-rearing.
    D. Their cannibalistic society prioritized childcare and family, so traditionally, feminine behaviors were prevalent.
    E. Men here were typically emotional and subservient.

6. **What are gender roles?**

   A. The physical differences between men and women.
   B. Characters that men and women play in the theater.
   C. Characters that have to be played by men or women.
   D. Socially acceptable rules of behavior for men and women.
   E. How a person identifies as male or female.

7. **Which of the following statements is NOT true about sexual harassment?**

   A. It can occur in a school or workplace setting.
   B. It is unwelcome, repetitive, and deliberate.
   C. A hostile work environment is the only recognized form of sexual harassment.
   D. It includes sexual comments, gestures, or physical contact.
   E. It can be done by peers.

8. **Which type of sexism occurs when a society gives different opportunities or advantages to one sex in a specific context?**

   A. Ambivalent sexism
   B. Hostile sexism
   C. Institutional sexism
   D. Operational sexism
   E. Internalized sexism

9. **The term "second shift" refers to the fact that a number of women**

   A. are still responsible for housework in addition to working outside the home.
   B. work more than one job.
   C. work off hours, earlier or later than 9:00 A.M. to 5:00 P.M.
   D. contribute relatively little to the family income.
   E. have earnings equal to men for comparable work.

10. **Which of the following is NOT a goal of feminism?**

    A. To change the present system, which provides only limited choices in women's roles.
    B. To promote sexual autonomy and the right of women to have great jurisdiction over sexuality and reproduction.
    C. To reverse the sexist ideology that claims men are innately superior and instead promotes the superiority of women.
    D. To end violence directed at women.
    E. To address political, social, and economic inequalities between men and women.

Chapter 12: Aging and the Elderly

Overview

This chapter starts with defining gerontology and how the aging population is studied. It then presents the aging process around the world and the different phases of aging. Next, it explains the factors influencing the graying of America. After that, it describes the changes and challenges as people age. Lastly, it details the various perspectives on aging.

Learning Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Explain what gerontology is and how the aging population is studied.
- Describe the baby boomers and the concepts of dependency ratio, filial piety, and aging boom.
- Define the commonly used age groups in phases of aging.
- Define birth rate, death rate, and life expectancy.
- Describe the changes that happen as we age, the stages of grief, and the concept of euthanasia.
- State the challenges faced by the elderly.
- Summarize the sociological perspective on aging.

A. Gerontology

Gerontology is the scientific study of aging and its effects on individuals and societies. It encompasses a wide range of topics, including the biological, psychological, social, and economic aspects of aging. Gerontologists are interested in understanding how people age, the challenges they face, and how to improve their quality of life. **Social gerontology** is the specialized branch of gerontology that concentrates on the social aspects of aging. Social gerontologists study how people cope with life at certain ages, an elderly individual's well-being, and their dying processes. Attitudes towards aging have changed over the past century. This is due to a number of factors, including societal changes, industrialization and modernization, and advances in modern medicine. As a result, healthcare benefits such as Medicare and Social Security have become available to aging individuals, and elderly individuals are able to live longer.

Koshin Paley Ellison, co-founder of the New York Zen Center for Contemplative Care, suggests that there is a significant sense of shame associated with aging and death. Some people approaching old age may feel that they are becoming less valuable. Additionally, Professor Jared Diamond of the University of California, Los Angeles said that this is intensified by the **high value placed on work ethic** in the United States, where a person's societal worth is largely tied to their ability to work. Thus, when someone reaches old age and is no longer working, they may feel like they've lost their main value in society. Similarly, our culture's obsession with youth places great importance on qualities like independence and self-reliance, which often diminish with age.

B. Studying the Aging Populations

Demography is a statistical study of human populations. Determining the population percentages of the various age groups in a country or region provides useful insight that can help investigate trends. This can be done through a **census**, a process of counting individuals.

The United States Census Bureau is one of the main agencies that studies aging populations. They collect data and then calculate the population's **median age**. The median age is a statistical measure used to represent the midpoint of an age distribution, indicating that an equal number of people fall below and above that age. In their 2020 census, it was reported that the median age in the United States was around 39 years old. This means that half of the country was under 39 years of age, and the other half were over 39.

The Bureau often creates age groups to examine the population. A **cohort** is seen as a collection of individuals who share a statistical or demographic characteristic. People within the same age cohorts are considered to have been born at the same time or at least within the same time frame. Understanding the population and its ages can help others understand social and cultural factors and even aid the government with prospective plans to overcome social and economic challenges.

Baby Boomers

The baby boomer generation, encompassing individuals born between 1946 and 1964, is a frequently analyzed demographic cohort. As of 2023, baby boomers range in age from 59 to 77 years old. This generation witnessed the emergence of the first generation of teens and young adults with significant spending power and influence on marketing trends (Macunovich, 2000). The sheer size of the baby boomer cohort has led to a substantial increase in the population of individuals aged 65 and over, raising concerns about the social and economic implications of this aging population.

Healthcare is one of the areas that have become extremely impacted by the aging of baby boomers. The increasing demand for healthcare has put a huge strain on the economy. Today, many find it hard to get by with minimum living arrangements. Some baby boomers experienced a higher standard of living and lived luxuriously, but many were not able to prepare for retirement. In a report published by the McKinsey Global Institute (2008), two-thirds of baby boomers did not have enough savings to continue maintaining their lifestyle.

C. Aging Around the World

Between 1950 and 2010, the global population of people 65 years of age and older increased by roughly 5-7 percent (Lee, 2009). This is expected to affect the **dependency ratio** or the ratio of the population not in the workforce (dependent population) relative to the working-age population (productive population). For example, China is facing a dangerous aging crisis. It is on the cusp of the "aging boom," where the elderly population will dramatically increase. Research suggests that by the year 2050, one-third of their population will be 60 and older (Xuequan, 2011). This creates a potential burden on the labor force and may even impact China's economic growth.

The increasing life expectancy and improvements in healthcare are posing challenges for eldercare systems around the world. As the proportion of working-age adults to the elderly population decreases, the cost of eldercare is expected to increase. Additionally, there are different cultural views on eldercare. In some countries, there is a strong tradition of filial piety, which emphasizes the importance of caring for one's elderly parents. In other countries, some people may view eldercare as a burden, even when the elderly individual is a family member.

D. The Phases of Aging: The Young-Old, Middle-Old, and Old-Old

Generally, individuals in the United States who are over the age of 18 are considered to be **adults**. This group is further subdivided. **Young adults** typically range from 18 to 25 or even 40 years old. Meanwhile, **middle-aged adults** often range between 40 and 60, or sometimes between 35 and 65. Additionally, for those 65 and older, there are three different **life stage subgroups**:

- The Young-Old: 65 years to 74 years of age

- The Middle-Old: 75 years to 84 years of age

- The Old-Old: 85 years and older

Moreover, the old-old is also further divided. **Centenarians** live to be at least 100 years old. They are more common than **supercentenarians**, who live to be at least 110 years old and older. Young-old individuals tend to live happier and healthier lives in today's society, but this was not the case in the past.

In the past, families often played a primary role in making decisions about eldercare. These decisions were typically made during times of health crisis, with the elderly individual having limited input in the process. Today, many older adults have greater autonomy in making decisions about their living arrangements, including choosing assisted living facilities that provide both independent living and access to necessary care services.

E. The Graying of the United States

Consequences of Graying of America

Recent census data shows a "**graying of America**," which is the progressive shift in the country's demographics toward an older population that now makes up most of the population.

What will happen if this is the case? It would be difficult for an older population with less familiarity with digital technology to successfully administer the economy as the globe becomes more digitized. The economy of the United States will be impacted by graying as a result of its

Projections of the Older Adult Population: 2020 to 2060

By 2060, nearly one in four Americans is projected to be an older adult.

Millions of people 65 years and older	Percent of population
2016 — 49.2	15
2020 — 56.1	17
2030 — 73.1	21
2040 — 80.8	22
2050 — 85.7	22
2060 — 94.7	23
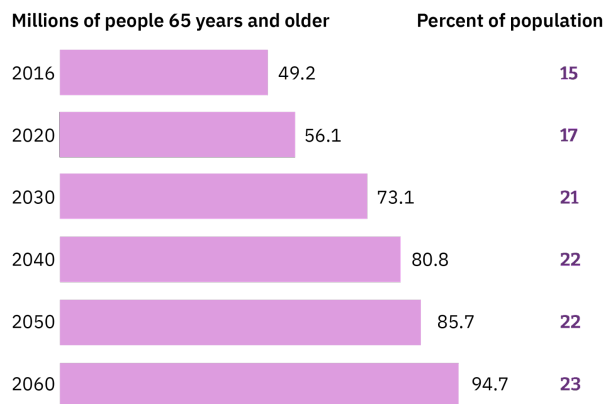
inability to supply the current workforce. Also, the country must prepare to offer care and services to the continuously expanding elderly population. Additionally, several professions will be impacted if the older population retires and there is an insufficient number of people to take their place. However, **immigration** may be able to address the issues associated with the aging population of the United States. The difference between the workforce demand and supply will gradually close as immigration rates rise.

Factors Influencing the Graying of America

Based on recent census data, the phenomenon of "**graying of America**" has been associated with multiple factors, such as birth rate, death rate, and life expectancy.

Birth Rate

The birth rate is the number of babies born within a given time frame. The usual method for calculating this rate in humans is to divide the total number of births within a year by the total population and then multiply the result by 1000. Recent reports found a **declining birth rate**, which is attributed to many variables, such as the expensive cost of raising children, the widespread support for having fewer children, efficient family planning and birth control procedures, and the revolution in women's employment.

Death Rate

The death rate, also known as the **mortality rate**, is the number of people who pass away during a given time frame. This is determined by dividing the total annual mortality by the total population, then multiplying the result by 1000. Proper management of cardiac problems in the elderly and an increase in medical care for adult ailments have been linked to lower death rates in America. Additionally, fewer infants are dying due to the low birth rate. Hence, a nation's death rates can be reduced by managing the major causes of death.

Life Expectancy

This term refers to the typical amount of time an organism is **anticipated to live**. In humans, life expectancy provides a projection of the ages at which different population members will be when they pass away. Gender, public health, violence, and access to medical treatment all have an impact on life expectancy. People in a population without access to healthcare, for instance, may have shorter life expectancies.

According to the National Vital Statistics Rapid Release Reports (2021), the average life expectancy at birth of a person in the United States was estimated to be 76.1 years. The report also indicated that, on average, women tended to have a longer life expectancy at 79.1 years, while men had a life expectancy at 73.2 years. A decrease in life expectancy from 2020 to 2021 was mainly caused by a rise in COVID-19-related deaths.

Figure 1. Life expectancy at birth, by sex: United States, 2000-2021
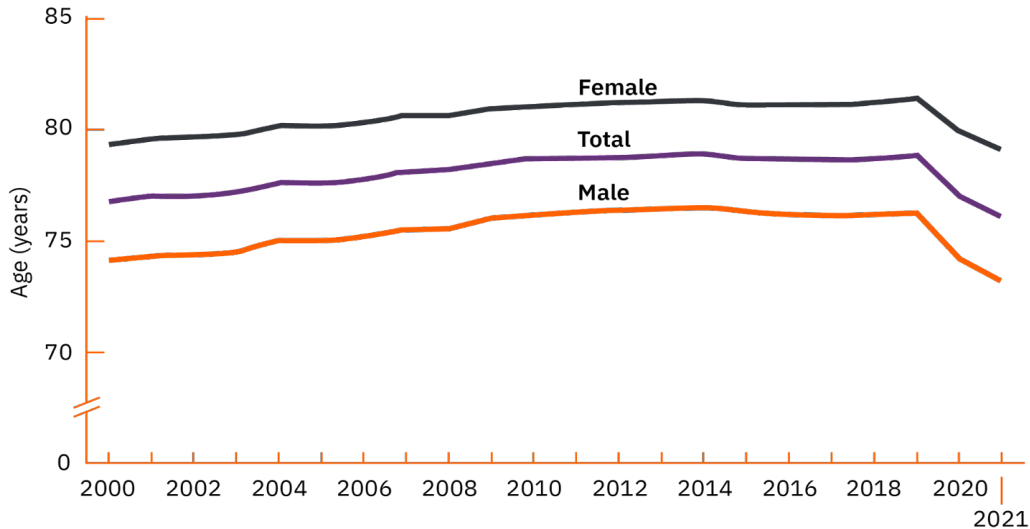
NOTES: Estimates are based on provisional data of 2021. Provisional data are subject to change as additional data are received. Estimates for 2000-2020 are based on final data.
SOURCE: National center for Health Statistics, National Vital Statistics System, Mortality

Table 59 - 12: Characteristics of birth rate, death rate & life expectancy

Birth Rate	Death Rate	Life Expectancy
Number of babies born within a given time frame.	Number of people who pass away during a given time frame.	Typical amount of time an organism is anticipated to live.
Total number of births within a year and divide it by the total population then multiply by 1000.	Total annual mortality divided by the total population, then multiplying the result by 1000.	Variables including gender, public health, violence, and access to medical treatment.
If 20 births occur per year per 1000 individuals, the birth rate is 20.	A death rate of 7.5 (per 1000 people) in a population of 1 million would suggest 7500 deaths per year in the entire population.	If a group of people has a life expectancy at birth of 85 years, individuals in that group, on average, are expected to live up to approximately 85 years.

F. The Process of Aging

Life course is defined as the period from birth to death, including a series of anticipated life events like physical maturation. Every stage of the aging process will have different responsibilities and expectations, but there can be cultural and individual differences.

For instance, **children** usually like to play with friends and the newest toys that come to market from their favorite television shows. **Teenagers** may want to spend more time with their friends and perhaps begin looking at the potential challenges of adulthood. **Adults** usually look ahead toward starting families and starting careers. **Older adults** tend to start looking at times when they can stop working and enjoy the rest of their lives without worrying about family life and work.

Throughout a life course, the **level of dependency changes**. A baby is dependent on their mother or caregiver for essentially everything. As individuals progress through the stages of life from infancy to adulthood, their degree of dependency on others for care diminishes. This pattern varies from culture to culture and from family to family. Aging is multifaceted, as it involves biological, social, and psychological changes.

Biological Changes

Senescence is the biological aging process or the degeneration of the physical body as we age. The circumstances are different for everyone and can be influenced by many factors. **Primary aging** refers to age-related changes caused by biological and inevitable factors, including molecular and cellular modifications. Meanwhile, **secondary aging** is caused by external factors, environmental influences, and lifestyle choices like poor diet or lack of exercise. Here, disease and the environment claim the body. Many adults will notice signs of aging, primarily physical, when they reach 50 years of age. Some physical changes include:

- Skin becomes thinner, dryer, and less elastic.

- Wrinkles will form.

- Hair may begin to thin out and become gray.

- Some men begin to bald and/or will lose their hair.

Some individuals may struggle to come to terms with these changes and grow concerned about the physical changes that they experience.

Social and Psychological Changes

Retirement is a significant life event that can have a profound impact on the social and psychological well-being of older adults. Until the late 19th century, people worked upwards of 60 hours a week, usually until they were physically unable to work that much anymore. After the **American Civil War**, pensions were given to veterans, which allowed them to leave the workforce. It contributed to the decline of older men working. Researchers noticed another decline after **World War II**, possibly due to people being able to receive social security (Munnell, 2011). The last known decline occurred during the **1960s and the 1970s**, and it was believed that it was due to **Medicare** and the benefits that increased with Social Security.

Elderly individuals may face the **death of their significant others**. This can be extremely despairing to an individual, especially in the later stages of life. The effects of aging can manifest differently between

genders. For instance, women may experience limitations in accessing social security benefits due to their disproportionate involvement in unpaid caregiving roles. Additionally, older women may face challenges in receiving adequate attention for their health concerns. In contrast, the decline in sexual performance associated with aging in men is often medicalized and presented as requiring intervention to maintain a sense of youthful masculinity (Marshall & Katz, 2002).

Aging and Sexuality

It is often difficult for a lot of people to have a conversation about sex and sexuality, especially when it comes to people who are aging. There has been a lot of speculation that a person's sexual drive ends at the age of 65, but this is simply not the case. Many persons over the age of 65 still enjoy having sex. For instance, Camacho and Reyes-Ortiz surveyed 27,000 individuals aged 40 to 80 between 2001 and 2002. They found that approximately half of the men aged 70 to 80 indicated that they had engaged in sexual intercourse in the past year.

G. Death and Dying

Mortality is a universal experience, particularly during the later stages of life. The loss of a loved one often evokes grief, a complex psychological, emotional, and social response to the feelings associated with death or similar events. Perceptions of death, both one's own and that of others, are often shaped by cultural norms and beliefs. While some cultures view death as a natural transition, others may perceive it with fear or apprehension.

Elizabeth Kubler-Ross was one of the earliest researchers on the process of dying. She observed people who were dying and found that there were some similarities between their experiences. She saw that there are **five stages** that a person goes through when grieving.

1. Denial
2. Anger
3. Bargaining
4. Depression
5. Acceptance

The first stage is **denial**. People go through the denial stage and think that what they are going through isn't happening. The next stage is **anger**. Many people will go through this and feel what they are experiencing isn't fair. Some may feel as if life is playing a dirty joke on them. In the next stage, **bargaining**, people attempt to negotiate with a higher power and ask them to take them instead of their loved ones. The next stage is **depression**. This is where an individual believes that the situation is becoming hopeless, that they know death is near or pending. The last stage is **acceptance**. People finally come to terms with the fact that death is going to happen.

Stages of Grief

DENIAL
*Avoidance
*Confusion
*Excitement
*Shock/fear

ANGER
*Frustation
*Irritability
*Anxiety

BARGAINING
*Struggling to find meaning
*Reaching out to others
*Telling your own story

DEPRESSION
*Helplessness
*Hostility
*Avoidance

ACCEPTANCE
*Exploring opportunities
*Introducing new plans
*Moving forward
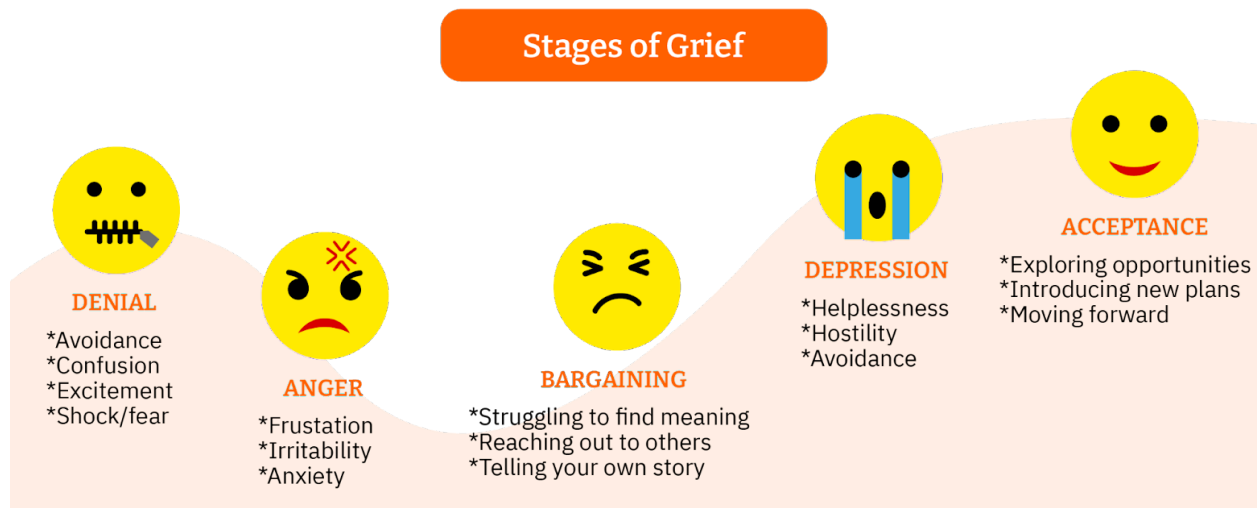
These stages have been very eye-opening to those in **thanatology**. Thanatology, also coined by Kubler-Ross, is the systematic study of death and dying. One concept in thanatology is **dying with dignity**. This is related to **euthanasia**, the practice of ending life painlessly. Euthanasia can be carried out in various ways:

- **Voluntary passive euthanasia** (VPE): This involves withholding treatments (such as chemotherapy or surgery), knowing that this may result in death. It is the most accepted form of euthanasia and is usually done at the request of the patient or the patient's family.

- **Voluntary active euthanasia** (VAE): This entails the use of lethal substances or forces to cause a person's death, considered the most controversial and problematic, and is generally legally prohibited.

- **Assisted suicide**: The patient actively takes the last step in their death. Someone (the "assistant") provides the patient with the means (drugs or equipment) to end their own life rather than ending the life for them.

The key distinction between euthanasia and assisted suicide is who takes the active role in causing death: in **euthanasia**, it's someone other than the patient, while in **assisted suicide**, it's the patient who commits the act that causes death. Euthanasia is regarded as **physician-assisted suicide** if a doctor prescribes an aid-in-dying medication pill to hasten the end of a patient who gave consent. One of the first advocates of physician-assisted suicide was Dr. Jack Kevorkian.

Euthanasia is prohibited in some states but permitted in others. Both pro- and anti-euthanasia persons are fervent in their commitment to their positions. While some choose euthanasia, others choose **hospice**, a kind of healthcare that assists in caring for terminally ill people when "cure-oriented treatments" are no longer possible. The primary purpose of hospice is to improve the patient's quality of life as they approach death and provide care and comfort. Hospice care can happen in one's home or in a facility.

H. Challenges Facing the Elderly

Aging comes with challenges. One of the challenges that a person faces is independence. Some have a physical inability to be independent. Other challenges include retirement, ageism, and social isolation.

Adjustments after Retirement: Poverty and Social Isolation

Many people view retirement as a life of leisure, but it may include adjusting to a drastically **reduced income** (even destitution). Some are living off retirement that they saved over the years, some depend on Social Security services, while others live with a disability. Fortunately, the U.S. Census Bureau's data from 1966 to 2020 shows poverty rates among the elderly have been declining.

Additionally, elders may **lack social connection and a sense of direction** because they are no longer exposed to frequent social interactions. In addition to retirement, losing a spouse or significant other can be a major cause of social isolation among elderly people. This can be compounded by the challenges of ageism and elder abuse.

Ageism

Ageism is prejudice and/or discrimination against older people. It can be expressed blatantly or subtly. Unfair assumptions about a whole community can lead to discrimination and age-related bias in a range of contexts, just like racism and sexism. Traditionally, the elderly were highly regarded and respected in early communities. **Gerontocracy**, a social system where a community's oldest members hold power, was prevalent in many pre-industrial communities. In some cultures today, the elderly still hold power and authority, and their wealth of knowledge is valued, but many acts of ageism are also now being witnessed.

Mistreatment and Abuse

Elder abuse happens when a caretaker *intentionally* deprives an older person of care or harms the person in their charge. Some examples of caregivers are:

- Family members (mother, father, grandchildren, etc.)

- Friends of the family

- Health care professionals

- Employees of senior living facilities

- Employees of assisted living facilities

Elder abuse can take many forms including:

- Physical abuse: hitting or shaking

- Sexual abuse: rape or coerced nudity

- Physical or emotional abuse: verbal harassment or humiliation

- Neglect or failure to provide adequate care

- Financial abuse or exploitation

Kohn and Verhoek-Oftedahl (2011) found that elders are more likely to be abused when their caretakers are financially dependent on them. For instance, an adult child taking care of an elderly parent and relying on financial support from that parent is more likely to abuse that parent.

I. Theoretical Perspectives on Aging

Structural-Functional Perspective

The structural-functional perspective sees society as a complex system with unique components that cooperate to serve people's needs. These components (institutions) foster the stability and unity required for society to endure over time. Three aging theories fall within the structural-functional approach:

- Disengagement theory

- Activity theory

- Continuity theory

Cummings and Henry's (1961) **disengagement theory** of aging theorizes that as people age and come to terms with the fact that they are dying, they start to withdraw from their once-held social positions in society. In exchange, society accepts the unavoidable and prepares to carry on without that person. The theory suggests that:

- **It is rational for elderly populations to become disengaged** since they have seen friends their own age pass away and have started to think about their own deaths.

- **Men and women differ in ways of disengaging**. Women typically have a greater influence on socio-emotional organizations, while men have greater influence through their careers. People who retire and get older lose the skills and knowledge they acquired while working as well as their credibility and/or respect in their relationships with friends and family.

In response to the theory, **Robert J. Havighurst** proposed the **activity theory**. According to this theory, maintaining mental and physical exercise will boost older individuals' satisfaction. He emphasized that elderly people should continue to be social and involved in their community rather than withdrawing. These will enable older people to socialize and improve feelings of self-worth and pleasure—both crucial for a long life.

The **continuity theory** states that aging persons typically keep up their former activities, habits, personality traits, and interpersonal interactions. They maintain both:

- **Internal structures**, such as character qualities, concepts, and beliefs.

- **External structures**, including social roles and interactions.

The theory is criticized for failing to consider the impact chronic illnesses, like cancer or Alzheimer's disease, have on the aging individual who may not be able to sustain relationships or social roles.

Symbolic-Interactionist Perspective

According to the symbolic interaction perspective, **age is socially constructed** and defined by symbols resembling social interactions. Although this has no specific theories, it suggests:

- Being old or young is socially constructed, yet aging is a biological process.

- Culture ascribes meanings and certain behaviors to age groups. For instance, it might be considered improper for an elderly person to engage in risky activities like bungee jumping, but it might be acceptable for a younger person.

- Various cultures have diverse perspectives on aging. For instance, aging is seen more negatively in Western societies than in most Eastern civilizations, where age is typically connected with wisdom. In Western countries, many people make efforts to conceal their physical aging through cosmetic surgery or makeup.

Social Conflict Perspective

This perspective emphasizes age-group **competitiveness**. In this view, competition refers to a struggle for resources like money, power, and jobs. The three key arguments of this perspective are as follows:

- Different groups (young adults, middle-aged adults, and elderly adults) within a society compete for resources. Middle-aged adults are the strongest, forcing young individuals and older adults to **compete for limited resources**.

- As social groups pursue their own unique, conflicting objectives, a **recurring power struggle** between them happens.

- Social groups will maximize their available resources to **further their own interests**, even at the expense of other groups. The middle-aged group members in this situation serve as the gatekeepers of jobs, resources, and power and put their interests first.

Chapter 12: Review Questions

1. **Gerontology is defined as the study of _____ through middle age and later life.**

   A. Degradation and failure
   B. Growth and decay
   C. Sickness and health
   D. Maturing and development
   E. Children's development

2. **A group of people born in the same year is called a(n):**

   A. Gerontology
   B. Cohort differences
   C. Cohort
   D. Age-related changes
   E. Clique

3. **Young-Old people are?**

   A. Between 65 and 74.
   B. Still active.
   C. Older than 75.
   D. Those in retirement.
   E. Older than 100.

4. **If an individual was born between 1946 and 1964, that person is considered to be?**
   A. Baby boomer
   B. Gen Z
   C. Millennials
   D. Gen X
   E. None of these are correct.

5. **Which of the following is true of a population's death rate?**

   A. It is usually expressed per 1000 people.
   B. A decrease means that, on average, fewer people have died.
   C. It includes people of all gender identities.

   D. The death rate is a key indicator of a population's overall health and quality of life.
   E. All of these are true.

6. **The age at which individuals in a population are predicted to die is known as their _____.**

   A. Mortality expectancy
   B. Life expectancy
   C. Birth rate
   D. Death rate
   E. Fertility rate

7. **Why does secondary aging fall into a different category than primary aging?**

   A. It is a natural part of growing older.
   B. It deals with the body succumbing to illnesses and the environment.
   C. It can be prevented with memory training games.
   D. It can be prevented with the application of skin rejuvenation serums.
   E. It is primarily influenced by genetic factors.

8. **According to Kubler-Ross, what is the order of emotional responses one goes through when faced with the knowledge of death?**

   A. Denial, Bargaining, Anger, Depression, Acceptance.
   B. Denial, Anger, Depression, Acceptance, Bargaining.
   C. Denial, Anger, Bargaining, Depression, Acceptance.
   D. Depression, Denial, Anger, Bargaining, Acceptance.
   E. Depression, Anger, Bargaining, Denial, Acceptance.

9. *(Note: During the exam, you might be asked to interpret some maps or charts.)* **Based on this map, Russia has the darkest color compared to Canada, Australia, USA, and Brazil. What does this suggest about the number of deaths in Russia?**

A. Russia has the least number of deaths among the countries compared.
B. Russia has the lowest death rate among the countries compared.
C. The map does not provide any information about the number of deaths.
D. Russia has the highest number of deaths among the countries compared.
E. Russia's death rate is equal to the other countries.

Source: 2023 World Population Review

Crude Death Rate (per 1K) - UN 2015-2020

| 2.00 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 8.00 | 10.00 | 12.00 | 14.00 | 16.00 |
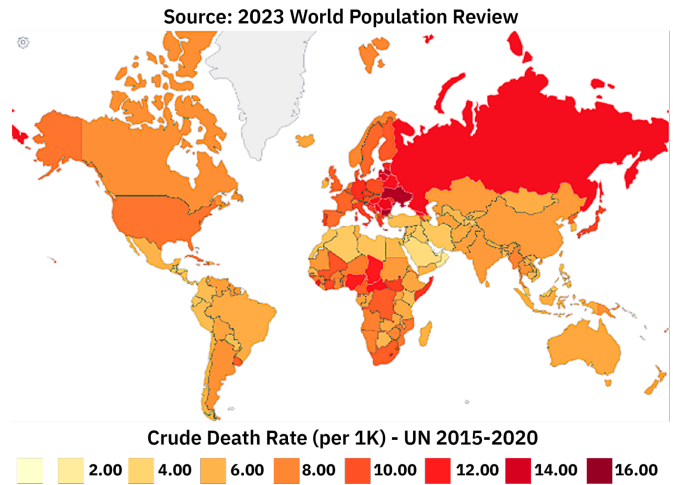
10. **Based on this map, South Dakota has a higher birth rate than Vermont. This means that _____.**

A. More births occur per population in Vermont than in South Dakota.
B. More children survive and live longer in Vermont than in South Dakota.
C. Women in Vermont have fewer children throughout their reproductive years compared to women in South Dakota.
D. On average, people in Vermont experience a lower rate of deaths compared to people in South Dakota.
E. Fewer births occur per population in Vermont than in South Dakota.

Source: 2023 World Population Review
Births Per 1K

70
65
60
55
50
45
40
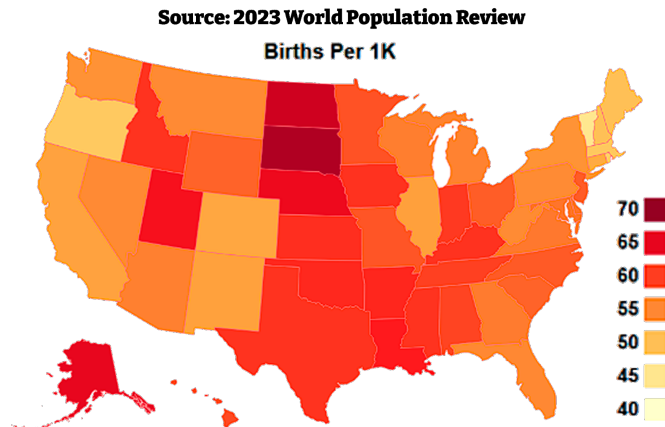
Chapter 13: Marriage and Family

Overview

This chapter first details the different types of family, kinship, marriage patterns, and lines of descent. Next, it presents the common stages families go through in a life course. Additionally, it compares the traditional family setup to non-traditional ones, highlighting the rise of single parenthood, cohabitation, same-sex families, and people opting to stay single. Lastly, it describes the challenges that some families face.

Learning Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Compare and contrast the different types of family, kinship, marriage patterns, and lines of descent.
- Summarize the family stages.
- Describe the variations in family life.
- State the challenges families face.

A. Family

Types of Family

Families are social groups that form emotional bonds and function as economic units within society. They are typically united by blood, marriage, cohabitation, or adoption. There are five common types of families: nuclear, extended, blended, matrifocal, and patrifocal. A **nuclear family** consists of a pair of adults and their socially recognized children. An **extended family** includes members beyond the nuclear family, such as grandparents, aunts, uncles, and cousins. Extended family members may live together or apart, depending on cultural norms and individual circumstances.

Another type of family is a **blended family**, formed when two adults with children from previous relationships merge to create a new family unit. For example, Wilson, who has a son named Jack, marries Sarah, who has a daughter named Emily. Together, they become a blended family, living under the same roof. In a **matrifocal family**, a single mother raises her children independently. The family revolves around the mother and her children, with the father having little to no involvement in the children's upbringing. The opposite of this family structure is **patrifocal family**.

Nuclear Family
A couple and their children together

Extended Family
A family consisting of three generations or more

Blended Family
2 households merge (at least 1 of them has a parent & child)

Matrifocal family
A woman taking care of her child/ren on her own

Patrifocal family
A man taking care of his child/ren on his own
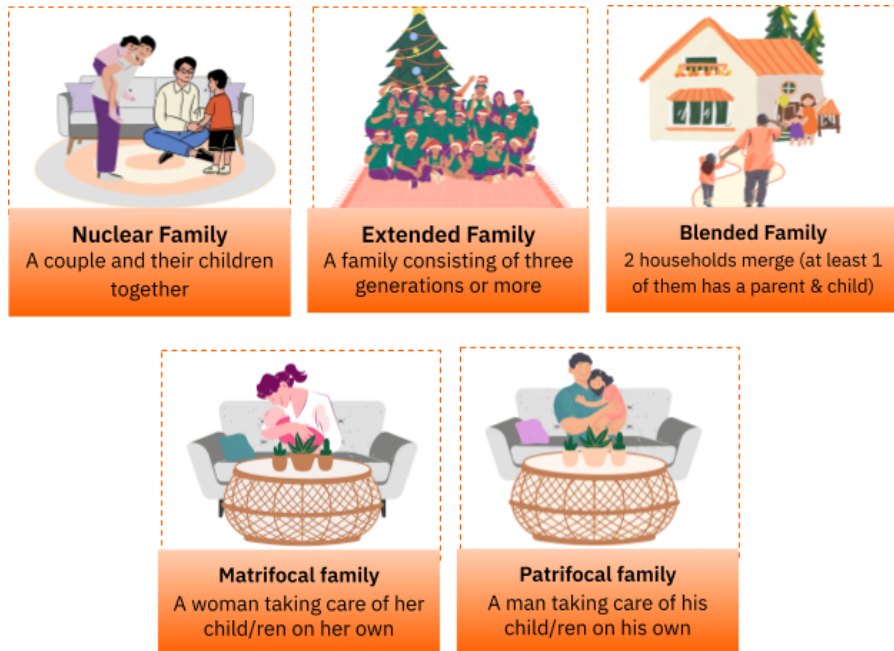
Family of Orientation and Procreation

Sociologists also categorize families based on how individuals become members of these families. The **family of orientation** is the family into which a person is born and/or raised. Meanwhile, the **family of procreation** is the family that a person builds by having or adopting children. For instance, Monica was raised in New York with her biological parents, so her family of orientation is with them. On the other hand, Claire and Felipe got married and adopted John. Two years later, Claire gave birth to Alex. Hence, the family of procreation here consists of Claire, Felipe, John, and Alex.

Family as a Social Institution

Before examining the family as a social institution, let's compare it to kinship. You may have heard the words **kith** and **kin**. Kith mostly means friends, while kin refers to family. However, "kin" and "family" actually have different meanings. Someone can have **kin** they will never meet because they come from earlier generations or are just outside their sphere of influence. **Kinship** is the relational bond people have with others. It can be based on blood, marriage, or adoption. On the other hand, a **family** lives together and is well acquainted. A family may share a home, participate in the same customs and traditions, uphold the same morals, and meet each other's fundamental needs, including the mental and emotional support young children require to develop into healthy, well-adjusted people. It can also grow due to marriage, childbirth, adoption, and other legal agreements.

Examples of Kinship

A kinship system is made up of different types of relationships as follows:

Table 60 - 13: Types of relationships that result in kinship system

Kinship Relationships	Description
Parent and child relationships	Father and son/daughter; mother and son/daughter
Grandparent and grandchild relationships	Grandfather and grandson/granddaughter; grandmother and grandson/granddaughter
Great-grandparent and great-grandchild relationships	"Great" refers to the number of generations separating a great-grandparent from a great-grandchild (for instance, a great-great-grandparent would be two generations older than the child's "regular" grandparent).
Uncle/aunt and niece/nephew relationships	An uncle or aunt is a child's parent's sibling; like with grandparents, the prefix "great" denotes generational differences.
Cousin Relationships	When an individual is the child of another's aunt or uncle.
Measures of Cousin Relationship Using terms like "cousins once, twice, thrice, etc. removed" and "first, second, third, etc. cousins" to indicate the connection between those who are not directly related	**Degree** measures the generational gap *from the nearest common ancestor* to a parent of one of the cousins (whichever is closest). Your **first cousin** is the child of one of your aunts or uncles. The closest common ancestor you both share is your grandparent. Tracing back *two* generations to your common ancestors. Your **second cousins** are the kids of your parents' first cousins. You trace back *three* generations to their great-grandparents. Simply subtract one from the number of generations you both count backward.
	Removal measures the generational gap *between the cousins themselves* relative to their nearest common ancestor. Consider a scenario where you and your cousin share a relative, your grandfather, but for your cousin, this relative is their great-grandfather. This means you count back *two* generations to the shared ancestor while your cousin counts back *three*. Thus, you would be first cousins **once removed**, indicating a **one**-generation difference between you.

B. Marriage and Family

Marriage is a legally recognized social contract between two people, traditionally based on a sexual relationship and implying the permanence of the union. In pre-industrial societies, marriage was often viewed as an economic arrangement. There are different forms of marriage, including common-law marriage and polygamous marriage. The concept of a "typical" family varies across cultures and time periods, but in many Western societies, it is often seen as consisting of a husband, wife, and children. However, there are many different types of families, and no one family structure is inherently better than another.

Types of Marriages
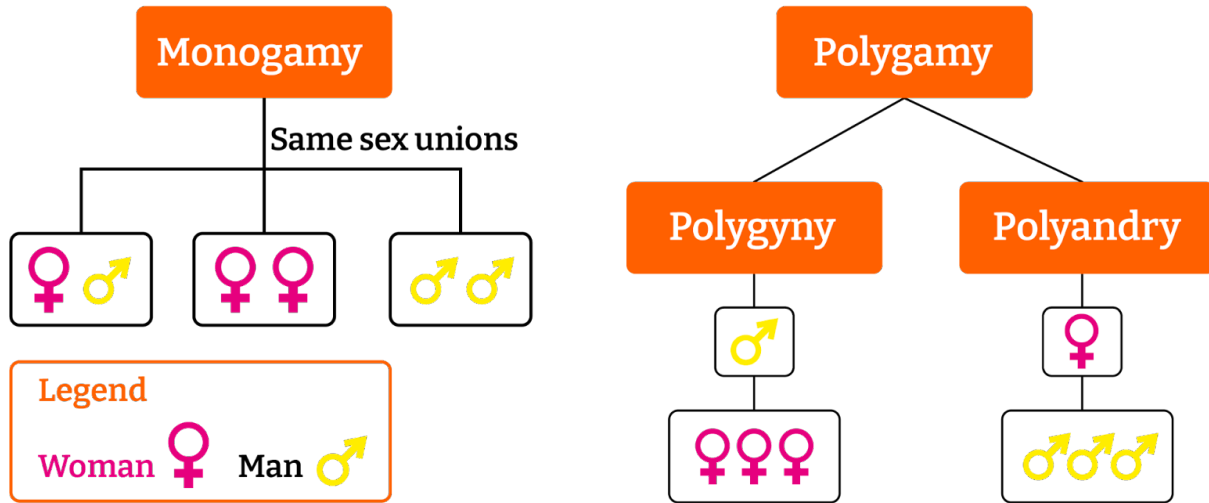
Let's look at the types of marriages based on the *number of partners*. **Monogamy** is when someone is married or in a relationship with only one person at a time. **Polygamy** (or **plural marriage**) is when at least one person has sexual connections with several other people at a time, and everyone involved accepts the arrangement. While polygamy is rare, it is legal in some areas of Africa, especially West Africa, the Middle East, and Asia. In the United States, it is a federal offense but is practiced by some Muslim communities and some members of the Fundamentalist Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints.

Table 61 - 13: Types of relationships involving multiple partners

Polygyny	A man marrying or being in a relationship with more than one woman simultaneously.
Polyandry	A woman married or in a relationship with more than one man simultaneously.
Bigamy	Marrying someone while still married to another person; often considered illegal.

Marriage can also be classified based on the groups to which each partner belongs. **Exogamy** refers to a social practice or cultural norm of seeking spouses outside of one's group. The opposite of this is **endogamy**, in which one marries within one's own social group.

C. Residency and Lines of Descent

Many people are interested in discovering their **family lineage** and tracing their ancestry. People can trace their ancestry through bilateral, unilateral, and ambilineal descents.

Some societies follow a **patrilineal system**, in which only men carry on the family's surname. This has traditionally given men the prestige of being considered permanent members of the family. In some

countries, children usually take their father's last name, even if the mother decides to keep her birth name.

Table 62 - 13: Characteristics of bilateral, unilateral & ambilineal descents

Types of Descent	Bilateral	Unilateral	Ambilineal
Who is considered?	Both the mother and father's side, all kin included	Either the **matrilineal** (focuses on female ancestors) or **patrilineal** side (focuses on male ancestors)	At different points in life, matrilineal or patrilineal
Example	Cousins, aunts, parents	Mother's side is kin or father's side is kin	Side chosen based on relationships, politics or assets
Cultures	Western Society, like the U.S.	African, Indian	Island/Isolated

In the patrilocal residence system, the wife typically lives with (or near) her husband's blood relative (or family or orientation). Conversely, the system of **matrilocal** residence requires that the husband resides with his wife's blood kin (or her family of orientation). Lastly, **neolocality** is the practice of building a residence without regard to patrilocality or matrilocality.

D. Family Life Course

Initially, there was a common belief that families generally followed a set of expected **stages**. These stages are often referred to as the **family life cycle**. The family life cycle was used to illustrate the various transformations that families undergo as time passes. One of the early models was credited to Paul Glick and Evelyn Duvall. Each stage has its own framework, featuring distinct challenges, milestones, and successes that guide the family's progression from one stage to the next.

Table 63 - 13: The seven stages of family life cycle

Stage	Family Type	Children
1	Marriage Family	Childless
2	Procreation Family	Children aged 0 – 2 and a half
3	Preschooler Family	Children aged 2 and a half to 6
4	School-Age Family	Children aged 6 – 13
5	Teenage Family	Children aged 13 – 20
6	Launching Family	Children begin to leave home
7	Empty Nest Family	Adult children have left home

E. Stages of Family Life

Family dynamics have changed significantly in recent decades. The stage theory of the family life cycle categorizes families into different stages. While not everyone follows these stages in the same order, or experiences them at all, they are often considered to be the fundamental stages of the traditional family life cycle in sociology: courtship, marriage, parenthood, and aging.

Courtship

This is the period of family life before marriage when a couple begins to get to know one another. It is especially focused on potential dating spouses. In this lesson, we will discuss the two **most typical forms of courtship**: romantic love and arranged marriages.

- **Romantic love**: Some cultures value passionate love as the foundation for marriage. Courtship is often used to find "the one" — the person to love, marry, and spend the rest of one's life with.

- **Arranged marriages**: Some view the process of courtship as too important to be entrusted solely to the young. Hence, arranged marriages are frequently practiced to forge a partnership between two families or bring about several financial advantages.

Also, **homogamy**, the union of two people with similar social characteristics, is common in many communities, regardless of the type of courtship practiced. People typically desire partners with similar backgrounds and other characteristics. For example, arranged marriages often occur between families of equal social status. Similarly, it is common for people to find partners from their socioeconomic class, even in marriages that result from romantic love.

Marriage

Whatever method is used to find a partner, traditional courtship often ends in **marriage**, the stage of family life during which a couple legally joins forces and starts a life together. In our society, we tend to idealize marriage as a "happily ever after."

Child Rearing

In the Glick/Duvall family life cycle, child rearing is the stage after marriage. During this stage, a married couple has and raises their children. Large families were deemed advantageous in preindustrial societies because children provided necessary labor. However, the social effects of industrialization, such as economic costs, employment for women outside of the home, and increased access to birth control have affected society's birth rate.

Aging

A married couple's relationship and obligations may change once the kids are grown. When kids leave home as they become independent, it may cause **empty nest syndrome**, a psychological and emotional state of extreme melancholy and sadness. A married couple may need some time to get used to living alone once more, just as any significant life change demands some adjusting.

The aging stage often involves the death of a spouse, which can be the most difficult experience to cope with. As life expectancy increases, married couples are staying together for longer. One of the most concerning aspects of aging is the potential for **elder abuse**. It is typically discussed in the context of adults living with or close to their offspring, which is common at this final period of family life.

F. Traditional vs. Non-Traditional Family

A **traditional family**, usually referred to as a "nuclear family," consists of a man, a woman, and at least one child, either biological or adoptive, all of whom reside in the same home. However, there are "**non-traditional families**," those that differ from the traditional structure. These variations in family life are also becoming more common. According to the Current Population Survey (CPS) of the Census Bureau, in 1968, 85% of children under the age of 18 lived with two parents (regardless of marital status), but by 2020, this number had dropped to 70%.

Non-traditional families are becoming more common due to several factors, including changes in socioeconomic conditions, more diverse understandings of what constitutes a family, the legalization of same-sex unions and adoption by same-sex couples, and the changing roles of women in the workplace and at home. In this section, we will explore some of the different types of non-traditional families, including single parenthood, cohabitation, same-sex couples, and people who choose to remain single.

Single Parenthood

In today's society, many children live in single-parent households. This includes a single person who adopts a child. According to the Pew Research Center in 2019, about 26% of children lived with a single parent. In some families, a child may not live with their parents but with extended family members, such as grandparents, aunts, uncles, or other relatives. This could happen for a variety of reasons, including financial difficulty and death of parents.

Cohabitation

Cohabitation is the practice of a couple living together while not legally married. According to the U.S. Census Bureau in 2019, cohabitation increased by 196.78% (from approximately 5.9 million to 17.4 million) between 1996 and 2017. There are many reasons why couples may choose to cohabitate. These include testing compatibility, financial reasons, or simply because they do not want to get married.

Same-Sex Families

There has been an increase in the number of same-sex couples in the past decade. The U.S. Supreme Court proclaimed same-sex marriage lawful in all 50 states on June 26, 2015. All 50 states made same-sex adoption legal in 2017. According to the U.S. Census Bureau, there were 1.2 million same-sex households in 2021.

Staying Single

The number of people opting to stay single is also increasing. In the 2021 U.S. Census, 34% (vs. 23% in 1950) of persons aged 15 and over had never been married. Society places pressure on both men and women to get married, and this pressure can manifest in different ways for each gender. Single women might encounter more explicit criticism and judgment. Additionally, societal perceptions of success and desirability often connect differently to gender and marital status.

G. Challenges Families Face

Divorce and Remarriage

Some of the problems that lead to divorce include lack of commitment, arguing too much, infidelity, marrying at a young age, unrealistic expectations, relationship inequality, lack of preparation for marriage, and domestic violence or abuse. Recently, the number of divorces has increased. In the 1960s, divorce was uncommon, but the number doubled in 1975 and peaked again in 1980. On the other hand, many **remarriages** happen after a divorce, not the death of a spouse. Compared to first marriages, remarriages often don't go through the traditional courtship rituals.

Domestic Violence

Violence that occurs between people who live together or are in a close relationship is referred to as domestic violence. It is a significant problem in the United States. When the violence is between romantic partners, it is specifically referred to as intimate partner violence (IPV).

IPV can affect anyone, regardless of gender, but IPV is often targeted at women. One in four women and one in nine men will likely experience some form of IPV in their lifetime. IPV can include:

- **Physical Violence**

    o   Punching
    o   Kicking
    o   Other forms of inflicting physical pain

- **Sexual Violence**
    o   Rape
    o   Other forced sexual acts
    o   Sexual abuse

- **Emotional Abuse**
    o   Harming others' sense of self-worth through words or controlling another's behavior.

- **Financial Abuse**
    o   Limit the victim's access to assets
    o   Reduce accessibility to the family finances
    o   Expecting the victim to pay for their bills or their obligations
    o   Using assets for their personal benefit without asking

Some victims do not like reporting their abuse to the police or anyone else. Here are some reasons why and the percentage of men and women who do not report their abuse.

Table 64 - 13: Reasons men & women do not report their abuse & the percentage

Reason Abuse is Unreported*	% of Females	% of Males
Considered a private matter	22	39
Fear of retaliation	12	5
To protect the abuser	14	16
Belief that police won't do anything	8	8

Source: National Criminal Victims Survey (Catalano, 2007)
*Other reasons with smaller percentage were excluded

Child Abuse

Aside from intimate partners, many children also experience abuse. Infants are exceptionally vulnerable to abuse because they are dependent on their caregivers for care. One of the controversial conditions that infants may encounter is **shaken baby syndrome (SBS)**, also known as abusive head trauma (AHT).

SBS is a set of medical symptoms initially believed to be caused by a violent shake or injury to an infant's head, which leads to brain swelling and retinal bleeding. However, this syndrome is still disputed medically and legally because the symptoms may stem from various causes. Some people claim that infants' uncontrollable crying would push parents or primary caregivers to shake the baby to get them to stop crying. On the other hand, Keith Findley and colleagues examined related studies from 1997–2003.

They found that genetic conditions, diseases, and accidents, such as shortfalls, can manifest SBS symptoms. Recently, previous defenders of SBS as abuse retracted their claims.

Child abuse doesn't just occur at one specific socioeconomic level. It can be found across all racial and cultural sectors. Another factor that contributes to child abuse is **drug and alcohol use**. Children raised by drug and alcohol-abusing parents/caregivers are three times more susceptible to abuse. There are long-term effects that victims of child abuse can experience.

- Physical Disabilities
- Mental Illness
- Emotional Problems

These are just some of the effects that a victim of child abuse can experience. Hence, it is essential to eliminate the root causes of abuse as they have long-term repercussions in society. In your exam, you need to be able to identify some warning signs in children's behavior if presented with a case study. Always be on the lookout for mentions of withdrawal from activities/people, changes in behavior, depression, anxiety, sleep problems, defiant behavior, self-harm, unexplained injuries, regression in abilities, delayed emotional development, hoarding food, poor cleanliness, etc.

Sexual Assault

Sexual assault is any sexual action or contact that takes place without the victim's consent. There is a large variety of possible behaviors that constitute sexual assault. On a packed subway or in the street, it might only be a fleeting touch on your breasts, crotch, or buttocks. Alternatively, sexual assault may last longer and involve more intense physical contact.

According to the National Sexual Violence Resource Center (2018), in the U.S., 81% of women and 43% of males said they had been victims of sexual harassment or assault. However, keep in mind that men are less likely to report being the victim of crimes like sexual assault. Thus, this number may inaccurately reflect the actual number of victims. Nonetheless, reported cases have declined in the past 13 years, possibly due to reduced reporting or partially because of prevention and education programs.

Rape

Rape is the result of sexual assault in its most severe form. The **old** official federal definition of **forcible rape** in the United States was "the carnal knowledge of a female forcibly and against her will." This belief is false and extremely destructive to boys and men who suffer rape. RAINN, a nationwide group that offers information, data, and a national support line, estimates that 3% of American men have been the victim of attempted or actual rapes at some point in their lives. Hence, the **new definition** of forcible rape, according to the Federal Bureau of Investigation's Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR), is "the penetration, no matter how slight, of the vagina or anus with any body part or object, or oral penetration by a sex organ of another person, without the consent of the victim."

Chapter 13: Review Questions

1. **A group whose members are related by ancestry, marriage, or adoption is a _____.**

   A. Kinship group
   B. Institution
   C. Family
   D. Bilateral group
   E. Bigamy

2. **What type of family structure has both a biological mother and biological father raising their children?**

   A. A step-family structure.
   B. A nuclear family structure.
   C. A same-sex couple family structure.
   D. An extended family structure.
   E. A matrilocal family.

3. **What type of family structure has a child being raised by family members other than a biological mother and father?**

   A. An extended family structure.
   B. A stepfamily structure.
   C. A single-parent family structure.
   D. A nuclear family structure.
   E. A patrilocal family.

4. **_____ is a legally recognized social contract between two people, traditionally based on a sexual relationship and implying the permanence of the union.**

   A. Monogamy
   B. Polyandry
   C. Marriage
   D. Polygamy
   E. Cohabitation

5. **In most pre-industrial societies, marriage is viewed as**

I	II	III	IV
a formal arrangement between individuals bonded by romantic love	a polygamous arrangement between three individuals.	a formal arrangement between two individuals who share similar social characteristics.	a practical economic arrangement.

   A. I only.
   B. IV only.
   C. II and IV only.
   D. II, III, and IV only.
   E. II and III only.

6. What is polygamy?

    A.   The practice of having only one mate.

    B.   The practice of having multiple female mates simultaneously.

    C.   The practice of having multiple male mates simultaneously.

    D.   The practice of having multiple mates of either sex simultaneously.

    E.   The practice of only one mate at a time.

7. When a society has a norm which permits a man to have more than one wife at the same time, this is called the norm of

    A.   monogamy.

    B.   serial monogamy.

    C.   polygamy.

    D.   polygyny.

    E.   polyandry.

8. Jose and Maria met, fell in love, and decided to marry. They are both Catholic and of Puerto Rican ancestry. Their marriage illustrates which of the following?

    A.   The norm of exogamy

    B.   The norm of endogamy

    C.   Arranged marriages

    D.   The stimulus-value-role theory

    E.   Polyandrous marriages

9. Statistics regarding the national prevalence of crimes such as sexual assault, rape, and domestic violence may be lower than the actual numbers for each crime. This problem is due to which of the following issues?

    A.   These crimes are among the least likely to be reported to any type of authority.

    B.   These crimes are often falsely reported by people who didn't really experience them.

    C.   These crimes are not actually against the law.

    D.   These crimes have all dramatically increased in the last ten years.

    E.   These crimes are more likely to be committed by individuals from higher socioeconomic backgrounds.

10. Based on this graph, which of the following statements is most likely TRUE?

Living Arrangements Over the Decades

Percentage of Adults Age 18 and Older

	2001	2011	2021
All other arrangements	16.4	15.7	15.8
Child of householder	10.0	10.6	11.2
Living alone	13.6	14.2	14.6
With unmarried partner	4.1	7.1	8.0
With spouse	55.8	52.4	50.4
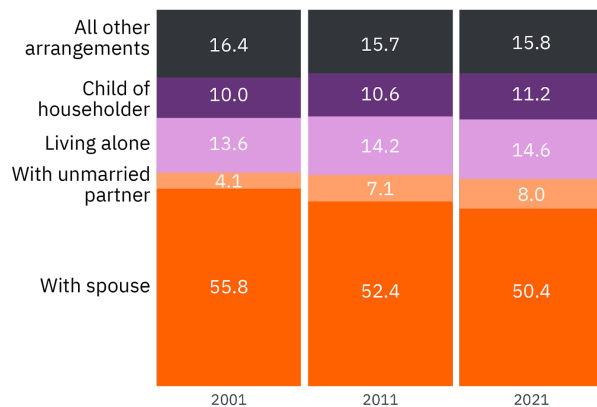
Note: Adults are considered as living "with spouse"or "with unmarried" even if they are also the child of the householder.
Source: Current Population Survey, Annual Social and Economic Supplement, 2001, 2011 and 2021
Adapted from: United States Census Bureau

    A.   The percentage of adults aged 18+ *living with their spouse* is increasing

    B.   The percentage of adults aged 18+ *living alone* is decreasing

    C.   The percentage of adults aged 18-25 who are *cohabiting* is increasing

    D.   The percentage of adults aged 18+ who are *cohabiting* is increasing

    E.   The percentage of adults aged 18-25 who are *cohabiting* is decreasing

Chapter 14: Religion

Overview

This chapter discusses religion as a social institution. It first defines the key concepts of religion and then compares the theoretical perspectives. After which, this chapter describes the different types of religious organizations and views. Additionally, it discusses the various world religions and presents the rising trend of secularization.

Learning Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Differentiate religious experiences, beliefs, and rituals from each other.
- Summarize the arguments of the theoretical perspectives on religion.
- Compare and contrast the different types of religious organizations and views.
- Classify which religions are monotheistic or nontheistic.
- Define what secularization and civil religions are.

A. Key Concepts of Religion

“We should respect all religions and just believe in peace, kindness, and harmony.”

Ananya Panday

A religion is typically founded on the adoration of **sacred** or special objects, ideas, or activities instead of **profane** or commonplace objects. Religion has **four fundamental elements**: belief (ideas and values), mythology (supernatural and sacred stories), social organization (community), and practices (rituals and rites of passage). Some of these practices include:

- Feasts
- Festivals
- Intercessions with God
- Marriage ceremonies
- Funeral services

- Music and the arts
- Meditation and initiation
- Sacrifice and/or service

Some believe that choosing to practice a religion is a personal decision. Sociologists do not judge or debunk religious doctrine because faith relies on conviction, not scientific evidence. Nonetheless, sociologists do make a distinction between experience, belief, and ritual while examining religion.

RELIGIOUS EXPERIENCE

the conviction or sense that we are related to "the divine.

RELIGIOUS BELIEFS

distinct notions that adherents of a certain faith firmly believe to be true (e.g., the specifics of the origin of the universe, the existence of beings beyond the physical world, and the nature of any existence after death)

RELIGIOUS RITUALS

actions or procedures such as specific methods and procedures of worship, along with rites of passage and progression into the believing community, and ways to express piety

B. Theoretical Perspectives of Religion

While **theology** involves studying religious texts and doctrines, the sociology of religion focuses on attributes of specific religions, the people within them, and religion's impact. The sociology of religion does not directly address matters of the supernatural or the existence of a divine being. Let's look at how known sociologists—Emile Durkheim, Max Weber, and Karl Marx—described religion.

Functionalism

French sociologist **Emile Durkheim** described religion as a cohesive system of activities relating to sacred objects. He was the first sociologist to analyze religion using a sociological lens. He believed that religion was a source of social stability.

Following Durkheim, functionalists believe religion can serve different societal functions. They see religion as universal because it meets universal human needs and depends on society for it to exist. Religion has multiple purposes, such as:

- Providing **meaning and purpose** to answer any existential questions.

- Fostering **social unity and stability** through shared rituals and beliefs.

- Acting as a **social control** to enforce religious-based morals and norms to help maintain conformity and control in society.

- Promoting **psychological and physical well-being**.

- Encouraging people to work for positive change.

One common **criticism** of functionalism's view is that it does not consider religion's **dysfunctions**. For example, religion has been used to wage wars or justify terrorism. In this case, religion still encourages social cohesion among the members of one party in the conflict, but it comes at the expense of outgroup members.

Conflict Theory

Conflict theorists are highly critical of religion. **Karl Marx** called religion the "opiate of the masses" because he believed that the workers escaped into religion. He argued that because believers place more emphasis on their afterlife than on their suffering in the present, religion diverts the energy of the oppressed away from trying to improve their situation.

Conflict theory focuses on the **negative impacts of religion**, namely:

- **Gender inequality** is perpetuated as some religious teachings or practices spread negative stereotypes about women and encourage traditional views about their subordination to men. For example, when males completely dominated U.S. society, women's roles in churches and synagogues were limited to "feminine" activities, a condition that is beginning to change. Religion legitimizes social inequality, reflecting the interests of those in power by teaching that the existing social arrangements of a society represent what God desires.

- **Social conflict** is seen in violence based on religious differences, such as those suffered by Jews and other religious groups.

Max Weber's Protestant Ethic

Like Durkheim, Weber believed religion could promote social change and examined religion's effects on economics. In his book, *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*, he asserted that Calvinism helped contemporary capitalism develop by fostering a new mindset towards the importance of individual prosperity. Weber found that heavily Protestant societies such as the Netherlands, England, Scotland, and Germany were some of the most highly developed capitalist societies. He also stated that the most successful business leaders happened to be Protestant.

Liberation theology, which combines Christian ideals with social justice, is another example of how religion and the secular world interact. It emerged as a religious movement in late 20th-century Roman Catholicism, particularly in Latin America. It aimed to express religious faith by helping the poor and

oppressed through engagement in political and civic matters. The movement emphasized a deep understanding of the unjust socioeconomic structures contributing to social inequities and advocated for active involvement in transforming these structures.

Symbolic Interactionism

Unlike conflict theory and functionalism, symbolic interactionism analyzes the micro aspects of religion. Practices and beliefs are sacred once individuals perceive them to be so. When we highly regard them, they acquire particular values and give our life purpose. Symbolic interactionists investigate how and why religious belief and practice benefit people's psychological and physical well-being. They also examine how and why individuals interact in places of worship and other religious contexts.

C. Types of Religious Organizations

Religious organizations are grouped in various ways. A **church** is a religious institution well-known and accepted in many aspects of society. A church is also a place where religious ceremonies and teachings are conducted. Other smaller organizations include ecclesia, denominations, cults, and sects.

In sociology, "**ecclesia**" describes a religious group to which the majority of society belongs and is often regarded as an official or state religion. Meanwhile, **denominations** are large, mainstream religious organizations that do not claim to be official or state-sponsored. Before becoming mainstream, most denominations started as "**sects**." Sects are relatively new groups compared to the historically more established factions they came from. Every major religion has examples of divisions that started as a sect. For instance, most Protestant denominations started as sects of Christianity. Likewise, in Islam, examples would be the Shia and Sunni.

Established sects are sects that maintain themselves over a long period without growing into denominations. Some established sects will fall between sects and denominations on the ecclesia-cult continuum because they usually have some mixture of sect-like and denomination-like characteristics.

The term "**cult**" remains a subject of ongoing debate as sociologists disagree on a definition. On the one hand, going back to classical history, cults were small groups of elite members with specific practices, such as the Cult of Isis and the Roman Imperial Cult. On the other hand, from the 1970s and especially in America, the term cult is used as a pejorative to describe a small group with extreme beliefs that are seen as absurd or even malevolent. In most cases, they are also led by a single ideology or charismatic leader, such as Jim Jones' leadership over the **Peoples Temple Agricultural Project**, also known as **Jonestown**.

D. Types of Religious Views

Theism is the belief in one or more gods. As seen in the table, not all people believe that that's the case.

Table 65 - 14: Types of religious views

Religious Views	What/Who is Divine	Examples
Polytheism	Multiple deities	Belief systems of the ancient Greeks and Romans
Monotheism	Single deity	Judaism, Christianity, and Islam
Atheism	No deities	Humanism
Animism	Nonhuman beings (i.e., animals, plants, the natural world)	Indigenous nature worship (Shinto)
Totemism	Human-natural being connection	Ojibwa (Native American) beliefs

Additionally, **humanism** is a philosophy that believes we can live good, moral lives and work for the common good without believing in gods or supernatural things. It is **nontheistic** and does not endorse supernatural views of the world. Nontheism is a belief that **does not have or require a belief in god/s**. Instead of worshiping a deity, these religions adhere to ethical guidelines for living life. Thus, they are sometimes called **ethical religions**. Some religions may acknowledge the existence of gods but could still be considered nontheistic or even have nontheistic sects. This could happen if their beliefs and lifestyles are not dependent on their espoused belief in god/s. The best examples of nontheistic religions are Buddhism, Confucianism, and Taoism. These will be discussed in-depth in the next section.

In contrast to theism and atheism, **agnosticism** is a concept that has to do with knowledge rather than belief. Agnostics, coined by **T.H. Huxley**, don't think anyone can know whether there are any gods. A person who *does not believe* in any gods and does not consider it possible to know one way or another is known as an **agnostic atheist**. In the same sense, someone can also be an **agnostic theist**, *one who believes* in one or more gods personally but does not believe that it is possible to know with certainty whether those gods (or any gods) exist.

E. The World's Religions

Many religions have evolved over time and worldwide. Some of the world's religions have not lasted very long, but others have strived and continue to grow today. Let's look at the seven major religions of the world.

MAJOR RELIGIONS

MONOTHEISM	NONTHEISM	POLYTHEISM
Islam, Judaism & Christianity	Buddhism, Confucianism, & Taoism	Hinduism

Monotheism

These three Abrahamic Religions believe in the same omnipotent, omniscient god.

Islam

Those who follow Islam follow the teachings of Muhammad, who was born in Mecca, Saudi Arabia, in 570 C.E. **Muhammad** is considered the one and only messenger of Allah (the Islamic God). Islam's most sacred text is the **Qur'an** or **Koran**. Many of the stories in the Koran are shared with the Jewish faith. Adherents of Islam (called Muslims) also live following the guidance found in the **Hadiths**, which are, in large part, the written teachings of Muhammad. There are **five pillars that Islamic individuals follow**:

1. Believing Allah is the only God and Muhammad is his prophet (Shahada).

2. Praying daily (Salah).

3. Helping those in need (Zakat).

4. Fasting during the month of Ramadan (Sawm).

5. Making a pilgrimage to the holy city of Mecca (Hajj).

Judaism

The Jewish community used to be a nomadic people known as Hebrews. About 600 B.C.E., they came to be known as Jews, referring to them being from Judah. It is important to note the distinction between Jewish and Israeli. Israeli refers to anyone who is a citizen of the nation of Israel but not necessarily Jewish. Those of the Jewish faith believe Yahweh (the Jewish name for God) revealed Himself to their forefathers, Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob, and then also to Moses, who freed them from slavery in Egypt. On being freed, God gave Moses the Ten Commandments, which included commands such as not having other gods, not envying others, and not murdering or stealing. After this, they entered into a **covenant** with God, formal promises made between them and God stemming back to Abraham. Those who practice Judaism study the **Torah**, which consists of five books believed to have been written by Moses. These are the same first five books in the Christian Bible. Other Jewish practices include boys getting circumcised as a symbol of the holy covenant that each follower of Judaism makes with God.

Christianity

Christianity is the world's largest religion. This religion began 2,000 years ago in Palestine. The **Bible**, which contains both the Old and New Testament, is the sacred text of this religion. Christians hold that Jesus' death provided His followers with salvation.

There are different types of Christian sects, each with its own sacred text. For example, Mormons, who are established Christians, also use the "Book of Mormon." While monotheistic, Christians believe in The Trinity or the Triune God. According to this belief, God is simultaneously three entities while remaining a single being. Christianity believes in the same Ten Commandments found in the Old Testament that Judaism does, and they also believe Jesus gave a new commandment that they should love others as Jesus loves them.

Nontheism

Buddhism

This religion was founded by **Siddhartha Gautama**, who is regarded as **The Enlightened One**. Initially a prince, he relinquished his comfortable lifestyle, started following a life of poverty, and became spiritually devoted. Four teachings encourage Buddhists to live lives filled with morals. These teachings are called the **Four Noble Truths**.

1. Life is suffering.

2. Suffering arises from desire.

3. Suffering ceases when attachment to desire ceases.

4. It is possible to be free from pain by taking the "**middle way**." This refers to a strategy for life and spiritual practice that is balanced and reasonable, avoiding excessive indulgence or self-denial.

Confucianism

Confucianism was the official religion of China for about two millennia. Due to its emphasis on teaching a philosophy of life rather than the worship of gods, it is generally non-theistic. This belief system was developed by **Confucius** (also called Kung Fu Tzu or Kong Fuzi). He was considered a great teacher, and his lessons were about self-discipline and respect for authority figures and Chinese traditions. Additionally, Confucianism adheres to a moral code called **ren**. Ren is about treating people with respect, care, and consideration, forming the foundation for creating a harmonious and ethical society.

Taoism

Laozi (or **Lao Tzu**) created **Taoism** (sometimes spelled "**Daoism**"). Unlike religions that worship deities, Taoism promotes philosophical ideas. This religion emphasizes the virtues of compassion and

moderation. The concept of Tao is used to understand and describe spiritual reality, the order of the universe, and the way modern life is in harmony.

Taoism has three main principles: The First Principle (oneness), the yin-yang system, and the wu wei (action without intent). The most known symbol of Taoism is the **yin-yang**, the concept of duality.

Polytheism

Hinduism

Hinduism is one of the oldest religions in the world today. It evolved approximately 4,500 years ago in modern-day northwest India and Pakistan. It is important to note that while Hinduism is *primarily* **polytheistic**, followers can also be **henotheistic**, worshiping a single god while not rejecting the idea that other gods may or even do exist. Furthermore, some practitioners can even be **nontheistic** as well.

Hinduism is most frequently described as polytheistic because it holds that there are many gods, and followers of Hinduism tend to believe in a divine power manifested as different entities. So polytheistic Hindus will, at minimum, worship three different divine incarnations. Henotheistic Hindus may recognize all three divine incarnations yet only worship one as a single supreme god. The three primary gods of Hinduism are:

BRAHMA	**VISHNU**	**SHIVA**
THE CREATOR	**THE PRESERVER**	**THE DESTROYER**

There are some Hindus who are non-theistic because their central focus is not on the gods themselves. They do not see Brahma as a personal being but rather as the ultimate reality or universal force known as **Brahman**, which is present in all living beings. Additionally, there are several sacred texts. One is called the **Vedas**, which includes hymns and rituals from ancient India. Most of the writings within the Vedas are in Sanskrit. The ethical frameworks and moral obligations within the Vedas are called **dharma.**

F. Secularization

Secularization is the decline in the significance of religion and the supernatural or sacred. Recent trends show religiosity to be waning while secularization is rising. In a recent poll, 66% of Americans considered religion important, but this number is expected to fall in the coming decades (Pew Research Center, 2021). This decline is often attributed to modernization and advancement in science. Secularization manifests in different ways, such as through **civil religion**. This is a pseudo-religious belief system supported by large groups of passionate individuals. For example, the Declaration of Independence is viewed as a sacred symbol marking the beginning of the United States and promoting loyalty and respect among members of society.

Emile Durkheim, Max Weber, Karl Marx, and Sigmund Freud anticipated secularization and believed modernization would lead to a decline in the influence of religion. Specifically, **Max Weber** believed that membership in organizations that allowed people to gain respect or authority would become more important than religious affiliation. Many believe that secularization is the cause of many social issues. For instance, former presidential candidate Michele Bachmann attempted to link Hurricane Irene and an earthquake felt in Washington D.C. to politicians not listening to God.

Chapter 14: Review Questions

1. **Which of the following does the sociology of religion focus on?**

   A. Theological questions, such as the existence of God.
   B. How accurate ideas of the supernatural are.
   C. The ability of the major religions to answer the fundamental questions of our existence.
   D. The social characteristics and consequences of religion.
   E. The decline of religions in an increasingly secular world.

2. **The formalized enactment of religious beliefs is called**

   A. dogma.
   B. rituals.
   C. churches.
   D. revelations.
   E. ecumenical events.

3. **What is theology?**

   A. The study of religious texts and doctrines.
   B. The study of goals.
   C. The study of origins.
   D. The study of ideas.
   E. The study of the universe.

4. **Dylan is a strong proponent of liberation theology. This means he combines his _____ principles with political activism.**

   A. Christian
   B. Calvinistic
   C. Radical
   D. Protestant
   E. Republican

5. **According to Karl Marx, how did the ruling class unconsciously control the masses?**

   A. Through money.
   B. Through religion.
   C. Through laws.
   D. Through force.
   E. Through work.

6. **Which of the following theorists argued that religion should be viewed as "the opiate of the masses?"**

   A. Max Weber
   B. Ferdinand Tonnies
   C. Sigmund Freud
   D. Émile Durkheim
   E. Karl Marx

7. **Why are some nontheistic religions also called "ethical religions?"**

   A. They revolve around morals instead of a god's commandments.
   B. Their gods are not supernatural.
   C. They focus on belief in gods rather than morals.
   D. They are not based on the concept of reincarnation.
   E. They require ethics classes for members.

8. **The Islamic religion is based on**

   A. animism.
   B. monotheism.
   C. polytheism.
   D. theism.
   E. atheism.

9. **Mr. Clark, a kindergarten teacher, has his students pledge allegiance and sing "America the Beautiful" every day before class. He is teaching his students about American**

   A. religion.
   B. Secularization.
   C. socialism.
   D. civil religion.
   E. theodicy.

10. **Secularization refers to _____.**

    A. Religion becoming more important in people's lives.
    B. A decline in the importance of religion and the sacred.
    C. The increasing popularity of Atheism.
    D. Churches resisting social change.
    E. Incorporating religious principles into politics.

Chapter 15: Education

Overview

This chapter starts with defining education and comparing the educational system between higher- and lower-income countries and formal and informal education. Next, it details the various issues in education, especially those experienced in the United States. Additionally, it presents two of the common school controversies and the functions of schools.

Learning Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Describe the schooling of both higher- and lower-income countries.
- State and summarize the issues in education.
- Explain the concepts of self-fulfilling prophecy, the Pygmalion effect, and the tracking system.
- Differentiate the school's latent functions from its manifest functions.

A. Education Around the World

Education is a social institution through which society's children are taught basic academic knowledge, learning skills, and cultural norms. Higher-income countries may have better educational opportunities because money influences the type of education given to children and how it will be spent. Let's look at the comparison below:

Table 66 - 15: Schooling in lower-income countries & higher-income countries

Schooling in Lower-Income Countries	Schooling in Higher-Income Countries
Less schooling	Compulsory education laws (average age in the U.S. is 6-16 years old)
Under-equipped or not adequate facilities	Well-equipped facilities
Limited chance to attend school	Option to attend a variety of higher education institutions
Attending primary and secondary school is viewed as a **privilege**, and pursuing college education is **almost non-existent**	Pursuing a college education is regarded as a **must**

In higher-income countries, the value placed on higher education is so significant that we often observe **creeping credentialism**, which is the steady increase in educational requirements for jobs. Some **cultural differences** also shape education aside from money. These include:

- Value of education

- Time devoted to education

- Distribution of education

Gender can also play a role in who is educated. In some cultures, girls are not educated because they believe girls won't be able to contribute financially to the family.

There have been discussions about the issues of **educational distribution**. The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) **Program for International Student Assessments** (PISA) measures 15-year-olds' mathematics, science, and reading skills. In 2022, the United States ranked close to average in mathematics but above average in science and reading. The mathematics scores placed the US at rank 34 of the 80 countries assessed. These scores were the lowest ever recorded while the science and reading scores have remained the same.

Social factors are also an issue in education. Michael Davidson, an analyst from the OECD, attributed around 20% of the performance differences and the low rankings of the U.S. to differences in social backgrounds, such as the uneven distribution of quality teachers, money, and educational resources in the United States. They also analyzed the proportion of **resilient students** (students from the lowest socio-economic quartile in their country who score in the top quartile compared to students from countries with similar socio-economic backgrounds). For instance, 76% of disadvantaged students are considered resilient in the partner economy, Shanghai, China, higher than in the United States, where the proportion is below 30%.

B. Formal and Informal Education

Formal education refers to the academic facts and concepts one learns in the classroom, while **informal education** is learning about cultural values, conventions, and expected norms. Informal education occurs in both formal education systems and informal settings (e.g., the home). In pre-industrial societies, children learned from watching their family members perform tasks, as there was limited access to formal education. The **Industrial Revolution** made formal education more accessible to everyone.

Cultural transmission is how individuals learn their culture's beliefs, values, and social norms. Both informal and formal education are responsible for cultural transmission. Students learn historical aspects of their culture in the classroom, and parents share the family background and culture at home.

C. Access to Education

One prevailing concern in education is the difficulties in providing **universal access** (equal opportunity) to participate in an education system. Globally, some groups may lack access because of their class or

gender. In the United States, most educational options are public schooling funded by grants and state and federal education taxes, and the funding distribution is hotly debated. **Mills v. Board of Education of the District of Columbia (1972)** paved the way for universal access to education in the US. The school board argued that diverting the funds needed to accommodate students with "exceptional" needs, including children with physical, mental, intellectual, and developmental disabilities, would make the school system unequal in favor of students with disabilities at the expense of students *without* disabilities. Ultimately, **Judge Joseph Cornelius Waddy** sided with the students and stated that the District of Columbia violated a congressional decree mandating publicly funded education for all children.

D. Issues in Education

EQUAL EDUCATION	HEAD START PROGRAMS	BUSING	NO CHILD LEFT BEHIND
equality & acceptance of all races, cultures, ethnicities, etc.	federal programs aiming to help lower-income families to start receiving education	transporting students from smaller towns into larger towns/cities	Results from tests determine school funding

TEACHING TO THE TEST	BILINGUAL EDUCATION	COMMON CORE EDUCATION
equipping students to succeed on standardized tests only	offering instructions in languages other than English	a set of academic standards; extremely high stakes involved

CHARTER SCHOOLS	TEACHER TRAINING	SOCIAL PROMOTION
self-governing schools that offer innovative educational options	mismatch of teacher's specialization	passing students to the next grade without acquiring the required skill set

AFFIRMATIVE ACTION	RISING STUDENT LOAN DEBT	HOMESCHOOLING
considering a students' background, including race, in school admissions	difficulty in paying off student loans	children being educated at home, often by parents

Equal Education

Before the **Brown v. Board of Education (1954)** ruling, most educational institutions ran under the precedent of **Plessy v. Ferguson in 1896**, allowing racial segregation within schools and private businesses. This was subsequently overruled by the Brown v. Board of Education case, which ruled that separating Black students from white students was not considered equal or constitutional.

The ruling of Brown v. Board of Education helped promote civil rights. The Arkansas governor in 1957 used the National Guard to help prevent Black students from entering the Little Rock High School. Still, President Dwight Eisenhower sent members of the 101st Airborne in Kentucky to help the students enter the school since it was now unconstitutional to disallow students to enter schools to receive an education. Schools continue to try to fill the gap in inequality and move more and more towards equality and acceptance of all races, cultures, ethnicities, etc.

Head Start Programs

Head Start Programs are federal programs that provide academically focused preschool to students of low socioeconomic status. Programs like this were developed to help lower-income families get their children started getting an education within the public school system.

Busing

Busing, also called **race-integration busing**, is transporting students from smaller communities via bus into towns/cities with schools so that students can receive an education. Busing happened in many schools, especially if they had smaller communities surrounding them. Most of the time, the students bussed in were from underprivileged neighborhoods.

Generally, the problem of busing in schools is complex, involving issues of race, socioeconomic status, safety, community disruptions, educational quality, and the difficulties of successfully implementing such programs. Critics also argued that the programs failed to address underlying issues of unequal funding, teacher quality, and curriculum disparities.

No Child Left Behind

The No Child Left Behind Act was passed by Congress in 2001 and eventually signed into law by President George W. Bush in 2002. The **No Child Left Behind Act** required states to test students in designated grades and to show improvements through the **Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP)** standards. Test results help the federal government determine which schools need the funding. Schools that do not meet the requirements of this act risk losing the funding they may already have in place. Critics argue that a one-size-fits-all approach like this is not applicable in education and might result in "Teaching to the Test."

Teaching to the Test

Some only teach the specific information necessary to pass the standardized tests to comply with the *No Child Left Behind Act* so that the school can receive the best funding possible. There have also been instances of some schools altering test results. One of the most significant cases occurred in the **Atlanta City Schools**, where several teachers and members of the board of education were arrested because they were caught changing test results of standardized tests.

Bilingual Education

Many students who enter schools struggle with speaking or reading in English. Some schools receive federal support to offer instructions in languages other than English to provide equal opportunity to minority students. Others offer English as a second language (ESL) classes to help those students learn English. However, critics of bilingual education argue that this can hinder successful assimilation into American society and delay their proficiency in the English language.

Common Core Education

Common Core is a set of high-quality academic standards in math and English Language Arts and Literacy. The Common Core defines what students should be able to do at the end of each grade and sometimes aligns with what needs to be learned before entering college and even the working world. However, some issues with Common Core are the assessment process and the extremely high stakes involved. Some schools receive lower funding because schools are often funded by local property taxes instead of state or federal funds. This funding inequality also often manifests in student performance.

Charter Schools

Charter schools are not like regular public schools; they are **self-governing schools** that offer innovative and diverse educational options and approaches. As part of the public school system, they are funded by state and local taxes. If more students want to enroll, these schools resort to a lottery system in which students are randomly selected from the list of applicants. Some charter schools focus only on math, science, arts, etc. In addition, they sign agreements with local and state governments, aiming to improve student performance. The agreements detail specific results that the students or the schools must achieve. However, critics have questioned charter school's effectiveness, accountability, and use of funds.

Teacher Training

Teacher training is the process of imparting or acquiring the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to become a teacher in an educational setting. This process does pose some challenges. For instance, high school teachers are often tasked with preparing students for college entrance and adapting to college life. Some argue that not all teachers are adequately equipped to guide students in these areas. Additionally, many teachers teach subjects outside their field of study or college major. For example, some psychology majors end up teaching English classes despite lacking formal training in English pedagogy.

Social Promotion

Social promotion is the practice of promoting students to the next grade level in school, even if they have not met the academic standards for that grade. This is done for a variety of reasons, including:

- To protect the student's self-esteem and social adjustment

- To encourage socialization by age

- To prevent the student from being separated from their friends or peer group

- To promote a student who is weak in one subject based on strength in other areas

Social promotion is a controversial practice. Proponents argue that social promotion is beneficial for students' social and emotional development and that it can help prevent them from dropping out of

school. Opponents argue that social promotion is detrimental to students' academic progress and that it can lead to them being unprepared for the demands of higher education.

Affirmative Action

Affirmative action in college admissions is the practice of considering a student's background, including race when deciding whether to admit them. It aimed to help resolve historical discrimination and diversify student bodies. However, affirmative action has been one of the biggest debates in college admission. **Critics of affirmative action** believe that minority students are prioritized or given preferential treatment in college admissions. Meanwhile, **supporters of affirmative action** contend that this policy grants opportunities to potential students who have historically been treated unfairly or disadvantaged in the college admission process. On June 29, 2023, the United States Supreme Court struck down affirmative action programs at Harvard and the University of North Carolina, stating that race could not be a factor in the admissions process.

Rising Student Loan Debt

One of the biggest issues college/university students face today is student loans. Research conducted in 2020 shows that college students have an average of $37,693 in student loan debt when they graduate. While there are grace periods for students to start paying back their loans, there is still lots of pressure to figure out how they will repay when they earn entry-level wages.

Homeschooling

Home school is where children are taught at home instead of in a traditional classroom setting or private schools. Some argue that parents are not equipped to teach their children at home, while others believe that parents are the best teachers because they know their children better than anyone else. Some people think homeschooling children disregards the efforts and professionalism of teachers who spend much of their time and money going to school to learn how to teach.

E. Classroom Issues

Some issues can be seen at the classroom level, affecting identity and performance. Two of the most prominent and relevant to sociology are the self-fulfilling prophecy and the tracking system.

Self-Fulfilling Prophecy

A **self-fulfilling prophecy** is a prediction that directly or indirectly causes itself to come true simply because it is expected to be true. For instance, your teacher might have labeled your classmate as a "class clown," someone expected to perform poorly academically, waste time, and attract attention by making others laugh. Although your classmate may not be like this initially, he/she eventually behaves like this just because your teacher and other classmates have formed expectations, which encouraged them to act that way. This usually happens unconsciously without the intention of the teacher.

Nonetheless, this pattern can also be beneficial, wherein a high expectation of someone can eventually lead to improved performance. This type of self-fulfilling prophecy is called the **Pygmalion effect.** A classic study conducted by **Robert Rosenthal** demonstrated this effect. He informed the teachers in a school that five of their students were 'academic athletes who would perform better than their classmates.' He told them that it was based on their test results earlier in the year, but the truth was that these students were only chosen randomly. Despite this, these students outperformed their classmates because their teachers' positive expectations made them treat them differently, giving them better feedback and asking more questions. This phenomenon is controversial because while some studies show supporting evidence for its existence, others are skeptical of the conclusions made based on the results of such studies.

Tracking System

Another controversy is the **tracking system**, a system common among U.S. schools where students are grouped in school based on their perceived abilities. It has both disadvantages and benefits. First, one of the common reasons why some schools have discontinued using it is because **it can reinforce social inequality**. For example, most students from privileged backgrounds perform better on standardized tests because they have been exposed to more opportunities before, which makes them more likely to be assigned to courses higher in status and quality where they receive the best offer from the school. This prepares them for college, gives them more opportunities, and sustains their privilege. Meanwhile, low-income students score poorly on these tests and are assigned to lower courses. They are also usually advised to gain vocational skills they will pursue as jobs, often with lower salaries.

On the other hand, tracking also has benefits for teachers and students. It allows teachers to **develop lesson plans for students with the same learning level**. For students, being compared to peers with the same learning level **avoids low self-esteem** caused by being compared to higher-level students. Additionally, it also prevents inflating the egos of high-level students. Aside from this, prior research has shown that students perform better when grouped with peers similar to their learning level.

F. Functions of School

With all the dreaded requirements of schools, you may ask, what is the role of school in our society? Or, why do we need to go to school? This can be answered by the school's manifest and latent functions.

Manifest Function of Education

This refers to the obvious and intended purpose of education. Some examples of manifest function include **career selection** before graduating high school, fostering **rational thinking** and **socialization**, **transmitting culture**, maintaining social order, facilitating social placement, encouraging social and political integration, and acting as an agent of change. Let's explore the first four functions in more detail.

- **Career Selection**: A process in schools usually involves career planning, career quizzes, taking electives, or even merely asking children what they want to be when they grow up, all of which aim to help students select their careers.

- **Rational Thinking**: An ability to think critically and is based on reason instead of emotions. Some examples of activities that teach rational thinking are doing a five-paragraph essay, using the scientific method, and using deductive reasoning. These guide students to explain their arguments based on multiple sources, explore ideas, and draw conclusions using numerous statements. The ultimate goal is to produce students that are independent, rational thinkers.

- **Socialization**: A process of learning in which people acquire knowledge, language, and social skills to interact well with other members of society. For instance, students can learn about rules and expectations, follow schedules, and submit to authority in schools.

- **Cultural Transmission**: A process often part of socialization but emphasizes learning the norms and values specific to a culture.

Latent Function of Education

Unlike manifest functions, the **latent functions** of education are the school's less obvious, unintended functions. Some latent functions include building social networks and learning conformity. Even mere seating arrangement or pairing in class projects shape students' circle of friends, foes, or romantic partners, all of which have consequences. **Social placement systems** can build gaps in education, resources, and expectations. A school's **hidden curriculum**, the unofficial lessons taught to students in schools, exacerbates this. For example, some students are rewarded for behaving well, while others are punished for misbehaving. This can make students dependent on rewards or even passively accept rules without questioning, essentially rejecting the "good behavior" of critical thinking to receive rewards or to avoid punishment. Despite being hidden, these are instilled in students and can affect their lives.

Overall, this chapter presented different perspectives on viewing education. It also gave a glimpse of education worldwide, emphasizing the controversies and issues encountered in the United States. Knowing these shows the extensive impact of education as a social institution and how one's access to education relies on numerous factors outside the individual.

Chapter 15: Review Questions

1. **Brown v. Board of Education (1954) was a Supreme Court case that declared what activity to be unconstitutional?**

   A. Gender discrimination.
   B. Discrimination in hiring.
   C. Laws against interracial marriages.
   D. School segregation.
   E. Discrimination in housing.

2. **The No Child Left Behind Act required school districts to show improvements under what measurement?**

   A. Race to the Top.
   B. Minimum Proficiency Standards.
   C. Adequate Yearly Progress.
   D. Common Core Curriculum.
   E. Head Start Programs.

3. **What do the supporters of affirmative action claim is really at the heart of this policy?**

   A. Perpetuating systems of stereotypes and racial categorization.
   B. Proving that some races are better than white people.
   C. A system of racial quotas that will statistically ensure optimal equality.
   D. Affirmative action is unfair to white males and makes this group underprivileged.
   E. Expanding opportunities to people who have been often (and sometimes unintentionally) neglected.

4. **The practice of promoting a student to the next grade despite evidence showing that they have not mastered the content from the previous grade is known as what?**

   A. Social promotion
   B. Retention
   C. Passing
   D. Tracking
   E. All of these answers are correct.

5. **Which of the following descriptions best fits both the controversies of self-fulfilling prophecies and tracking in education?**

   A. Both deal with the importance of reducing class size for student performance and the use of testing in school.
   B. Both deal with how the expectations of others affect student performance.
   C. Both deal with how self-esteem affects students' academic performance and whether schools should have advanced placement classes.
   D. Both deal with the extent of teacher training necessary to be qualified to teach certain populations.
   E. Both deal with how school segregation affects student performance.

6. **Many school systems place students in classes based on their ability, social class, or other characteristics. This is called**

   A. testing out.
   B. latent functions of education.
   C. manifest functions of education.
   D. tracking.
   E. biased placement.

7. **The process of conveying information or knowledge through culture is known as what?**

   A. Experiential learning.
   B. Cultural transmission.
   C. Enculturation.
   D. Cultural evolution.
   E. Manifest function.

8. **What is it within a school that unintentionally teaches students the social attitudes and habits that will allow them to fit into society?**

   A. Academic curriculum
   B. Social function
   C. Hidden curriculum
   D. Manifest function
   E. Established curriculum

9. **Some sociologists believe that _____ is a function of school that perpetuates inequality.**

   A. Socialization
   B. Social placement
   C. Competition
   D. Culturization
   E. Mass promotion

10. **Individuals commonly find mates while attending a college or university. This is an example of _____.**

    A. A manifest function of school
    B. A social function of school
    C. Hidden curriculum in the school
    D. A latent function of school
    E. Social placement

Chapter 16: Government and Politics

Overview

This chapter first discusses power and authority before presenting the different forms of government. Toward the middle, politics and the judicial system will be described. The three social power theories will be explained before ending with political parties and interest groups.

Learning Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Define power and the different types of authority.
- Identify the different forms of government and state examples for each form.
- Describe the politics and judicial system in the United States.
- Summarize the social power theories.
- State the different political parties and interest groups in the United States.

A. Power and Authority

What is Power?

Power is the ability to exert one's will over others despite resistance. It can affect personal relations, social groups, professional organizations, and government. Powerful countries usually use their power not just to influence their citizens but also to control other countries. For instance, countries on both sides of World War II used their power to form allies spanning dozens of countries. Also, in times surrounding the COVID-19 pandemic, the United States and China vied for power and influence in Latin America.

The Types of Authority

Authority is defined as the accepted or legitimate exercise of power, a power that people agree to follow. Meanwhile, **social power** is characterized by attaining one's objectives despite opposition from others. Furthermore, **consent** between leaders and their followers is necessary for legitimate social power. One of the famous theorists of the concept of authority is **Max Weber**. He introduced three forms of legitimate authority.

Table 67 - 16: Three forms of legitimate authority

	Traditional	Charismatic	Rational-Legal
Source of Power	Legitimized by long-standing custom	Based on a leader's personal qualities; cannot be passed on	Legal procedures based on laws known publicly
Leadership Style	Historic personality	Dynamic personality	Bureaucratic
Example	Hereditary monarchies (kings and queens)	Celebrities, populist politicians, and social media influencers	US presidency and Congress; criminal rulings of a court

Traditional Authority

This is typically accepted because it is a traditional way that things have gone for a very long time. For example, Queen Elizabeth reigned over Britain for a very long time. When Her Majesty gained the crown, she inherited the traditional rules handed down to her from the previous ruler. There are rules of succession within the British monarchy. There is a more modern type of traditional authority called patrimonialism. According to Max Weber, **patrimonialism** is power concentrated in the hands of a single ruler, often a monarch or patriarch, who exercises personal control over the state and its resources. The political subordinates have no power separate from what extends from the ruler. Throughout history, men have typically held privileged authority, and still, more men also tend to seek and gain roles that have authority.

Charismatic Authority

Charismatic authority is defined as the power that is legitimized based on a leader's exceptional personal qualities that resonate with society. Charismatic leaders are known to be extraordinary as they can make their followers sacrifice and may persevere in the middle of the leader's great leadership. There have been many charismatic leaders in history. Here are a few examples:

- Adolf Hitler
- Napoleon Bonaparte
- Cesar Chavez
- Gandhi
- Martin Luther King Jr.
- Winston Churchill

It is important to know that very few women have been considered charismatic leaders. Some of them are Joan of Arc, Mother Teresa, Princess Diana, and Margaret Thatcher.

Rational-Legal Authority

Rational-legal authority is the power legitimized by rules, regulations, and laws. Weber believed that in a system of rational-legal authority, the power held by individuals or institutions is based on a specific

set of rational principles, rules, systems, or ideologies. For instance, nations that follow rational-legal authority usually follow a precise constitution. This type of authority can also be applied to the workplace. Many companies have employee handbooks or rules and regulations that employees must follow.

However, only a few leaders might fit neatly into just one of these categories alone. An overlap can occur. For instance, a leader can be regarded as a charismatic and legal-rational authority figure. Likewise, a leader or government may initially demonstrate one type of authority before evolving into another.

B. Forms of Government

Monarchy

A **monarchy** is a form of government in which a single person (a monarch) holds power up to their death or abdication. A monarch obtains the rights to a royal title, usually by hereditary succession, or they may be appointed. Monarchies in modern nations usually have ceremonial remnants of tradition. Individuals who hold high titles are usually aristocratic figures. As of 2023, there were a total of 42 countries that operated as monarchies.

Monarchies can be separated into two subdivisions overall. There are **absolute monarchies**, governments where a monarch has absolute or unrestricted power, such as **Oman**, **Saudi Arabia**, and **Vatican City**. Meanwhile, **constitutional monarchies** are national governments that acknowledge monarchs but compel them to follow a greater constitution, such as the **United Kingdom**, **Cambodia**, and **Thailand**. Many countries have conformed to constitutional monarchies. The countries that have conformed to constitutional monarchies had been created by governments that were at one point in time considered to be absolute monarchies.

Oligarchy

Oligarchies are held by a small, elite group. Members of an oligarchy may not have to achieve their status strictly based on the ties they may have to noble ancestry. Even though this type of government has existed throughout history, the concept of oligarchies is somewhat challenging to define. Some nations run by oligarchies rarely claim that they have this type of government. They may claim publicly to be democracies.

Many consider **Russia** to be an example of an oligarchic political structure. After the fall of communism, many business owners gained control of Russia and its natural resources. They used that opportunity to build upon their existing wealth and gain political influence.

Dictatorship

This is the power held by a single person or a very small group that wields complete and absolute authority over a government and population. Many dictators are considered to be corrupt and may try to restrict or even eliminate freedoms. Dictators use many means to perpetuate their authority. Weber believed that dictators had charismatic leaders, also known as **charismatic dictatorships**. Two examples

of a charismatic dictator are the late **Kim Jong-il** and his son, Kim Jong Un, who is the leader of North Korea as of 2023.

Some dictatorships do not place themselves within a particular belief system. **Totalitarian dictatorships** are an extremely oppressive form of dictatorship in which the leader controls most aspects of citizens' lives. Traditionally, totalitarian governments have only one political party, the dominant party. Some citizens under totalitarian dictators' rule may be forced to publicly demonstrate their loyalty to the regime. This is usually done by participating in demonstrations or marches supporting the regime. For example, during the rule of Adolf Hitler in Germany, everyone was expected to hail or salute him to demonstrate their support publicly.

Democracy

Democracy is the form of government that gives all citizens an equal voice or vote in determining state policy. One of the most important features of a democratic state is the establishment of a just and comprehensive **constitution**. Within a democratic system, leaders are elected. Once they have been placed in office, they must abide by the rules, regulations, etc., stated within the constitution of the particular nation.

There are two types of democracies. In a **direct democracy**, government actions are directly influenced by the public. Each bill is submitted to a vote so the public can voice their preferences. Meanwhile, a **representative democracy** is a government wherein citizens choose politicians to represent their interests. Unlike a direct democracy, citizens don't vote for each bill but elect representatives to decide for them. The United States is a representative democracy.

Table 68 - 16: Summary of the forms of government

Democratic Government	Non-Democratic Government
Direct Democracy: voters have a direct influence on the decisions made in government.	**Authoritarian**: defined by authoritarianism in which people have limited civil liberties and are expected to obey the government's orders without question.
Representative Democracy: voters elect representatives who make decisions on their behalf. ● Republic Government: voters elect both legislators and the president. ● Parliamentary Government: voters elect legislators who will then choose the executives.	**Monarchy**: ruled by a single person until death or abdication.
Others	**Technocracy**: ruled by technocrats or people distinguished by their expertise.
Communist: a government that advocates radical, government-driven socio-economic reforms to create a classless society.	**Dictatorship**: rule of a single individual or very small group **Totalitarian dictatorship**: controls many aspects of people's lives.
Colonialist states: take control of foreign regions.	**Oligarchy**: power belongs to those with great wealth.

Theocracy: rule of religious leaders.
Aristocratic: rule of the aristocracy, the socioeconomic class composed of the nobility.

C. Politics in the United States

Politics is the practice of exercising authority, involving individuals or groups making decisions that impact others and institutions like government, the legal system, the military, and the police, which help implement those decisions. In the United States, politics revolves around national, state, and local elections. Political activity in the United States often peaks during the presidential election as the primary Democratic and Republican parties, along with third parties and independents, all compete to ensure the win of their candidates, especially the president. Since the country is a democracy, candidates are chosen based on votes, which makes **voter turnout** crucial in the United States.

However, not every eligible voter casts a vote. Some reasons for not voting include institutional barriers like difficulty with registration, absentee voting, and weekday voting. Others cite contentment to the status quo, apathy on social issues, and alienation or feeling that their votes don't matter. **Voter apathy** occurs when voters believe their vote is meaningless, making them stop caring about politics and quit casting their ballots. Apathy is commonly blamed for low voter turnout on election day.

Aside from apathy, there is also a lack of trust. Fifty-nine percent of Americans lack trust in the integrity of elections based on the Gallup poll carried out between April and May 2019 amid allegations of foreign interference in the 2016 presidential and 2018 midterm elections. Nonetheless, many advocacy groups, such as Rock the Vote, strive to improve voter turnout.

D. Political Parties

In the USA, there are two main political parties: Republicans and Democrats. The **Republican Party**, often associated with conservative principles, tends to focus on military budgeting, limiting government intervention in the economy, and free-market issues. On the other hand, the **Democratic Party**, typically aligned with liberal viewpoints, places a stronger emphasis on expanding social services, and the role of government in addressing social and economic issues, such as public access to healthcare and education.

However, there are also **third parties**, such as the Constitution Party, the Green Party, and the Libertarian Party. The **Constitution Party** holds beliefs that correspond with the ideals of the American Founding Fathers, the Constitution, the Declaration of Independence, and Bible-based morality. Meanwhile, the **Green Party**'s beliefs focus on social justice, environmentalism, respect for diversity, peace, and nonviolence. Lastly, the **Libertarians** argue that liberty is the most important political objective, specifically individual liberty and political freedom.

Interest Groups

Alongside political groups, big companies and other groups also need political power. To advocate for the causes of these groups, they hire a **lobbyist**—a person or a group of people—to persuade legislators, government officials, and agencies to act in the best interests of their clients. Large corporations and other organizations employ lobbyists to promote their causes. Another interest group is called **Political Action Committees**, or PACs. They use their **money** to influence politicians or political parties. Some examples of PACs are the Democratic Congressional Campaign Committee, National Republican Congressional Committee, and the American Medical Association Political Action Committee. The funds are collected to aid in the election campaigns of the candidates or political parties. PACs frequently fund advertisements that support or disagree with the candidate's platform.

E. Social Power Theories

You might be wondering where power comes from and how it is distributed. When examining political structures, sociologists frequently touch on **three categories of political power models**: the pluralist, power-elite, and Marxist models.

Pluralist Model

According to this model, power is shared among many groups. These groups may consist of business lobbyists, unions, professional associations, and coalitions of like-minded individuals. This model is about negotiating and distributing power among conflicting interest groups. The percentage of ordinary people in these groups is small, so the public tends to play a passive role.

Within this model, there are **insider** groups and **outsider** groups. The former is typically more powerful than the outsider groups because insider groups tend to work closely with elected government officials. **Insiders** are often business groups, agricultural, labor, or professional groups. On the other hand, **outsiders** are considered less powerful and have less contact with government officials. Examples of this include grassroots activists.

Power-Elite Model

Unlike the previous model, in which power is shared among many groups, the **power-elite model** contends that the rich hold most of the power. In this case, the rich refers to businesses, the government, and the military. Ordinary individuals may not have their voices heard since power is concentrated in the hands of a small number of people.

Marxist Model

Lastly, this model emphasizes the concepts of economic power and class struggle. According to this model, the governing state creates and enacts laws that serve the interests of **capitalism** and the ruling class. Capitalism is an economic system in which there is private ownership of the means of production and where there is an impetus to produce a profit. Thus, power stems from owning and controlling a society's economic resources, wealth, and assets.

The Marxist model views the state as a tool that serves the interests of the capitalists, often leading to wealth and power inequality. To address this inequality, both socialism and market socialism challenge the concentration of wealth and power in the hands of private capitalists and corporations. **Socialism** is the economic system in which there is government ownership of goods and their production, with an influence to share work and wealth equally among the members of society. Meanwhile, **market socialism** is the socialism subtype that adopts certain traits of capitalism, like allowing limited private ownership or consulting market demands. These two concepts will be discussed further in Chapter 17. For now, let's look at the summary of the key differences among the three models.

Table 69 - 16: Summary of the key differences among the three models

Pluralist Model	Power-Elite Model	Marxist Model
Outsider groups = less powerful	Power from wealth, tradition or religious authority	Power from ownership of the economic property
Insider groups = well-established	Entry is difficult and usually predetermined; united in belief	Governing power control ideas and the education of the society
	Determine the basic outlines of the economy	Control over the government and the ability to influence politics

Chapter 16: Review Questions

1. **Command that is recognized and accepted, and in which a person is given the right to make decisions is called**

   A. power.
   B. coercion.
   C. authority.
   D. influence.
   E. law.

2. **Why is the system of governance of the United States best described as rational-legal?**

   A. Because Congress has the ultimate option of impeaching the President.
   B. Because the authority of a person depends upon the support of Congress.
   C. Because the authority of a person depends upon the support of the judiciary branch.
   D. Because the authority of the leader is not questioned and he is called a monarch.
   E. Because the authority of an elected person is gone the moment they leave office.

3. **Democracy is _____.**

   A. A form of government where elites rule over the lower classes.
   B. A form of government where people rule over themselves either directly or through an elected representative.
   C. A form of government where a religious group controls the government.
   D. A form of government where a dictator controls the government.
   E. A form of government where the lower classes rule over the ruling class.

4. **Ana lives in a country where the monarch inherited his position and is the key figure in the government. He alone determines the fate of the country. She wants to start a petition to form the country's first parliament in order to restrict the monarch's power. Why is her country currently considered an absolute monarchy?**

   A. Because the monarch has ceremonial roles, such as greeting representatives of foreign governments.
   B. Because the citizens did not elect their monarch.
   C. Because any form of government without a parliament can only be an absolute monarchy.
   D. Because there are no legal limitations to the monarch's rule.
   E. Because the monarch only listens to his allies and relatives.

5. **The form of government in Cuba allows citizens very few civil liberties. There is only one ruler to whom the people are absolutely obedient. Based on this information, Cuba uses which form of government?**

   A. Authoritarianism
   B. Monarchy
   C. Oligarchy
   D. Direct Democracy
   E. Representative Democracy

6. **What is an oligarchy?**

    A. A country ruled by a small group of people who are part of the elite class.
    B. A nation governed by a strict, authoritarian leader.
    C. A government that is led by elected representatives.
    D. A type of government where power is passed down through a hereditary succession.
    E. A country governed by the working class.

7. **The attempt by special interest groups to influence governmental policy is called**

    A. bribery.
    B. illegal behavior.
    C. white-collar crime.
    D. lobbying.
    E. deviant behavior.

8. **_____ is a third-party political group in the U.S. that can be said to have views that reflect the ideals of the Founding Fathers.**

    A. The Libertarian Party
    B. The Green Party
    C. The Constitution Party
    D. The Jeffersonian Party
    E. The Freedom Party

9. **Which of the following models sees power as revolving around class and economic status?**

    A. World-view model.
    B. Pluralist model.
    C. Marxist model.
    D. Power-Elite model.
    E. Functionalist model.

10. **A group organizing a rally to voice concerns over rising healthcare costs would be an example of an outsider group. This kind of group is part of the _____ model of power.**

    A. Marxist
    B. Pluralist
    C. Inside
    D. Power-Elite
    E. World-view model

Chapter 17: Work and the Economy

Overview

This chapter explores the theoretical perspectives on the economy, different economic systems, and the modern economy with its components of primary, secondary, tertiary, quaternary, and quinary sectors. It will also investigate labor markets in the United States and convergence theory, the state of the economy in recent years, the impacts of globalization on the economy and workforce, the wage gap in the United States, and poverty-related economic issues.

Learning Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Understand the different theoretical perspectives on the economy and how they inform economic policies.
- Identify the key characteristics and differences between various economic systems, including capitalism, socialism, and communism.
- Analyze the structure and function of the modern economy, including the primary, secondary, tertiary, quaternary, and quinary sectors.
- Evaluate the current state of the labor market in the United States and the factors that influence it, such as convergence theory and globalization.
- Discuss economic issues related to income inequality, such as the wage gap and poverty, and their impact on the economy and workforce.

A. Theoretical Perspectives on the Economy

Functionalist Perspective

Functionalists view employment and economies as well-oiled machines. Each individual and organization specializes in specific tasks, contributing to the overall production and distribution of goods and services. This specialization increases efficiency and productivity, benefiting everyone in the long run. The **Davis-Moore thesis**, a functionalist theory, suggests that social stratification is a social necessity as the combination of skill, difficulty, and training needed to perform certain occupations requires better pay. The Davis-Moore thesis is used to help explain prestige and salaries that coincide with the careers available to those with doctorate degrees or medical degrees.

A **recession** occurs when there are two or more consecutive quarters of economic decline, and an economic **depression** is a sustained recession across several economic sectors. In the United States, the government usually adjusts interest rates to encourage more individuals to go out and apply for loans.

Conflict Perspective

Conflict theorists believe the economy is not a foundation of stability in society. Conflict theorists believe that economies reflect inequality in society. This is especially true when it comes to the **capitalist marketplace**. The theory is mainly considered Marxist because he believed the ruling class accumulates power, especially wealth at the expense of others.

When **Occupy Wall Street** occurred, Marie Antoinette's famous quote from centuries earlier -"Let them eat cake"- reminded people of the stark economic inequality that persisted in society. In 2010, a small minority of well-off Americans (20%) owned the majority of the country's wealth (90%), making the distinction between the "haves" and the "have-nots" very visible. Marie's quote is a reminder that inequality still exists and that the most vulnerable in society are often ignored and forgotten.

Symbolic Interactionist Perspective

Interactionists view society on a **microanalytical level**. The main focus of interactionists is how reality tends to be socially constructed on a day-to-day basis and through daily interactions. **Career inheritance** is when children enter the same or similar occupation as their parents. Symbolic interactionists also study the characteristics that contribute to job satisfaction. **Melvin Kohn** believed that employees would go to work where they were more than likely going to be happy, especially when they thought they had some sort of control over their work.

B. Economic Systems

An **economic** system refers to individuals' methods and processes to manage and distribute their available resources. In this section, you will first learn how the economy evolved from the agricultural revolution to the post-industrial period. After this, the four sectors used by scholars to examine the economic system will be presented. Lastly, the two most dominant economic systems (capitalism and socialism) will be discussed. Both of these systems tend to vary across the globe. Some countries have switched from one to another as rulers and economic changes have been made. Russia switched to a **market-based economy after** the fall of **communism**.

Economics of Agricultural, Industrial, and Postindustrial Societies

Agricultural Revolution

The **second agricultural revolution** (between the 18th century and the end of the 19th century) marked the start of an economic development in which advances in farming practices and machinery produced greater surpluses of goods and food and freed up time for people to engage in other pursuits. Additionally, there was a rise in the gap between the rich and the poor throughout this time.

Industrial Revolution

The advent of power-driven equipment and other energy sources during the **Industrial Revolution** caused a quick and profound economic transformation. Societies quickly transitioned from agricultural

to industrial. Work that individuals once did was now done in concentrated locations in cities with big factories and machinery capable of rapidly generating enormous quantities of things. Steam engines, textile mills, and other large-scale machinery were produced during this period.

Although the Industrial Revolution facilitated an increase in rapid manufacturing of commodities and a more diverse population, it also had some unfavorable effects, including

- **Cities became crowded** due to the large number of people migrating there to be nearer to manufacturing.

- Low-skilled workers who quit agricultural jobs replaced skilled workers. **Low-skilled laborers were overworked and underpaid**.

- The wealthy continued to accumulate and manage resources. At the same time, the poor were forced to live in overcrowded and impoverished conditions, and **the inequality gap between the rich and the poor that had been formed in the Agricultural Age persisted** and grew in the Industrial Age.

Postindustrial Societies and the Information Age

Some examples of the postindustrial society, also called **information society**, include changes from **products to ideas and knowledge**, from **practical skills to literacy abilities**, and a **decentralization of the workforce** because labor is not centered around city industries. The workforce is where the economy has changed the most overtly.

In the United States, service industries like government, retailing, finance, and education employ half the workforce today. Postindustrial society's power is held by those in charge of gathering, storing, and disseminating information. Workers with higher education perform better, but those without them continue to be underpaid and overworked, as in the industrial age.

Table 70 - 17: Summary of the evolution of the economy

Agricultural Revolution	Industrial Revolution	Postindustrial/ Information Society
Initiated the evolution of the economy	Introduction of power-driven machinery and other energy sources	Knowledge distribution and services
• Improved agricultural methods • Surplus supplies & food	• Faster and larger productions • Diverse populations	• Power belonging to people in charge of storing and distributing information
Inequality between the rich and the poor	Wider gap between the rich and the poor, who are underpaid and overworked	Those without advanced degrees remain underpaid and overworked

Capitalism

Capitalism is defined as the economic system in which there is private ownership and where there is an impetus to produce a profit and, thereby, wealth. Capitalism is the economic structure that is used by the United States today. Many individuals invest their money in companies to help with the cost of producing products and services sold to millions of others. Those who invest in the company are typically entitled to a percentage of sales made on the product they have invested in.

Owners typically hire workers who will receive employers' wages to provide products and services. Raw material costs, retail prices for consumers, and the amount of wages an owner can afford are all determined by supply and demand and the competition of companies producing similar products. Competition can be both positive and negative. A positive aspect is that it may lead to lower prices for consumers, but it can be negative because some companies may start attacking each other to gain sales.

Socialism

Socialism is the economic system in which there is government ownership of goods and their production, with an influence to share work and wealth equally among the members of society. Individuals who contribute to the development of a product are entitled to some form of compensation from the sale of said product and its related services. While government regulation is still necessary to control the sale of products, the distribution of said products should be fair and just.

Challenges do occur in economies, and several countries have moved to central planning to let market forces determine how many products are produced and how they are priced. **Central planning** refers to the economic system in which the government or a central authority makes all decisions about producing, distributing, and pricing of goods and services. The goal of central planning is to address issues such as shortages, inflation, and unequal distribution of resources. This system is often contrasted with free market economies, where the forces of supply and demand determine prices and production. **Market socialism** is the subtype of socialism that adopts certain traits of capitalism, like allowing limited private ownership or consulting market demands.

Table 71 - 17: Summary of the differences between capitalism & socialism

Factors	Capitalism	Socialism
Competition	High	Low
Government involvement	Little to no involvement in limiting business practices	High involvement and is trusted to divide the wealth equally and fairly among the entire population
Ownership	Individuals own the factors of production	The factors of production are collectively owned
Production	Focused on profitable	Focused on necessary
Technology and innovation	High motivation to use technology and innovate as owners need to compete	Low motivation to invent new technology and innovate as there is no competition between producers

C. The Modern Economy

Some scholars explain the evolution of economic systems based on five sectors and their different foci. Note, however, that the list is not exhaustive and may further change as society evolves. Older references only include three sectors, but recent ones have five sectors, as the expansion of the service industry gave rise to the **quaternary and quinary sectors**. In the post-industrial age, services have expanded quickly, making it impossible to retain everything in the **tertiary sector**.

Primary

This sector is dedicated to extracting and producing raw materials. Developing nations typically rely predominantly on the primary sector and as a result, the primary sector will form a large portion of their GDP. Some examples of jobs here include:

- Farming
- Fishing
- Mining
- Hunting

Countries relying on the primary sector face the following **issues**:

- **Monopolization**: The situation in which one company asserts domination over the entire market. It may result in price manipulation and a decrease in market competition.

- **International dependence**: The country depends heavily on other nations to purchase and refine its extracted resources. Due to this dependence, the economy is extremely susceptible to external factors.

- **Price volatility**: This refers to how much a stock's price changes over time. Significant price changes characterize high price volatility. Because the nation primarily depends on the output of its core industries, it is susceptible to natural occurrences like drought, which could lead to a decline in agricultural production.

Secondary

Raw materials manufacturing and refinement fall under the secondary sector of economic activity. Combining raw resources into something of higher value drives activity in this industry. Construction, manufacturing, and processing businesses are all hallmarks of the secondary sector. An example of a business in the secondary sector is an automobile manufacturing plant. This type of business combines raw resources (metals and plastics) to create a higher-value product (cars).

Tertiary

The tertiary sector, often called the **service sector**, is the first industry where heavy physical labor isn't necessary. Instead, it offers customers a range of services and encounters. The services provided in this industry include:

- Education
- Banking
- Law

Quaternary

Advanced services that go beyond the secondary sector's standard offerings define the quaternary sector. The quaternary sector is expanding in lockstep with the expansion of the modern world's digital infrastructure. Services offered in this industry include:

- Research
- Technologies
- Consultancy

Quinary

This sector handles the services done by the highest level of organizations in society, including publicly funded ones like the government, military, education, and healthcare. It is also an **extension of the tertiary sector**. The quinary sector also includes domestically based services, such as child care and house cleaning, which someone in their home previously performed. Some of the jobs included are the following:

- Federal government agency

- State and local government agency jobs; public leaders like state governors and municipal mayors, as well as administrative professionals, clerical and support workers

- Military jobs

- Community service jobs, such as police officers, firefighters, local government officials, and other related careers

- Education jobs include school bus drivers, teachers, school officials, counselors, support workers, and local school board members

- Healthcare jobs include physicians, nurses, first responders, and healthcare administrators

- Domestic service jobs include cleaning services, child care providers, and workers in culinary arts

To illustrate, citizens of underdeveloped countries typically worked in the primary sector. When economies developed, more individuals became employed in the secondary sector. In recent years, more and more jobs have been outsourced to other countries because there has been a lesser need for factory workers since the evolution of computerized machines and robots.

D. Labor Market in the United States

The collection of social procedures for buying and selling labor is called the **labor market**. The U.S. has two types of labor markets: primary and secondary. This section will also discuss the role of labor unions and professions in the labor market.

Members of the **primary labor market** tend to be highly skilled or educated. Most people who work in the primary labor market are members of unions, which we shall cover in this lesson. Meanwhile, unskilled workers or people with less education usually make up the **secondary labor market**. Smaller businesses employ these employees with less stable employment, poor salary, and insufficient benefits. Unfortunately, there is a cyclical nature in the labor market, which perpetuates the gap between the two types. The primary market barriers are:

- Due to company cutbacks and facility closures, the primary labor market has **fewer entry-level opportunities**. It is easier to enter a primary work market with prior education and/or ability.

- Workers in the secondary labor market are **less connected to networks** that could help them get a job in the primary market. Without connections, it is unlikely that they will enter the primary labor market.

- Workers in the secondary labor market typically **need more education, training, and/or certifications** for positions in the primary labor market. However, their low income and limited free time make it difficult for them to pursue further education and training.

Nonetheless, labor unions can help employees. A **labor union** is a group of workers in a specific industry or profession who unite to pursue similar objectives. A union can:

- Encourage staff to strive for better work hours, pay, and benefits.

- Resolve disputes between the employer and employee.

A **profession** refers to a job that typically involves more specific education and training. A profession is more of a calling than a job, and the phrase suggests that to pick a particular career, an individual must have a strong interest in learning about that field and a variety of needed skills. Jobs are often characterized based on their perceived job characteristics and the image associated with them.

White collar

- Typically office-based jobs with higher levels of education and skill. Examples include engineers, doctors, lawyers, accountants, and managers.

- Associated with professionalism, prestige, and higher social status.

Blue collar

- Traditionally manual labor jobs that involve physical work and technical skills. Examples include construction workers, mechanics, plumbers, electricians, and farmers.

- Associated with physical exertion, hands-on skills, and working-class identity.

Pink collar

- Service-oriented jobs typically held by women and often involving caring for others. Examples include nurses, teachers, secretaries, childcare workers, and retail workers.

- Associated with nurturing, interpersonal skills, and emotional labor.

It's important to note that these categories are simplifications and generalizations. There are many exceptions and overlaps/

E. Convergence Theory

Convergence theory suggests that societies and cultures with different social and economic systems tend to become more similar or converge in various aspects over time. This theory posits that as societies interact and exchange ideas, technologies, and practices, they gradually adopt elements from one another. For example, many capitalist countries have features of socialism. Similarly, many communist countries have moved towards market socialism.

Another aspect of this theory is social structure. During the early development of countries, economics were based on cash crops grown on plantation land by workers who did not have experience with farming. Elite individuals ran the plantations and even ran the government and were not interested in training and educating individuals to do other jobs. Economic growth was restricted until this system was challenged. A better economy led to other societal improvements, including in education.

F. Economic Conditions in Recent Years

From December 2007 to June 2009, The United States experienced the "**Great Recession,**" the most severe economic downturn since the 1929 market crash, known as **Black Monday**. The circumstances

leading up to the Great Recession were in large part connected to the housing market. Predominantly linked to the housing market, the crisis arose from banks offering adjustable-rate mortgages (ARMs) at sub-prime rates to customers with poor credit. After the initial rate expired, the rate would increase exponentially, resulting in increased monthly payments. This expansion of mortgages to high-risk borrowers, along with the rise in house prices, added to the economic turmoil, and so eventually, the economy could no longer remain stable; unemployment increased sharply, and the stock market crashed. To help illustrate this, one can consider the **S&P Index**, which measures the overall share value of particular companies that have stocks in the market and are available for sharing. In October 2007, it was at 1565, but in March 2008, it fell drastically to 676. The severity of the economic impact is further evident in the rise of **SNAP** (**Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program**) recipients growing from 17,194,000 in 2000 to 47,636,700 in 2013.

Then, while America was still recovering from the economic instability, the **COVID-19 pandemic** (March 2020 - May 2023) brought substantial financial challenges. By 2021, nearly one-third of all small businesses in the U.S. closed due to the pandemic contributing to increased unemployment and reliance on government aid.

G. Globalization and the Economy

Globalization is the process of merging nations, cultures, and financial markets through trade into a single global market. The process of globalization usually begins with one single motive. For example, a corporation may want to expand its market into other parts of the world. Globalization often has a snowball effect affecting multiple areas, such as:

- Economics
- Philanthropic

- Entrepreneurial
- Culture

The **North American Free Trade Agreement** (**NAFTA**) is a trade pact *enacted* in 1992 by the United States, Canada, and Mexico. The pact eliminated all **tariffs** (taxes) and significantly reduced other trade barriers, essentially creating a *free trade bloc* between the three countries. Between 2004 and 2011, NAFTA was expanded to include five Central American countries. In 2017, wanting it to be more beneficial to itself, the United States called for a renegotiation of NAFTA. So by November 2018, Mexico and Canada had signed into a renegotiated agreement that went into effect July 1st, 2020. This new agreement is called the US-Mexico-Canada Agreement (USMCA).

Influenced by both the Great Recession and the COVID-19 pandemic, the hoped-for economic growth and labor market changes brought about by NAFTA were insignificant in the countries involved. However, despite the concerns of some, there were also no significant job losses in the United States (as a result of NAFTA), and no environmental crisis caused in Mexico. In the end, some of the most significant changes in the negotiation of USMCA were regarding automobile manufacturing. For imported vehicles to qualify for tariff-free status, a greater percentage of parts must be manufactured in North America, and at least 30% of employees working on the vehicles must be paid a higher wage.

Aspects of Globalization

Global trade is not a new aspect of the world. Trade can be traced back to ancient Greece and Rome and their trading history with countries such as Africa, the Middle East, India, and China. Global trading increased during what was considered the Islamic Golden Age after the rise of the Mongol Empire. Colonial empires were developed, and the founding of European countries created a bigger platform for trading. Just like everything in life, there are advantages and disadvantages of globalization. Some benefits include:

- Exponentially accelerated progress of development.

- Creation of international awareness and empowerment.

- Potential for increased wealth.

Some disadvantages include:

- Some countries becoming weaker.

- Corporations may use wealth and resources to control governments.

- Rapid industrialization may lead to widespread economic damage.

- Lack of social institutions that help protect workers in countries where jobs are scarce.

The increase in outsourcing jobs such as technical support and manufacturing has skyrocketed employment rates in other parts of the world, especially within developed countries. The increased rate of offshoring employment is sometimes viewed negatively as a reason for the increased unemployment rates within the United States. Also, information security is a major risk associated with outsourcing, as once a company outsources to a vendor, they have very little control over how that provider protects its information.

Global assembly lines are the products that are assembled throughout several international transactions. Take the iPhone, for example, new ideas for iPhones are created in the United States, and the components for the new products are manufactured in countries considered peripheral. Then, they are sent to another peripheral nation to be assembled, and the support for the product is outsourced to another country. Globalization has also led to **global commodity chains**, which are internationally integrated economic links connecting workers and corporations for manufacturing and marketing.

Globalization also brings division of labor, which means that wealthy workers from core nations will compete with the lower-wage labor nations. It may lead to **xenophobia**, irrational fear, or even hatred of foreigners and foreign goods.

H. Work in the United States

People inside and outside the United States have always discussed the "American Dream." The American Dream has been based essentially on an opportunity. People say all the time that if you study hard in school, form exceptional work habits, and graduate from school (high school/college), there is a better opportunity to be hired into a good position within a company; it has been said to be the key to a successful life. Unfortunately, an estimated 8 million people lost their jobs during the recession, and the United States reached a 10% unemployment rate. Thankfully, many companies hired during the recovery process, and the unemployment rate has decreased.

Polarization in the Workforce

Outsourcing is contracting a job or set of jobs to an outside source. This has diminished the rate of high-paying jobs within the United States. Even lower job positions, such as telemarketing, support positions, etc., are being outsourced because many other countries can pay their employers much less than the United States. The Global Rights Index 2022 highlights the severe violations of workers' rights in cross-national supply lines, affecting millions of workers worldwide. The report revealed that strikes are being criminalized, collective bargaining rights are being eroded, and workers are being denied the right to establish and join trade unions, among other things. These situations are particularly prevalent in regions such as the Middle East and North Africa, where workers face systematic violations of their rights, and in Asia-Pacific, where police brutality is used to repress strike action.

Furthermore, workers have limited access to **justice** and **trade union leaders**. This impacts the working conditions and rights of individual workers and has broader implications for human rights as a whole, as the denial of workers' rights fundamentally undermines the principles of equality, justice, and freedom. The International Labour Organization argues that protecting workers' rights is crucial, as it not only ensures better conditions for workers but also increases productivity and economic growth.

Automation is defined as workers being replaced by technology. In recent years, more and more technological advances have been introduced, and machines can complete tasks faster and more efficiently than it would take a single human being to accomplish. In many supermarkets, customers can scan their groceries, bag them, and pay through a machine without the assistance of an actual cashier. Some trained individuals usually stand by in case something happens to the machine, but essentially, no new positions are created for self-checkout cashiers.

Polarization is the gap that has developed in the job market, with most employment opportunities at the lowest and highest levels and a few jobs for those with mid-level skills and education. One side of the spectrum shows increased job opportunities for low to mid-level skills and education, such as retail and food service positions. On the other side, there is a high demand for those with mid to high-level skills and education.

Women in the Workforce

Gender Pay Gaps Persist in All Racial Groups
Median weekly of full-time U.S workers, by gender and race, 2017

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics
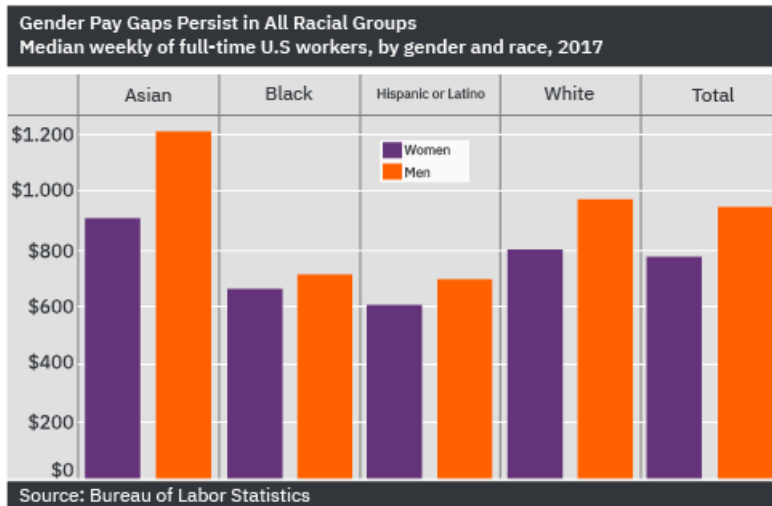
> "No country can ever truly flourish if it stifles the potential of its women and deprives itself of the contributions of half of its citizens."

Rodin Eckenroth/Getty Images Entertainment/Getty Images

Throughout the decades, more and more women have entered the workforce. Women are also completing high school, going to college, and graduating with graduate-level degrees such as a master's or doctorate. This has created better opportunities for women to gain employment in high-paying positions. While there has been a considerable change for women, they still only earn about 82 percent of what men earn within the same positions.

Immigration and the Workforce

As we have seen over the years, some people will move from locations where there are not a lot of jobs to places with more jobs. An example is the number of immigrants who move to the United States for job opportunities. In 2008, many people lost jobs due to the recession. Native-born workers lost approximately 1.2 million jobs, but foreign-born workers gained 656,000 jobs. There has been lots of speculation as to why this trend occurred. Some studies suggest that foreign workers are more willing to move from one position to another.

Many immigrants are earning high wages. Some are sponsored by their employers and account for 15% of legal immigrants. However, many illegal immigrants become trapped doing low-paying jobs, usually within the following industries:

- Agriculture
- Construction
- Service
- Food Service (cook)

I. Wage Gap in the United States

In 1963, the United States Congress passed the **Equal Pay Act**. It was created to reduce the long-lasting wage gap that had been occurring between men and women. This act mandates businesses to provide equal pay to employees of both sexes (men and women) who do similar jobs. Unfortunately, women are

still paid less than men who do the same job. The National Equal Pay Task Force study conducted in 2020 found that women made $0.82 for every dollar men made.

The wage gap does not stop at gender. When race and ethnicity are factored in, the gap widens. African American women earn about $0.63 for every dollar a white male makes. That's $0.19 less than white females. Female Hispanics/Latinos only earn $0.58 for every dollar a white male earns.

J. Unemployment in the United States

As the job market continues to change, many individuals have a hard time finding jobs. Those who cannot find a job are often thrown into poverty. **Underemployment** is when a person accepts a lower-paying, lower-status job than their education and experience qualify them to perform. Employment statistics only look at the following:

- Those who are actively looking for work.

- Those who have not earned income from a job in the past four weeks.

- Those who are ready, willing, and able to work.

Unemployment is a societal level of **disjuncture** between people seeking employment and available jobs. Some mismatches are considered geographical. For example, New York could have plenty of jobs, but most unemployed individuals live in Tennessee.

Statistics regarding unemployment cannot be relied on as much as people are led to believe due to many people stopping their search for a job when they cannot find one due to becoming discouraged; this often results in poverty. Additionally, if the population grows more quickly than the number of employed persons, the unemployment rate may increase even though more people gain jobs.

A majority of developed countries have protection for their citizens from entering absolute poverty. Social service programs, unemployment insurance, and food assistance programs are just a few programs that help unemployed individuals. One of the biggest concerns in the United States is the number of young people living in poverty and who enter poverty. Education is often seen as the key to escaping poverty. However, for youth struggling with housing insecurity, food insufficiency, and lack of family support, achieving educational success can be incredibly challenging. This creates a "poverty trap" where lack of resources hinders educational attainment, which in turn limits future job opportunities and perpetuates poverty.

Sociological perspectives call for addressing inequalities rooted in unequal access to resources, discriminatory practices, and inadequate social safety nets. Investing in early childhood education, affordable housing, job training programs, and equitable health care can provide vulnerable youth with the support they need to break free from the cycle of poverty.

Chapter 17: Review Questions

1. The _____ states that social stratification has beneficial consequences for the operation of society.

   A. Convergence Theory
   B. Karl Marx Theorem
   C. Capitalist Theory
   D. Spending ideology
   E. Davis-Moore thesis

2. Under socialism, it's the government's job to ensure that _____.

   A. The government gets rich.
   B. The rich stay rich.
   C. The poor stay poor.
   D. Resources and wealth are equally shared.
   E. The government controls all aspects of individual lives.

3. Michael L. Smith was awarded the Physiology and Entomology Nobel Prize in 2015 for his research on the sting of honey bees. He contributed to which modern economic sector?

   A. Primary
   B. Secondary
   C. Tertiary
   D. Quaternary
   E. Quinary

4. Which of the following is a barrier that keeps members of the secondary labor market from moving into the primary market?

   A. The primary labor market requires lower levels of education and training.
   B. The secondary labor market has seen corporate downsizing and company shutdowns.
   C. Workers in the secondary labor market are less connected to networks that could help them move into a primary market job.
   D. The primary labor market has many entry-level positions.
   E. The secondary labor market offers higher wages and better benefits.

5. What is the biggest risk associated with monopolies?

   A. Monopolies are typically owned and run by illegal groups like gangs and mobs, so they provide legal protection for criminal activities.
   B. The entity with a complete market share could increase prices as high as they wanted since consumers would have nowhere else to go.
   C. They limit consumer choice, so they are discouraged.
   D. A company with a monopoly can pick its customers, even if they discriminate against someone based on their race, gender, or religion.
   E. Monopolies can establish uniform standards for products and services.

6. **What is price volatility?**

   A. Return on investment.
   B. Bell Curve.
   C. Degree of change in the price of a stock over time.
   D. Standard deviation.
   E. Market Capitalization.

7. **Large changes in prices are a sign of?**

   A. High price volatility.
   B. Return on investment.
   C. Low price volatility.
   D. Standard deviation.
   E. Increase in market competition.

8. **Labor unions seek to do which of the following?**

   A. Widen the gap between primary and secondary labor markets.
   B. Resolve disagreements between the employer and employees.
   C. Assist in the negotiation of individual employee contracts.
   D. Help the employer reduce wages and benefits.
   E. Promote competition among workers.

9. **The Equal Pay Act prohibits discrimination in pay based upon which of the following?**

   A. Sex
   B. Religion
   C. National origin
   D. Race
   E. Age

10. *(Note: During the exam, you might be asked to interpret some maps or charts.)* **When analyzing the percentages of the graph among the different professions, which profession had the most women in 1970?**

   A. Dentists.
   B. Lawyers.
   C. Physicians and lawyers were the same.
   D. Physicians.
   E. Dentists and lawyers were the same.

Changes in Percentages of Professionals by Gender

Profession	Year	Men	Women
Dentists	1970	99	1
Dentists	2007	71.8	28.2
Physicians (MD)	1970	92	8
Physicians (MD)	2007	70	30
Lawyers	1970	95	5
Lawyers	2007	67.4	32.6

Source: Statistical Abstract 2009. ■ Men ■ Women
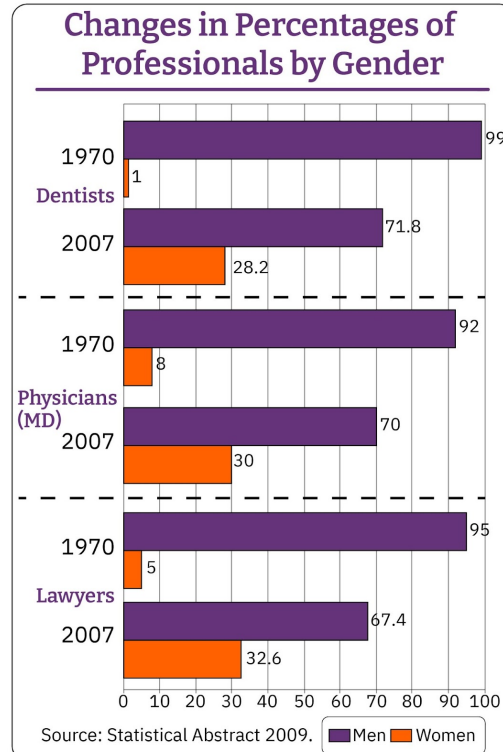
Chapter 18: Healthcare and Medicine

Overview

This chapter examines the cultural and social impacts of healthcare and medicine while exploring the various health challenges, such as cigarette smoking, eating disorders, and obesity, that face the United States population. The chapter examines the differences in healthcare based on race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and gender and compares life expectancies between genders. In addition, this chapter will discuss different types of healthcare, including direct-fee systems, **health maintenance organizations (HMOs)**, **preferred provider organizations (PPOs)**, and socialized medicine and **universal health care (UHC)**. Lastly, the chapter explores the theoretical perspectives on health and medicine, such as structural functionalism, conflict perspective, and symbolic interactionism.

Learning Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Identify and explain the major cultural and social impacts of healthcare and medicine in the society of the United States.
- Analyze the various health challenges facing the United States population, including smoking, eating disorders, and obesity, and discuss potential solutions.
- Understand the differences in healthcare access and outcomes based on race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and gender.
- Compare and contrast different types of healthcare systems, such as direct-fee systems, HMOs, PPOs, and socialized medicine, and explain the pros and cons of each.
- Discuss the theoretical perspectives of structural functionalism, conflict theory, and symbolic interactionism to understand the role of health and medicine in society.

Medical sociology is defined as the systematic study of how humans manage health and illness, disease and disorders, and healthcare for the sick and the healthy. Medical sociologists study the physical, mental, and social components of health and sickness. The **social construction of health** is significant to medical sociologists. One of medical sociology's ideas is to emphasize this particular discipline's social-cultural aspects.

For instance, medical sociologists study society's expectations about how people behave in their roles and certain situations. A **role** is a behavior set by society and outlines what is expected of an individual in a particular social position or status. In healthcare, three areas of study include the **sick role**, the **physician's role**, and the **profit motive**.

Table 72 - 18: Sick role, physician's role & profit motive

Sick Role	Physician's Role	Profit Motive
Releases people from regular responsibilities like work or school. If their condition is **critical**, they should seek medical attention & be motivated to recover. The sick role theory was first introduced in 1951 by American sociologist Talcott Parsons. The sick role theory is better suited for managing acute or short-term illnesses.	Doctors help the sick to return to their routine by verifying the person's claims of being sick & treating any illnesses using their education & training. Other doctors have questioned this traditional role & pushed **societal change** by encouraging patients to take more responsibility for their health. This is in contrast to the **norm** in our society, where a doctor is reactive, responding to those who are already ill & treating **acute symptoms**.	This refers to the assumption that doctors are motivated by money rather than a drive of concern for the sick. It suggests that doctors, organizations, & other medical providers prioritize greater profits over patient health.

A. Cultural Meaning of Illness

Culture, not an individual's biology, dictates what illnesses are stigmatized and which are not. Sociologist **Erving Goffman** described how **social stigmas** were responsible for hindering individuals from completely integrating into the society around them. **Stigmatized illnesses** are illnesses that are discriminated against and whose sufferers are looked down upon or even shunned by society. **Leprosy**, for example, also known as Hansen's disease, is a chronic infectious disease caused by the bacteria *Mycobacterium leprae*. It primarily affects the skin and nerves, leading to disfigurement, nerve damage, and loss of sensation in the affected areas. Throughout history, this disease has been stigmatized and feared by societies around the world. It was most prevalent in 1000-1400 C.E., and those diagnosed with the disease were shunned from society for a variety of reasons, including:

- **Religious Beliefs -** Leprosy was considered a divine punishment for one's sins or wrongdoings.

- **Lack of understanding about the disease** - Leprosy was poorly understood in the past. People did not know how it spread or how it could be treated, which led to many misconceptions and myths about the disease. This lack of understanding fueled the stigma and discrimination against those affected by leprosy.

- **Visible symptoms and disfigurement** - Leprosy often causes skin lesions and deformities, such as loss of fingers, toes, and nose. These visible symptoms were considered repulsive by society, leading to social exclusion and isolation of people with leprosy.

- **Association with poverty and marginalized communities** - Leprosy was more prevalent in poverty-stricken areas and among marginalized communities. As a result, it became associated

with poverty, uncleanliness, and social inferiority. People affected by leprosy were often outcasts and shunned by society.

- **Fear of contagion** - There was a widespread belief that leprosy was highly contagious, and people with the disease were seen as a threat to the community. This fear of contagion led to the segregation of leprosy patients in hospitals or leper colonies, away from their families and communities.

Another more recent example of a stigmatized illness is COVID-19. Since its emergence in late 2019, here are a few ways in which **COVID-19** has been stigmatized:

- **Misinformation and blame** - COVID-19 has been surrounded by misinformation and conspiracy theories, which have only added to the stigma. Some individuals and communities have been blamed for the spread of the virus, further fueling discrimination and marginalization.

- **Related to social class and hygiene** - COVID-19 has been associated with socioeconomic status and hygiene practices. People from marginalized communities or those living in poor conditions have been stigmatized as being more susceptible to the virus due to their living conditions or personal hygiene.

- **Discrimination against those affected** - People who have contracted COVID-19 or have recovered from it have often faced discrimination and social rejection. They have been avoided, shunned, or even ostracized due to fear and prejudice associated with the disease.

- **Labeling and stereotyping** - Some individuals and communities have been labeled as "spreaders" or "carriers" of the virus, leading to stereotyping and stigmatization. It has caused feelings of shame, guilt, and isolation among those who have been diagnosed with COVID-19.

Overall, the stigmatization of COVID-19 has had a negative effect on individuals, communities, and societies. It has hindered efforts to control the spread of the virus and has had a significant impact on the mental health of those affected.

Contested illnesses are illnesses that some medical professionals question. Some examples include:

- Fibromyalgia
- Chronic Fatigue Syndrome
- Anxiety & Depression
- Morgellons

Some doctors may not diagnose these because they may feel that they are just in the head of the patient and nothing is seriously wrong. This may cause some patients to seek help from other professionals, or they may stop seeking help altogether.

B. Social Construction of the Illness Experience

There is no objective reality regarding the illness experience. People can only have their perception of it. Social construction usually deals with issues such as how patients control how they tell people about their **disease/illness** and how they have had to adapt to a new lifestyle.

Many people who experience **long-term illnesses** may feel that the world is becoming smaller. Ill individuals who have a chance to improve their condition begin reorganizing their lives to deal with the illness and focus on **recovery**. Another aspect of recovery or dealing with illness is culture. Culture plays a huge role in experiencing illness. It may affect how someone goes about what kind of treatment options they may choose.

C. Social Construction of Medical Knowledge

The **social construction theory**, which suggests that reality is socially constructed through the interactions between people, affects the **medical industry** in more ways than one. The social construct theory affects the development and recognition of various illnesses and **disorders** as well as the application of various treatments.

Example

> *In the past, homosexuality was viewed as a **mental disorder**, and treatment focused on changing a person's **sexual orientation**. Through social constructions and improved research, this perspective of homosexuality has gradually shifted and is now culturally more generally accepted as a **normal variant** in human behavior.*

The social construction theory also affects how we approach the health needs of **marginalized communities**. By recognizing and addressing social factors such as a lack of access to healthcare or services, medical professionals and researchers can identify and improve individual and population-level health outcomes. Medical knowledge can reflect and reproduce inequalities of gender, class, race, and ethnicity.

Table 73 - 18: Health inequalities in gender, class, race, and ethnicity

Gender	Class	Race	Ethnicity
Women are often excluded from **clinical trials** due to bias and poor representation, limiting access to new treatments and therapies.	The cost of medical care in the United States is largely determined by the patient's ability to pay, leading to **disparities in access** and **care**.	**Racial disparities in healthcare** are well documented, including in the diagnosis and management of chronic diseases, access to preventative care, and quality of care.	People of certain ethnicities are more likely to suffer from certain chronic diseases due to **genetic predispositions**, lack of access to healthcare, and other social determinants of health, leading to unequal access to quality care.

Example

> *Early in the 19th century, pregnant women were discouraged from dancing and driving due to the fear of harming their unborn children. Still today, women are sometimes discouraged from being physically active or expected to "take it easy" in order not to harm their unborn child accidentally.*

D. Global Health

Social epidemiology is a subdivision of **epidemiology** that examines how social interactions and human combined activities influence health. **Social epidemiology** examines how social factors, including economic and sociological factors, influence the spread and impact of diseases.

Example

> *Examining a particular geographic area, public health officials may identify risk factors for infections and their spread, such as a low **socioeconomic level** or poor access to healthcare. Through this research, they could develop interventions like **targeted education campaigns** or free health services in the area, which could help reduce the prevalence of the infection.*

Social epidemiology highlights the social problems intertwined with health in general and health in other geographic locations. Studies found that the health of high-income individuals differs significantly from the health of low-income individuals. Lower-income individuals may find it very difficult to find decent health care outside of the government-run health organizations that provide health services to the community, usually at a lower cost or for free. However, higher-income individuals have higher rates of anxiety and depression. In the United States, one of the biggest issues is health care and having access to health care, while other countries face other issues, such as suffering from significant **disparities** in certain areas.

E. Economics and Health

Wealth and health always go together. For example, **low-income countries** lack the resources necessary to sustain excellent health due to poor economies. First, their food is limited and usually of poor quality. Second, obtaining clean drinking water is as tricky as finding nutritious food, and unclean water can spread infectious diseases like **influenza**, **pneumonia**, and **tuberculosis**, which are the leading cause of death in developing countries. Lastly, they are less informed and have less access to medical care as there are only a few medical professionals and sometimes none. On the other hand, **high-income countries** tend to be protected from acute infections such as the common cold or acute respiratory tract infections, allowing them to have a higher life expectancy and live long enough to develop chronic illnesses linked to contemporary life, such as **Alzheimer's**.

Alzheimer's disease is a degenerative brain disorder that affects millions of people in the United States. This progressive disease leads to a decline in memory, thinking, behavior, and social skills, ultimately resulting in the inability to function independently. Currently, about 6.5 million people aged 65 and older are living with Alzheimer's disease in the United States. With an aging population, it is estimated that this number will continue to increase in the coming years. Despite its prevalence, there is currently no cure for Alzheimer's disease, making it a major public health challenge.

Within low-income nations, it is not healthcare costs that are the most significant concern; it is infectious diseases. Aside from having lower average life spans, low-income nations must also deal with:

- Infectious Diseases
- High infant mortality rates

- Scarce medical personnel
- Inadequate water systems
- Inadequate sewer systems

F. Health Challenges in the United States

Although science and medicine help to reduce the cases of **infectious diseases**, in some cases, these diseases can still lead to the development of chronic diseases. Additionally, smoking, eating disorders, and obesity are often linked to high-income countries. These and **sexually transmitted diseases** (STDs) are discussed in this section.

Cigarette Smoking

First, the number one risk to our health that can be avoided is smoking, which is physically addictive because of the nicotine that cigarettes contain. Smoking has been associated with many serious illnesses, like lung cancer. Smokers also experience mild diseases, like the flu, more frequently, and smoking while pregnant increases the risk of **miscarriage**. **Smoking-related illnesses** are more likely to affect even nonsmokers exposed to cigarette smoke.

Other smoking-related diseases include:

- **Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD)**: Characterized by lungs that are inflamed and obstructed. Symptoms include shortness of breath, coughing, wheezing, and voice changes.

- **Cardiovascular Disease (CVD)**: By significantly damaging the walls of the arteries and reducing the amount of oxygen that travels to the heart, smoking increases the risk of developing CVD.

- **Stroke**: Smoking increases the risk of stroke by around three times. It leads to clots forming in the blood vessels, reducing the amount of oxygen that travels to the brain.

Eating Disorders

Eating disorders, which are often unique to high-income nations, are another fundamental health challenge for the United States. The two most common eating disorders are **bulimia**, which involves binge eating followed by inducing vomiting and/or abusing laxatives to prevent weight gain, and **anorexia nervosa**, which is defined by a person's fear of gaining weight and results in a lower-than-healthy weight.

Eating disorders have complex and multifaceted **etiology**; no single cause is responsible. Multiple factors contribute to a person's risk of developing an **eating disorder**. These factors include biological, psychological, social, and cultural influences. On the biological side, research has shown that there may be a genetic predisposition to developing an eating disorder, as well as certain brain chemicals and hormones that regulate appetite and food intake. Psychological factors such as body dissatisfaction, low self-esteem, and perfectionism are also considered risk factors for eating disorders. Additionally, **societal** and **cultural pressures**, including media messages that promote body ideals that are unattainable for most people, may also contribute to the development of an eating disorder.

Obesity

Several **societal factors** contribute to obesity. One reason is an increasing number of people in the U.S. work professions that entail more sitting in front of a computer than physical activity. Even when people are not working, they still use computers, television, and machines to complete most household chores. Of course, a significant factor is the food people eat, as restaurants serve fatty, delicious cuisines that are often high in carbohydrates. Many foods are prepackaged, easy to prepare, and high in calories.

Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STDs)

STDs have more than **25 different types** and are widely regarded as an **epidemic**. According to estimates, **50% of all Americans will acquire an STD** at some point in their lifetime. The rise of STDs in the last half-century deviates from the trend of other infectious diseases, which are declining in the 20th century. Some cultures usually link sexual activity with sin or deviant behavior. Hence, a sizable portion of the American population views STDs not just as illnesses but also as indicators of **immorality**.

STDs present a serious challenge to public health in the USA. The increase in the spreading of STDs is deeply concerning as the health outcomes could have a negative influence on **social structures**. By understanding who is engaging in risky behaviors—and why—sociologists can help to identify the root causes of the epidemic of STDs in the U.S. and propose solutions to mitigate and even eradicate them. Sociologists can also work to **destigmatize** the conversation around STDs by emphasizing the moral and **ethical responsibility** that comes with sexual activity. In particular, teaching accurate, comprehensive, and inclusive sex education curricula, including information about **contraception** and protection, can help educate individuals to make safer decisions when it comes to their sexual behavior. Ultimately, this could go a long way towards reducing the spread of STDs and protecting the health of Americans in the future.

G. Healthcare Issues in the United States

Healthcare within the United States is complex and very contradicting. While the healthcare system is considered one of the best in the world, it still does not provide all citizens with proper healthcare.

Health (Race and Ethnicity)

As of 2021, the average life expectancy for white males was seven years longer than for Black males. **Infant mortality** refers to the number of infant deaths for every 1,000 live births. For Black infants, the infant mortality rate was approximately 2.4 times that of white infants. Black individuals also have a higher rate of other diseases and causes of death. The gap in health and ethnicity started to narrow during the 1960s during the **Civil Rights Movement**. It, unfortunately, began to widen once again during the early parts of the 1980s. The **National Healthcare Disparities Report 2021** shows some racial inequalities in health care. Compared to the White population, some inequalities were found:

- Black Americans, American Indians, and Alaskan Natives received **lower-quality** care for about 40-43 percent of measures.

- Like Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islanders, Asian ethnicities also obtained inferior care for about 28 percent of measures.

- Hispanic individuals received inadequate care for 36 percent of the measures.

Figure 2. Life expectancy at birth, by Hispanic origin and race: United States, 2019-2021
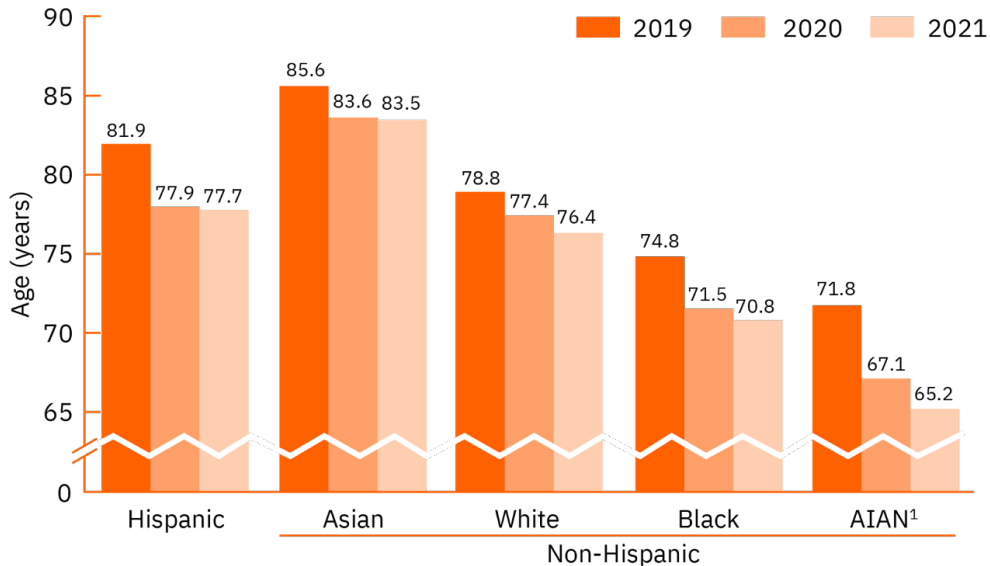
American Indian or Alaska Native.
NOTES: Estimates are based on provisional data for 2021. Provisional date are subject to change as additional data are received. Estimates for 2019 and 2020 are based on final data. Life tables by race and Hispanic origin are based on death rates that have been adjusted for race and Hispanic-origin misclassification on death certificates; see Thechnical Notes in this report.
SOURCE: National Center for Health Statistics, National Visual Statistics System, Morality.

The American Indian and Alaska Native (AIAN) population in the United States, excluding those of Hispanic origin, saw the most significant decrease in life expectancy, with a decline of 1.9 years between 2020 and 2021.

Health (Socioeconomic Status)

Morbidity is the **incidence (rate) of disease**. Discussions about health as it relates to race and ethnicity often overlap with conversations about health and **socioeconomic status**. Marilyn Winkleby's research found that socioeconomic status is one of the strongest and most consistent predictors of a person's morbidity and mortality.

Many **behavior-influenced diseases**, such as lung cancer and coronary artery disease, are more prevalent among individuals of lower socioeconomic status. Factors contributing to this include limited access to healthcare, poor diet, insufficient exercise, higher rates of smoking, and other unhealthy behaviors. Individuals from lower socioeconomic backgrounds may have limited access to resources such as education, healthy food options, and safe environments for physical activity. It can lead to an increased likelihood of engaging in unhealthy behaviors. Additionally, financial limitations may hinder timely medical care and screenings, leading to the late detection and treatment of these diseases, which

can greatly impact outcomes and mortality rates. Socioeconomic status plays a significant role in developing and managing behavior-influenced conditions. It highlights the importance of addressing social and economic inequalities to promote better health outcomes for all.

Health (Gender)

Women are affected by unequal access to and institutionalized sexism within the healthcare system. **Kaiser Family Foundation** found that women experienced a decline in finding specialists between 2001 and 2008. **Patricia Hill Collins**, a feminist sociologist, suggested that it is not possible to separate the effects of race, class, gender, sexual orientation, and other attributes.

Life Expectancy in the World from 1955 to Present
Males, Females, and Both Sexes combined
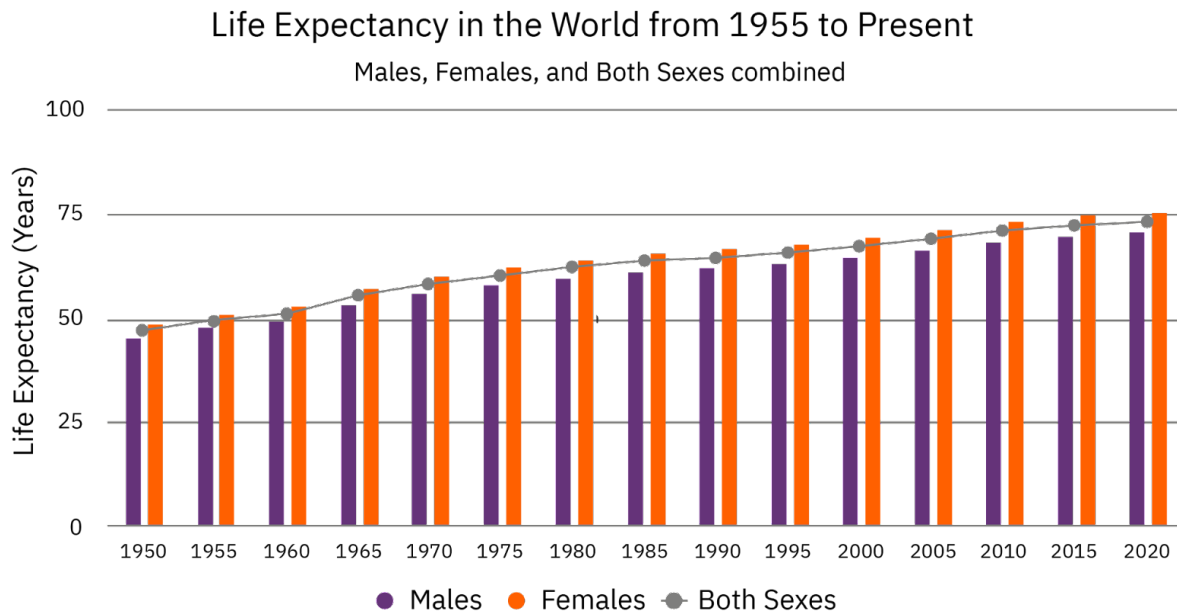
Life Expectancy by Gender

According to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, women in the United States have a longer life expectancy than men. This trend, known as the "female advantage," has been observed since the late 19th century and has continued to grow throughout the 20th century, except for the 1918 flu pandemic. There may be environmental factors that contribute to this gap in life expectancy. However, the U.S. has a higher rate of deaths among men compared to other comparable countries, indicating that there may also be social and cultural factors at play. Ultimately, this demonstrates the impact of demography on numerous aspects of society, highlighting the need to address societal issues surrounding health and gender inequality.

H. Mental Health and Disability

Mental Health

One of the most diagnosed mental health disorders is anxiety. **Anxiety disorders** are feelings of worry and fear that persist for months. Running a close second to anxiety disorders are mood disorders. **Mood disorders** are long-term, debilitating illnesses like **depression** and **bipolar** disorder. Meanwhile, **personality disorders** cause people to behave in ways that are seen as abnormal to society but seem normal to them.

Multiple studies have shown that there are significant differences in the prevalence of personality disorders based on gender. According to the **Diagnostic Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders** (DSM-5), **antisocial personality disorder**, primarily marked by a disregard for the feelings and rights of others, is more commonly diagnosed in men. On the other hand, **borderline personality disorder**, which is characterized by unstable and intense emotions and relationships, is more prevalent in women. Research efforts are ongoing to understand the contributing factors to the development of these disorders, including potential biological and social influences. **Medicalization** in the context of mental health refers to the process of redefining behaviors or experiences once considered typical as deviant and deemed to require medical or psychiatric treatment.

We have discussed how adults are affected by mental health disorders, but children also suffer from mental health issues. Children suffer from **Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder**, or ADHD for short.

Mental health can be debilitating and can affect a person's ability to deal with daily life. Mental health can affect someone's **social status**, the ability to gain housing, and employment.

Disability

According to the **WHO**'s International Classification of Functioning, Disability, and Health, a **disability** refers to any problems in body function or structure (**impairment**) that hinder an individual's ability to engage in specific activities (**activity limitation**) and interact with their surrounding environment (**participation restrictions**).

The **Americans with Disabilities Act** was signed in 1990. Before this act was enacted, people with disabilities were excluded from the many available opportunities and even **social institutions**. There are still places where wheelchairs can't be accessed. Think about a person in a wheelchair, where crossing a street becomes challenging because there are no ramps or ways to cross it. Before this act was implemented, places were not required to make accommodations.

Some persons with disabilities are labeled as different, discriminated against, and sometimes even shunned. Sometimes, people are referred to as the blind man, the blind woman, or the person in the wheelchair. Instead of being called by their names, they are referred to as how they are disabled.

I. Types of Health Care

Even though medical practice and general health have improved due to technology and scientific advances, only some have access to or receive healthcare of the same standard. Costs differ even in high-income countries, and healthcare systems appear different. This section discusses the four ways that individuals pay for medical treatment.

Direct-Fee System

Also known as Direct Primary Care, it refers to the system where healthcare is provided to those who can afford it and denied to those who cannot, much like any other good or service for sale. Patients pay hospitals and doctors directly for their services in a direct-fee system. Americans spend more than any other nation's residents do on healthcare. Americans spent $42,635 on average per person in 2020. In 2019, Americans spent about $3.8 trillion on medical care and prescription drugs and $1.9 trillion on health insurance.

Medical Bill Sharing

Medical bill sharing, also known as healthshare plans, is an alternative form of healthcare coverage where members pool their funds to cover each other's medical expenses. These plans often have lower costs and give members greater control over their healthcare decisions. However, they are sometimes exempt from covering pre-existing conditions and may have limited coverage for specific treatments or needs.

Health Maintenance Organization (HMO)

One of the two commonly managed healthcare plans is the **Health Maintenance Organization (HMO)**. For a set monthly charge, an HMO offers or arranges for customers' comprehensive medical treatment. It requires regular contributions from members to remain active, and the organization then reimburses members for a percentage of their medical costs. However, the member must select a primary care doctor who serves as a medical care gatekeeper. The primary care physician must give a referral before the patient can receive care from any other medical professional or service, such as a lab test or x-ray.

Preferred Provider Organizations (PPOs)

The other common managed healthcare plan is the **Preferred Provider Organization (PPO)**. PPOs are composed of several healthcare providers who provide services to particular patient groups at reduced rates. PPOs are usually less budget-friendly in comparison to HMOs. Unlike HMOs, the member is not required to choose a primary care physician. Instead, the member is free to choose any doctor, although utilizing one in the network will result in significant savings. The price will be higher if the member selects someone outside the network.

Socialized Medicine and Universal Health Care (UHC)

Although socialized medicine and UHC (Universal Health Care) are often used interchangeably, they are slightly different. **Socialized medicine** refers to a healthcare system in which the government owns and runs the entire healthcare system. The government employs all the medical staff and owns and runs the hospitals. Great Britain has a socialized medicine system where the National Health System is responsible for all aspects of the healthcare system and provides free services to everyone. The United States again thrives in some areas, but insurance affordability is a downside to U.S. healthcare.

On the other hand, **UHC** is a system that guarantees **healthcare coverage** for everyone, but it does not mean that only the government pays for it. Germany and Canada are just two examples of nations that provide universal healthcare. In 1970, the Canadian government passed **The Canada Health Act of 1970**, making it a requirement that all health insurance plans be available to all residents of Canada.

J. Theoretical Perspectives on Health and Medicine

Structural Functionalism

Functionalists believe that health is vital to society's stability. **Talcott Parsons** contends that a **sick role** is made up of the social rights and expectations of those afflicted with sickness. This position, he claims, is a type of **sanctioned deviance** or an acceptable deviation from **conventional behavior**. Sick individuals have the right to be sick and also to get help for their medical condition(s), but this requires legitimation. **Legitimation** is the act of a physician certifying that illness is genuine. As Parsons' theory suggests, it is optimal to ensure that sick people are tended to swiftly and effectively, not just to minimize the spread of disease but to ensure that people resume their duties within society and keep the economy functioning.

Conflict Perspective

Conflict theorists believe there are issues in the healthcare system. Conflict theorists believe that **capitalism** and the pursuit of profit lead to the **commodification** of health. **Commodification** is defined as changing something not generally considered a commodity into something that can be bought and sold in a marketplace.

Conflict theorists also point out the inequalities within the healthcare system. Conflict theorists do not, however, give enough credit to the advances in **modern medicine** that would not have occurred without an economic structure.

Symbolic Interactionism

Symbolic interactionists believe that health and illness are socially constructed. The **medicalization of deviance** is defined as the process that changes "bad" behavior into "sick" behavior. There is a related process called demedicalization. **Demedicalization** is where unhealthy behavior becomes normal again. These affect who responds to patients, how patients respond, and how people view patients.

During the **Civil War era**, enslaved people who ran away from their owners were diagnosed with mental illnesses. One, in particular, is called **drapetomania**. Later, running away from slave owners was deemed normal - it was demedicalized.

Interactionists recognize that diagnoses are subjective. **Pharmaceutical companies** make millions of dollars a year treating illnesses that may not actually need treatment.

In summary, there is no denying that healthcare in the United States and even other countries have room for improvement. Aspects such as how a person's background affects access and how modern society has contributed to various chronic diseases still need to be addressed.

Chapter 18: Review Questions

1. **If we are looking at the sick role, the rights and expectations of people with a disease within a society, what framework are we probably using?**

   A. Conflict theory
   B. A feminist analysis
   C. The symbolic-interaction analysis
   D. Structural-functionalism
   E. Labeling theory

2. **The set of expectations that defines the behaviors appropriate for individuals who are sick is called the _____.**

   A. Sick role
   B. Social role
   C. Medical role
   D. Physician's role
   E. Patient Role

3. **The period following the Industrial Revolution saw a decrease in deaths caused by infectious diseases and an increase in deaths caused by chronic conditions. Why did this occur?**

   A. An era of peace led to a dramatic drop in deaths from wars.
   B. There was a widespread pandemic of chronic conditions in Europe.
   C. Society better controlled the spread of chronic conditions, so people lived long enough to develop infectious diseases.
   D. Society better controlled the spread of infectious diseases, so people lived long enough to develop chronic conditions.
   E. Working in factories was much less healthy than working in agriculture.

4. **In the U.S., what is the greatest preventable cause of many health issues?**

   A. STDs
   B. Sanitation issues
   C. Eating disorders
   D. Smoking
   E. Anxiety disorders

5. **All of the following statements are true about eating disorders EXCEPT:**

   A. Many women develop an eating disorder due to low body image.
   B. Eating disorders only exist among women.
   C. An estimated 8 million Americans have an eating disorder.
   D. Women are more likely than men to develop an eating disorder.
   E. Eating disorders are influenced by genetic, environmental, psychological, and societal factors.

6. **Great Britain's healthcare system is an example of _____.**

   A. socialized medicine
   B. private healthcare
   C. single-payer private healthcare
   D. universal private healthcare
   E. preferred provider organization

7. **Sarah's managed health plan requires a referral from her family physician before she can see a specialist. She most likely has what kind of insurance plan?**

   A. Health Maintenance Organization
   B. Preferred Maintenance Organization
   C. Health Provider Organization
   D. Preferred Provider Organization
   E. Socialized medicine

8. **What are Health Maintenance Organizations or HMOs?**

   A. Organizations that offer health service packages at a fixed price and meet the HMO standards set forth in law.
   B. Health Management and Organization authorities for the health sector.
   C. Insurance companies that only work with the best health service providers at the lowest possible price.
   D. Organizations that write the acts to set standards for insurance organizations.
   E. Non-profit organizations that promote healthy living through educational campaigns.

9. **Sanctioned deviance refers to:**

   A. Antisocial and aggressive behaviors.
   B. Refusal to act like an ill person.
   C. A departure from normal societal expectations that a doctor or authority figure approves.
   D. A sanction on any medical treatment.
   E. A stigma attached to people with illness.

10. **Which of these is an example of the medicalization of deviance?**

    A. The healthcare system is biased against people of lower incomes.
    B. A person with the flu is expected to be isolated and unproductive.
    C. Alcoholism used to define someone as being a bad person; now, we treat alcoholism as a disease.
    D. Doctors traditionally had unequal power over their patients, but now we push for a more equal relationship.
    E. Public schools that offer sex education classes to students.

Chapter 19: Population, Urbanization, and the Environment

Overview

This chapter explores the connections between demography, urbanization, and the environment. It covers population growth theories, urbanization perspectives, and the impacts of aging, mortality, and migration on populations. The interplay between society and the environment is discussed, including how population growth and urbanization affect resources and pollution. Additionally, the concept of environmental racism is examined, focusing on the unequal environmental burdens faced by marginalized communities. The chapter offers insights into these intertwined factors and their environmental consequences.

Learning Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Define demography, fertility rate, mortality rate, and migration.
- Describe the societal and environmental impact of migration and urbanization.
- Summarize the demographic and urbanization theories.
- Explain environmental racism.

A. Demography and Population

Demography is defined as the study of populations. **Three components** are vitally important to demography.

- **Fertility rate** refers to how society measures the number of children born. This number is typically lower than the **fecundity** rate, which measures the potential number of children who may be born to women who are of childbearing age.

- **Mortality rate** is the measure of the number of people who **die** over a measured period of time.

- **Migration** refers to the **movement of people** from one location to another. This relocation can be temporary or permanent, voluntary or involuntary.

These will be discussed in depth in the succeeding sections of this chapter.

B. Population Growth

Births, deaths, and migrations happen daily. The changes within the three components of demography will cause population growth rates to increase or decrease. As a result of these changes, the population

composition will alter over time. Population composition refers to a snapshot of the demographic profile of a population. Population composition can be measured for:

- Societies
- Other Groups
- Nations
- World Region

The **sex ratio** is the number of men for every hundred women. The world's current sex ratio of 105 indicates that there are 105 men for every 100 women. A **population pyramid** is a graphical representation of population distribution by age and sex.
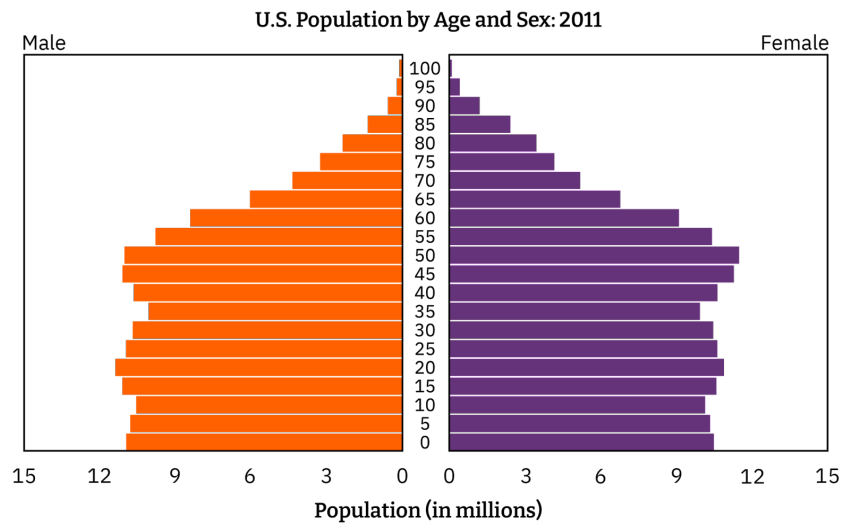
U.S. Population by Age and Sex: 2011

This population pyramid presents a comprehensive overview of the demographic composition of the United States in the year 2011, categorizing individuals based on their age and gender.

Population pyramids can be broadly classified into **three primary types**, each revealing distinct characteristics and demographic trends.

Expansive Population Pyramid

Characteristics:

- **A wide base**: This feature indicates a high percentage of young individuals, mainly in the pre-reproductive and reproductive age groups. These are typically people under the age of 15 to 25.

- **Tapers toward the top**: As you move up the age groups on the pyramid, the
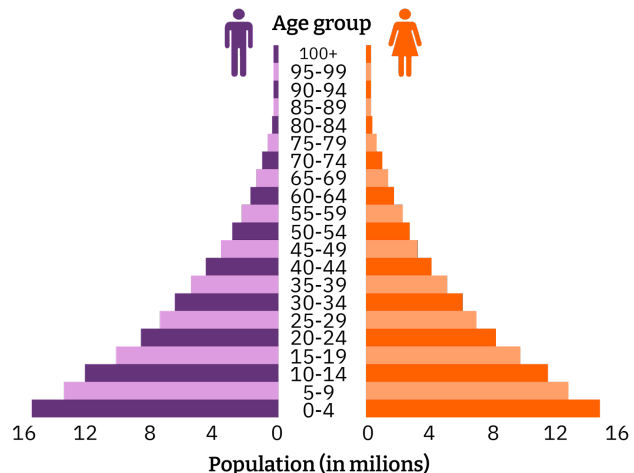
population gradually decreases, forming a triangular shape.

- **Common in developing countries**: Expansive population pyramids are frequently seen in less economically developed countries.

- **High birth rates and lower life expectancy:** The wide base results from a high number of births, while the tapering shape is due to lower life expectancy, often as a result of limited healthcare, high child mortality rates, and other factors.

- **Example Countries**: India and Nigeria are prime examples of countries with expansive population pyramids. The youth population in these nations is large, and the overall pyramid shape reflects a high fertility rate.

Constrictive Population Pyramid

Characteristics:

- **Narrow base**: Constrictive population pyramids have a narrow base, indicating a low percentage of young individuals. The base represents the pre-reproductive and reproductive age groups.

- **Tapers toward the top**: As you move up the age groups, the population decreases, creating an **urn-shaped structure.**

Population (in milions)
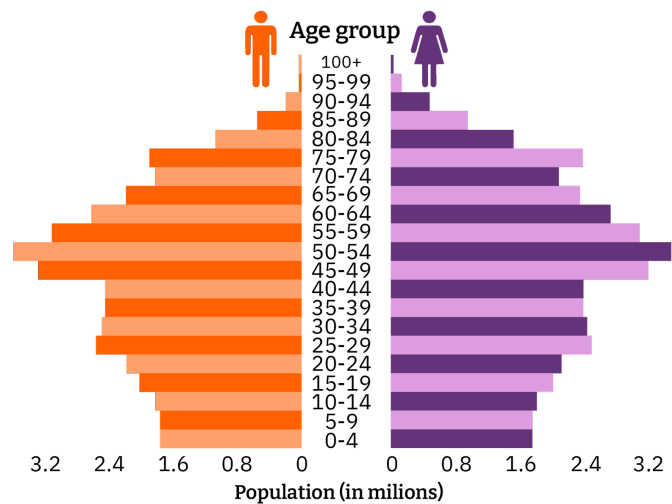
- **Occurs in countries with declining birth rates**: Constrictive pyramids are typically seen in countries experiencing declining birth rates and low fertility rates.

- **Low mortality rates and high life expectancy**: The narrow base reflects lower birth rates, while the top-heavy structure results from low mortality rates and longer life expectancy.

- **The post-reproductive and elderly population is larger**: In this type of pyramid, the older population is more numerous than the younger population.

- **Example Countries**: Japan and some Western European countries are examples of nations with constrictive population pyramids. An aging population and declining birth rates often characterize these nations.

Stationary Population Pyramid

Characteristics:

- **Nearly equal population distribution**: In a stationary population pyramid, the population is distributed relatively evenly across different age groups, resulting in a near-equal number of individuals in each group.

- **Birth and death rates are similar**: This equilibrium in age distribution occurs because birth and death rates are approximately the same, resulting in a balanced population growth.
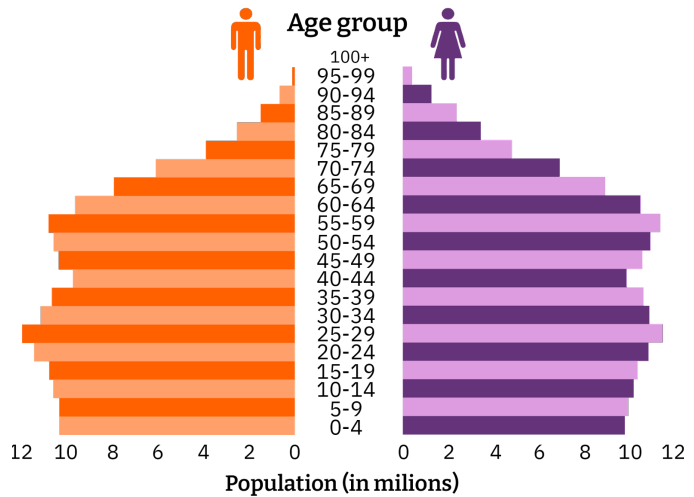
- **Often found in developed countries**: Stationary population pyramids are commonly observed in economically developed countries.

- **Bell-shaped structure**: This pyramid type typically has a bell-shaped structure due to the near-equivalent distribution of individuals in various age groups.

- **Example Countries**: The United States, Canada, and many European nations often exhibit stationary population pyramids. Population growth in these countries is stable, and age groups are fairly evenly represented.

Varying Fertility and Mortality Rates by Country

Country	Population in millions	Fertility Rate	Mortality Rate	Sex Ratio Male to Female
Afghanistan	42.2	4.6%	12.1%	102.1
Sweden	10.6	1.7%	9.5%	101.5
United States	339.9	2.0%	8.4%	98.2

The data highlights substantial disparities in fertility and mortality rates among Afghanistan, Sweden, and the United States. Afghanistan has the highest fertility rate (4.6%) and mortality rate (12.1%) among a population of 42.2 million. Sweden, with a population of 10.6 million, has a lower fertility rate (1.7%) and mortality rate (9.5%). The United States, with a population of almost 340 million, falls in between with a moderate fertility rate (2.0%) and a lower mortality rate (8.4%). These differences reflect diverse healthcare systems, social norms, and cultural influences in each country, impacting healthcare, social services, and workforce demographics.

C. Demographic Theories

Although there are many models for **tracking and forecasting** global population growth, the **demographic transition model (DTM)** is one of the most commonly used. To estimate population growth, we use the formula below:

Population Growth = (births - deaths) + (immigrants - emigrants)

Additionally, **demographic transition**, which indicates a progressive movement from high birth and death rates to low birth and death rates, is a term frequently used in discussions about population growth.

According to Demographic Transition Theory (DTM), a society's level of technology and population growth are intimately linked. DTM explains how society shifts from high birth and death rates to low birth and death rates. Birth and death rates change as society adopts new technologies in every sector, from healthcare to crop production, directly impacting growth rates and population sizes. It suggests that future population growth will follow a predictable **four-stage model**.

See the following page for a graph demonstrating the four-stage Demographic Transition Model.

Table 74 - 19: Summary of the Demographic Transition Model (DTM) Four-Stage Theory
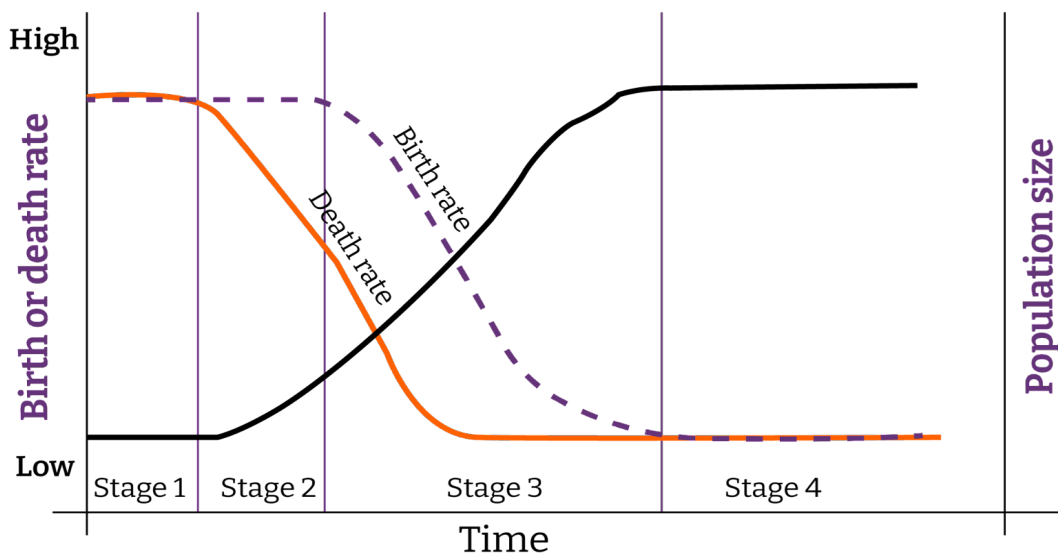
Stages	Description	Type of Population	Type of Nation	Life Expectancy
Stage 1	Very high birth, death, and infant mortality rates	Stable Population	Pre-industrial society	Short life expectancy
Stage 2	Higher birth rates. Decreased infant mortality and death rates	Population Pyramid	Developing nation	Increasing life expectancy
Stage 3	Declining birth rates	Relatively Even Population	Newly developed nation	Increasing life expectancy
Stage 4	Low birth rates	Even Population	Established, developed nation	High life expectancy
Additional Stage (Stage 5)	Two choices emerged from **futurist research** (the area where specialists make plausible predictions on what the future may look like): 1. Developed nations turn away from population decline (J-curve concept). 2. Continued population decline in stage four, leading to severe loss, possibly followed by fertility rebound.			

DTM cannot account for every country or potential scenario. It has its flaws and limitations, much like other theories. These four stages have been seen throughout history in many countries, although not every country can relate. For instance, the **United States reversed the order of progression** by first seeing a decline in birth rates and then a decline in mortality rates, with around 100 years separating the two.

The next theory we will discuss is the **Malthusian theory** by **Thomas Malthus**. Malthus was an English clergyman who made dire predictions about the earth's ability to sustain its growing population. The Malthusian theory has **two principles**:

- The human population **increases geometrically or exponentially** (1, 2, 4, 8, 16... 128, 256...) with each generation.

- The amount of **food available will only increase arithmetically** (1, 2, 3, 4, 5...) or by a fixed amount with each generation.

Simply put, the population will eventually exceed the capacity for food production. Malthus predicted extensive global starvation due to uncontrolled population growth. Moreover, the Malthusian theory suggested **three factors**—war, famine, and disease—that would control the human population and prevent it from exceeding the earth's carrying capacity. **Carrying capacity** is defined as the number of people living in a given area, considering the available resources. Malthus believed that as the

population continued to increase, food would become scarce, people would die from famine and diseases, and there would also be wars. This would lead to a reduction in the population, and then the cycle would start again.

Sociologists have identified **three reasons** why we keep expanding our population.

- **Technology** has increased the amount and quality of food production.

- Human ingenuity continues to develop **new medicines** that help curtail deaths that may occur from diseases.

- The development and availability of various **contraceptives** have contributed to a reduction in the rate of population growth.

Paul Ehrlich brought Malthus's predictions into the 20th century. He suggested aiming for **zero-population growth**, in which the number of people entering a population through birth or immigration equals the number of people leaving it via death or emigration. According to Ehrlich, the environment was the crucial player in the continued health of the planet, not strictly the food supply. Ehrlich believed that increasing populations would eventually lead to environmental collapse.

The last theory is called the **cornucopian theory,** which suggests that all types of human ingenuity and integrity will resolve all environmental and social issues that may occur.

D. Rural-to-Urban Migration

Migration is the physical movement of people from one place to another. **Rural** refers to an area that is not heavily populated, while **urban** refers to an area that has a denser population and is more developed. During the 1700s and 1800s, many people relocated from rural to urban locations in Europe and the United States in search of **employment**, **better economic possibilities**, **family ties**, **or personal freedom**. Additionally, some were fleeing oppression, famine, poverty, or conflict.

One of the factors that drove migration was the **Industrial Revolution**, a period marked by the technological, economic, and social transformation that started in England in the 1780s. Many people were given a chance to work in factories or as coal miners, occupations that provided a more secure way of life than farming. Whole families left their rural homes to relocate to cities and work in emerging, thriving industries. Likewise, workers from all over Europe immigrated to England during the Industrial Revolution to search for jobs and better economic opportunities. **Immigration** is the term used to describe the movement of a person or group into a foreign nation or area.

Urbanization of Rural Areas

Although many moved to urban areas, some people urbanized rural areas instead. **Urbanization** is the process of transforming a place into a more urban setting. The process occurs when sizable populations permanently congregate in comparatively small places to build cities. **Urban sociology** studies the complex interplay of social, economic, and cultural relationships and dynamics within urban areas,

providing insights into how these factors shape urban life and society. In some instances, cities may be considered microcosms of human beings. The main causes of urbanization are as follows:

- **Natural population growth** over time

- **Rural-to-urban migration** due to labor demand or opportunity

- **Urban boundary expansion**: This happens when the present settlement cannot accommodate the rising number of residents or industries.

Challenges of Urbanization

Although urbanization has its benefits, it also poses some **challenges**, such as:

- **Decreased rural population**, which may result in reduced agricultural production.

- **Overpopulation** due to rapid expansion or the rapid influx of too many immigrants.

- **Increased waste and pollution**, as well as lower sanitation standards from too many inhabitants.

Aside from these, other **problems arising from the rapid population growth rate in cities** include:

- **Lack of housing**: As more people transferred into urban areas, the number of available housing units decreased, which resulted in the proliferation of:

  - **Slums**: areas with multifamily tenements that are too small in size and function.

  - **Shantytowns**: illegal settlements in cities that are formed when people build their houses or shacks in unoccupied lands.

  - **Homelessness**: an extreme result of inadequate housing.

- **Insufficient sewage systems**: Systems become overloaded as they were not built to accommodate the current population, leading to water pollution and, consequently, water-borne diseases.

- **More cars** eventually lead to traffic congestion and decreased air quality, leading to increased health risks for the public.

One way to address these problems is through **compact development**, a method focused on building in a small, concentrated area. Although we frequently associate "compact" with being crowded, and possibly in a bad way, this development method takes advantage of the benefits of bringing things closer together. The main priorities of compact development are **utilizing existing structures and preserving open space**. Existing buildings can be renovated to make housing more affordable. Additionally, more public transportation options are incorporated into compact development, which can reduce reliance on cars and, consequently, air pollution.

Table 75 - 19: Types of urban settlements

Urban settlements are formed for various reasons. The major types of urban settlements include:

Type	Description
Metropolitan Area	Consists of a central city with neighboring towns or counties that are economically and socially connected. Example: New York City and its nearby Connecticut and New Jersey areas.
Inner City	Refers to the central core of major cities like New York City or San Francisco, excluding surrounding counties or towns. Typically, they have populations of 2,500 to 50,000 residents, serving as economic and social hubs.
Suburbs	Residential areas surrounding inner cities. Constitute nearly 60% of metropolitan life. While some view suburbs as independent, they often integrate shared city and suburban factors, impacting suburban life.
Exurbs	Communities outside the suburbs are populated by wealthier families seeking more space and willing to endure longer commutes.
Megalopolis	A substantial urban corridor encompassing multiple cities and suburbs, it originated in New York and represents urban sprawl.

Urbanization within the United States

Urbanization was rapid during the Industrial Era. A multitude of people from rural areas, including those suffering from economic disadvantages, relocated to urban areas in pursuit of work opportunities in the newly emerging factories and industries. They primarily consisted of low-income and working-class individuals striving to secure employment in rapidly industrializing urban landscapes.

Socio-economic challenges are also prevalent in suburban areas. Throughout the 20th century, '**white flight**' in the United States signified the movement of **financially stable white individuals** from ethnically diverse urban regions to suburban locales. Contemporary trends reveal middle-class African American families mirroring the white flight pattern by relocating from cities to suburbs, while affluent white populations are increasingly returning to cities with a historical Black majority. Consequently, the dynamics involving race, socio-economics, neighborhoods, and communities remain intricate.

Growth of Cities

Sociologist **Gideon Sjoberg** believed that there were **three prerequisites** for the development of cities.

- **Good environments** with fresh water and a favorable climate.

- **Advanced technology** to produce a larger food surplus to support those who are not farmers.

- **Strong social organization** to ensure social stability and create a stable economy.

Earlier cities were considered small. For instance, the largest city in 200 CE was **Rome**, with only about 1,200,000 inhabitants, but the city's metropolitan area had about 4.3 million residents in 2016. As countries transitioned from rural areas to cities, this led to a significant shift in social organizations. Thus, researchers like **Ferdinand Tönnies** and **Ernest W. Burgess** proposed different classifications to understand this shift further.

Table 76 - 19: Classification of social organizational shifts in urban growth

Concept	Classified by	Description
Gemeinschaft (intimate community)	Ferdinand Tönnies	• In Gemeinschaft, social relationships are characterized by strong bonds of community and tradition. • People in Gemeinschaft have direct, face-to-face interactions with one another, and their relationships are guided by what Tönnies referred to as *"Wesenwille"* **or natural will**. This means that emotions, sentiments, and traditional values play a significant role in regulating social interactions. • Gemeinschaft societies often have a strong sense of shared cultural heritage, close-knit families, and a focus on collective well-being.
Gesellschaft (society)	Ferdinand Tönnies	• Gesellschaft represents modern urban societies where social relationships are more impersonal, formal, and contractual. • Personal relationships are influenced by *"Kürwille"* or **rational will**, which means that individuals act based on calculated self-interest and efficiency rather than traditional norms and emotions. • This type of society is characterized by large-scale government bureaucracies, industrial organizations, and a focus on economic and political considerations. • In Gesellschaft, traditional bonds such as family, kinship, and religion are **weakened** in favor of rational, contractual relationships.
Gentrification	Ernest W. Burgess	This involves the displacement of lower-income residents by an influx of higher-income residents. As a result, the poor urban lower class is often forced by price pressures to leave those neighborhoods for increasingly decaying portions of the city.
Concentric Zone Model	Ernest W. Burgess	A model explaining the relationship between place of residence and income.

The **Concentric Zone Model** by **Burgess** is one of the most famous models in **human ecology**—a field of study that looks at the relationship between people and their built and natural physical environments.

This model divides cities into concentric circles and suggests the existence of a relationship between place of residence and income. For instance, the farther away you live from Zone 1, the more money you make, and as a result, the better house type you can afford.
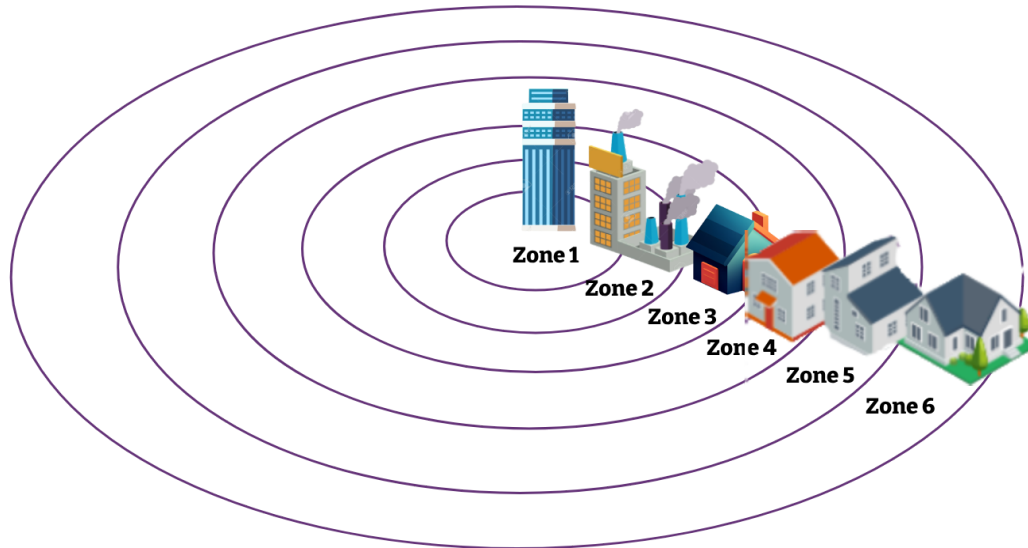
The different zones in the **Concentric Zone Model**:

- **Zone 1** The Central Business District (CBD), commonly known as the "loop" in Chicago, is the primary urban area where most tertiary employment opportunities are concentrated. It serves as the epicenter of urban transportation infrastructure, ensuring its high accessibility.

- **Zone 2** This zone lies directly adjacent to the CBD and is preferred for various industrial activities due to its proximity to labor pools and markets. It also hosts essential transportation terminals such as ports and railyards.

- **Zone 3** is a transitional area gradually shifting away from manufacturing and industrial activities. It typically houses the economically disadvantaged segment of the urban population, notably first-generation immigrants residing in affordable housing.

- **Zone 4** This residential zone primarily accommodates the working-class population and individuals who have relocated from Zone III, often representing second-generation immigrants. Its strategic location near the major employment zones (I and II) makes it an economically viable choice for the working class.

- **Zone 5** is characterized by higher-quality housing options but is associated with longer commuting distances and associated costs.

- **Zone 6** This zone predominantly comprises upscale, expensive housing in suburban or rural settings, incurring the highest commuting expenses.

Other variations of this model consist of five zones and letters (Zone A instead of Zone 1).

E. Population Change from Aging, Death & Migration

As discussed in the previous sections, population change is driven by various factors. Let's explore the effects of fertility, mortality rate, and migration on population change.

Fertility

Fertility is the number of offspring an average woman bears in her reproductive years and is related to social behavior and individual choices. Other factors that affect fertility include nutrition, culture, endocrinology, sexual behavior, economics, lifestyle, and emotions. A common indicator used for fertility is the **crude birth rate,** which is the number of **live births in a given year for every 1,000 people in a population**. It is calculated by dividing the number of live births per year by the total population and multiplying the quotient by 1,000. The term "crude" refers to the fact that comparing such rates can be deceptive because it ignores women ready to have children and does not consider different rates among racial, ethnic, and religious groups. However, it is simple to calculate and indicates the overall fertility of a society.

The **fertility rate** is the number of **live births per 1,000 females** within a given time. Generally, women between the ages of **15 and 44** are considered to be childbearing when calculating the fertility rate.

Meanwhile, **fecundity** refers to the physical capability and capacity for childbearing. Between early adolescence and roughly mid-forties, the human female is typically fertile. However, the human male typically maintains his fertility throughout adulthood, though sperm quantity and quality start to decline from middle age onward.

Fertility vs. Fecundity

The terms fertility and fecundity are often interchanged, yet their meanings differ. They both pertain to reproductive capability and offer a statistical assessment of the reproductive potential of a population or entity. The table below shows the differences between them.

Table 77 - 19: Differences between fertility and fecundity

Fertility	Fecundity
Actual offspring output	Potential offspring output
An organism's *potential* to reproduce	An organism's *ability* to reproduce
Measured by fertility rate, which is the *number of children* produced per woman in a population	Measured by fecundity rate, which involves measuring the *number of gametes* an organism has
Depends on factors such as culture and behavior	Depends on factors such as genetics and age

Another important concept is the **replacement level**, which pertains to the **fertility level needed to replace the parent couple in a population**. By definition, "replacement" only qualifies as having happened when the child turns 15. The replacement level is approximately 2 in the U.S. and other industrialized nations.

Mortality Rate

The **mortality rate** is also called the **death rate**, which indicates the number of deaths in the population. Usually, the mortality rate is measured in deaths per **1,000 people per year**. For example, a mortality rate of 9.5 in a population of 1,000 would indicate 9.5 deaths annually in that population or **0.95%** of the total. This rate can rise due to **war, epidemics, and childhood diseases**. However, antibiotics and medical breakthroughs have led to decreased mortality rates. Also, the **infant mortality rate**, another important indicator, estimates the number of deaths *among infants under age 1* for every 1,000 live births per year.

Migration

Migration describes the human movement from one place to another. Migration can be involuntary, voluntary, or forced.

Table 78 - 19: Definitions and examples of migration-related terms

	Classification*	Definition	Example
Migrant Defined by the United Nations as someone who has lived abroad for more than a year.	Immigrant	People who move *into* a territory.	The influx of Cubans into the United States after the 1959 Cuban Revolution.
	Emigrant	People who move *out* of a territory.	Louisiana residents are relocating to other places following Hurricane Katrina's devastation.

*Short-term travelers such as tourists or business persons are **not** classified as migrants, immigrants, or emigrants.

Predicting Population Change

Using the following formula, fertility, mortality, and migration can be used to predict how a population may change:

*(Births - Deaths) +/- ((In-Migration) - (Out-Migration)) = **Population Change***

[natural increase]   ***+/-***   *[net migration]*

The first part of the formula ***(births - deaths)*** is called the **natural increase**, which includes all births minus all deaths in a given population over a given period of time. However, it excludes the consequences of migration. The remaining component of the equation, ***((in-migration) - (out-migration))***, is referred to as **net migration** and includes all in-migration minus all out-migration within a given population over a specified period. Thus, the net migration rate is the difference between immigrants and emigrants in a region divided by the number of people living there.

Therefore, a **positive net migration** value indicates that more people are entering the country than leaving it, whereas a **negative net migration** value indicates the opposite. Although the main demographic equation is, by definition, true, it is important to remember that errors can occur when recording and counting events (such as births, deaths, and migration) and calculating the total population size. Hence, we must allow some margin of error in statistics when estimating population change or size.

F. Environment and Society

Environmental sociology is the study of the way humans interact with their environments. It is important to remember that human ecology and environmental sociology are closely related but differ in scope and the nature of their examination. **Environmental sociology** is concerned with the broader societal and institutional influences on the environmental interactions within a society, encompassing how the **society collectively affects the environment**, how environmental issues influence the society, and how social institutions shape the environment. This perspective takes a large-scale view, considering entire societies and the environment as a whole.
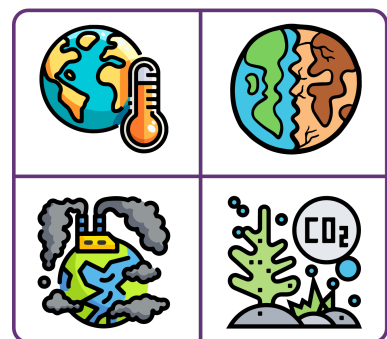
On the other hand, **human ecology** delves into how local **communities interact** directly with their immediate surroundings, operating as integral components of a local ecosystem and focusing on interactions at a more localized level. Both fields tackle how **environmental issues** also negatively affect society. Find out how global warming, pollution, habitat loss, environmental pollution, and other environmental issues arise.

Global Warming

Global warming is the **increase in the average temperature** of the atmosphere and oceans since the late 19th century. Oil, coal, and natural gas combustion are believed to be the main contributors to global warming. These types of fuels are used to power machinery, heat homes, motorized vehicles, and aircraft engines and contribute to various industrial processes. Each of these applications results in the creation of carbon dioxide (CO_2). There is general agreement that this gas is dangerous, even though it does not directly harm people or wildlife at the concentrations found in the air.

According to the **World Wildlife Organization**, polar ice caps and mountain glaciers are melting rapidly due to global warming, which will eventually cause sea levels to rise. Large tracts of priceless agricultural land in coastal areas could be lost as a result, and loss of land can sometimes affect our personal lives.

Pollution

Pollution is the **release of hazardous compounds** into the environment. Most of the time, dangerous substances come from industry and transportation methods like cars, which discharge waste materials that are bad for people, animals, and plants. Urban areas tend to have higher concentrations of pollution, which can potentially cause respiratory issues in humans. They also go through atmospheric reactions resulting in acid rain, which can acidify soil and water, harming plants, aquatic life, stone structures, and monuments.

Wastewater from industrial processes, agricultural practices, and mining can also directly affect water sanitation and the availability of drinking water. Some contaminants might end up in the ocean and build up in the food chain. On a smaller scale, hazardous substances from closed industrial facilities and waste disposal sites can contaminate soil for a very long time, which can have detrimental effects on the agricultural industry and plant life.

Habitat Loss

Habitat loss happens when an **animal population loses its habitat** because of human activity, such as deforestation. **Deforestation** happens when humans remove sections of land for infrastructure development. It can also occur through irresponsible logging practices in forested regions. When extensive areas of forest are completely cleared, it triggers a series of events that render the land almost unsuitable for habitation.

Habitat loss has significant implications for both wildlife and humans. Some of these include **endangering species** and altering the **lives of people living near these areas**. For instance, in regions like the Amazon rainforest, extensive sections of the forest have been cleared to make way for

agricultural purposes. Initially, the land was used to plant crops, which led to soil erosion. Consequently, the land was transformed for livestock farming, and more trees were cut down to make room for new farms. These threatened the habitat of many species, including the indigenous people that live there.

Moreover, many other tropical rainforest regions are experiencing similar environmental problems. Because of the enormous variety of plant life these rainforests support, there is concern that some **plants with potential medical uses may be lost** before they are discovered. This limits potential breakthroughs in medicine and affects the availability of resources for human communities.

Additionally, the removal of trees **exacerbates environmental issues**. Land becomes more prone to erosion when trees are removed. Heavy rains, which the forest canopy would have mitigated, can wash away soil, leading to reduced agricultural productivity and increased risks of landslides. Exposure to strong sunlight can cause the soil to dry out, making it vulnerable to wind erosion, further impacting agricultural practices, and potentially causing dust storms.

Environmental Racism

Environmental racism refers to how minority group neighborhoods are **burdened** with extreme hazards, including **toxic waste facilities, garbage dumps, and other sources of environmental pollution and foul odors** that lower the quality of life. Why, exactly, does environmental racism exist? The answer is simple. Individuals with power, resources, money, etc., can help raise awareness and ensure that their communities are unsullied.

Chapter 19: Review Questions

1. **What is the correct definition of demography?**

   A. The study of the size, density, and abundance of the human population.
   B. The study of the distribution of the human population.
   C. The study of the size, density, and distribution of the human population.
   D. The study of the size of the human population.
   E. The study of individual genetic characteristics within a population.

2. **Which of the following statements is NOT correct?**

   A. The average fertility rate in the world is close to 3 children per woman; however, the fecundity rate is estimated to be around 20 children per woman.
   B. Europe has the lowest fertility rate in the world, with about 1.5 births per woman.
   C. In the United States, the fertility rate is 2 births per woman.
   D. Fecundity is the potential output of reproduction, while fertility is the actual output.
   E. Fertility is the potential output of reproduction, while fecundity is the actual output.

3. **Why did Malthus believe there would not be enough food for humanity?**

   A. Because the human population grows at a statistical rate, whereas food production grows at a linear rate.
   B. Because the human population grows at a linear rate, whereas food production grows at a statistical rate.
   C. Because humans will suffer from several world wars that would lead to famine.
   D. Because human populations grow at an arithmetic rate, whereas food production grows at a geometric rate.
   E. Because human populations grow at a geometric rate, whereas food production grows at an arithmetic rate.

4. **Demographic transition describes the shift from:**

   A. High birth and death rates to low birth and death rates.
   B. High birth and low death rates to high birth and low death rates.
   C. Low birth and low death rates to low birth and high death rates.
   D. Low birth and death rates to high birth and death rates.
   E. Constant birth and death rates with no change over time.

5. **How does urbanization affect the environment?**

   A. Suburbs increase the amount of pollution.
   B. Cities increase the amount of pollution.
   C. Cities decrease the amount of pollution.
   D. Urbanization doesn't affect the environment.
   E. Urbanization leads to a significant reduction in energy consumption and resource depletion.

6. Individuals living in a _____ community feel a close sense of belonging and would likely grow crops together or work together on building projects.

   A. Gentrified
   B. Gesellschaft
   C. Socialist
   D. Zone 1
   E. Gemeinschaft

7. Which Zone in the concentric zone model would offer the most employment opportunities?

   A. Zone 1
   B. Zone 2
   C. Zone 3
   D. Zone 4
   E. Zone 5

8. What do we call an outlying district of a city?

   A. Suburban sprawl
   B. Suburb
   C. Peripheral model
   D. Urban sprawl
   E. Metropolis

9. When does global warming occur?

   A. When the surface of the Earth warms.
   B. When climate patterns are not the same from year to year.
   C. When one area of the Earth experiences record high temperatures.
   D. When the average temperature of the lower atmosphere increases.
   E. When the Earth moves closer to the sun during its orbit.

10. Environmental racism refers to:

   A. The mining away of the planet's limited resources.
   B. The hunting of animals without a concern for their rights, feelings, or needs.
   C. A heavy burden placed on minority or low-income communities with respect to environmental hazards.
   D. The pollution of the planet.
   E. The equitable distribution of environmental benefits and risks among all communities.

Chapter 20: Social Movements and Change

Overview

In this chapter, we will explore the concept of collective behavior and its different forms, such as crowd behavior, rumors, and fads. We will also examine the characteristics and stages of social movements, as well as the types of social movements. Theoretical perspectives on social movements will be discussed, including the deprivation theory and resource mobilization theory. We will also analyze the causes of social change, such as technology, population, and globalization. Finally, we will delve into the potential negative consequences of social change, such as wealth inequality and worker exploitation.

Learning Objectives

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Identify and describe the various forms of collective behavior, such as crowd behavior, rumors, and fads.
- Understand the characteristics and stages of social movements and distinguish between the different types of social movements.
- Explore different theoretical perspectives on social movements, including deprivation theory and resource mobilization theory.
- Examine the causes of social change, such as technology, population, and globalization.
- Analyze the potential negative consequences of social change, including wealth inequality and worker exploitation.

A. Crowd Behavior

A **crowd** is a gathering of people with a common objective. The behaviors or conduct of a group of individuals who briefly assemble to concentrate on a single event is called **crowd behavior**. An example is a group of more than 100 people marching in unison to support animal rights. According to psychologists, the ability to think clearly and express oneself uniquely tends to be lost among group members. This happens due to the **collective behavior** of crowds, which is characterized by spontaneous, unstructured actions. Several theories explain crowd behavior.

Types of Crowds

There are five types of crowds: casual, conventional, expressive, acting, and rioting. **Casual crowds** are people who are in the same place at the same time but are not exactly interacting with one another. A casual crowd is usually loosely organized, like a grocery store or the post office line.

In a **conventional crowd**, there is less interaction and more deliberate planning and preparation of the activities and events. The interactions are more structured, and everyone follows the rules. **Expressive crowds** are people who join together to express emotions. Some examples of expressive crowds include

weddings and funerals. Meanwhile, **acting crowds** focus on specific goals or actions, such as protests or movements.

Lastly, a **rioting crowd** is defined as a sizable collective group acting violently as a result of deeply held emotions. Even though rioting crowds are typically upset for the same reasons, their action is not specifically directed at any one target, and a riot is less cohesive than a mob. **Mobs** typically have leaders who urge the group to take a particular action or to attack a particular target. In contrast, a **riot** is when a large group of people loot a city and steal, burn, and destroy anything they can without having a clear aim.

Emergent Norm Theory

Sociologists **R.H. Turner** and **L. M. Killian** proposed the **emergent norm theory**. They contend that crowd behavior results from social interactions and is governed by particular social norms formed by individuals in a crowd. Additionally, social norms can shift in a crowd, and new norms could be developed. People may act in ways they ordinarily wouldn't due to the introduction of new societal norms. Although the emergent norm theory is frequently linked to crises, it can be useful in other social contexts.

An illustration of this theory is when a crowd, newly formed in the inner city after a hurricane destroyed the outer city, works together to search for survivors. However, this theory has been criticized because some sociologists contend that new norms do not emerge; people bring their existing norms with them. Others also argue that new norms do not emerge just because of crowd behavior, but for all types of social behavior.

There are four forms of behavior that dictate this theory:

- **Crowd**: People become less reasonable and more likely to act in an **animalistic manner**. For instance, at a rally or protest, a group of individuals acts violently and begins to assault police officers.

- **Public**: People who unite to discuss a single issue but disperse once a decision has been taken. For example, a group of people assembles at a city council meeting to discuss how the money will be allocated for the academic year. The group splits up once a decision has been made.

- **Mass movements**: Mass media produced by groups aiming to influence other people. An example of this is a social media page established to spread the word about the risks associated with drunk driving.

- **Social movements**: Initiatives to alter a certain aspect of society. For instance, a group of people starts a campaign seeking sexual equality.

Contagion Theory

Behavioral contagion is people's tendency to mirror others' activities. People frequently copy others' actions without even realizing they are doing it, such as when employees mimic their boss's mood during

a meeting. The "**contagion theory**" was developed by Gustave Le Bon, Robert Park, and Herbert Blumer. It states that attitudes and actions spread from one person to the other in a crowd and that people act irresponsibly or in a certain manner under the hypnotic influence of a crowd.

Types of Behavioral Contagion

Moreover, some sociologists say that not all behaviors have a similar likelihood of spreading, so there are simple and complex behavioral contagions.

- **Simple behavioral contagion**: Following a single exposure to a behavior, a person **imitates** it. For instance, a traveler is lining up in the airport security line. As they walk up to the metal detector, they see the person in front of them take off their shoes, so they also take off their shoes as they go up to the metal detector.

- **Complex behavioral contagion**: When a person witnesses a behavior repeatedly, they begin to copy it. For example, a person who begins to wear a face mask after witnessing others do so for several weeks.

Factors that Influence Behavioral Contagion

Many variables affect behavioral contagion, including:

- **Reduced restraint**: If society deems conduct bad, a person is less likely to embrace it.

- **Crowded environment**: Being around a lot of individuals who are engaging in the same behavior makes a person more likely to start following them.

- **Role models**: If a person sees someone they look up to engaging in a behavior, they are more inclined to copy it themselves.

- **Extroversion**: Extroverted persons are more likely than introverts to imitate other people's behaviors.

- **Group identity**: If a person identifies with the group of individuals around them, they are more inclined to adopt that behavior.

Different criticisms have arisen regarding the contagion theory. One main criticism is that it fails to consider the individual's influence, making it appear irrational. While the theory perceives crowd behavior as irrational, some sociologists argue that it stems from a rational fear, such as being in a threatening situation like a burning building. Others argue that the theory lacks theoretical support and is solely based on empirical data. Furthermore, there is a dispute about whether the contagion theory results from conscious or unconscious behavior.

Convergence Theory

Unlike the contagion theory, the **convergence theory** argues that groups of people who want to behave in a certain manner unite to form crowds. That is, people who share **common goals** frequently band

together to accomplish those goals together. Instead of the crowd exerting **hypnotic influence** on the members of the crowd, the members are influencing the crowd. For example, a person at an anti-war demonstration would firmly believe they are opposed to war and participate in a noble cause by attending the rally.

Nonetheless, convergence theory is usually criticized for the possibility that people may feel pressured to "act out" or do something in a crowd that they would never consider doing alone on their own. In other words, a person may "show off" to impress their loved ones, friends, or even onlookers. This is because people may try to "fit in" with the crowd and feel more anonymous, which allows them to rationalize their unusual conduct.

Value-Added Theory

Developed by American sociologist Neil Smelser, this particular theory is a perspective within the **functionalist tradition**. It was based on the idea that several conditions must be put into place for the behavior to happen. Let's look at each stage as they follow from one to the next in the section below.

- **Stage 1 - Structural Conduciveness**
  - o This is where people become aware of the issues that are before them and have the opportunity to get together in an open area.

- **Stage 2 - Structural Strain**
  - o This is when people have expectations about the situation at hand, and these expectations are not being met. These circumstances make it easier for groups to develop social movements.

- **Stage 3 - Growth and Spread of a Generalized Belief**
  - o Once the conditions of the first two stages are met, people must agree on general beliefs to form a unity that helps them create a strong social movement. In this stage, the problem is identified clearly and discussed.

- **Stage 4 - Precipitating Factors**
  - o Smelser viewed the fourth stage as one of the most prominent. During this stage, dramatic events spark momentum and drive the social movement.

- **Stage 5 - Mobilization for Action**
  - o After crowds witness the dramatic events within the stage of precipitating factors, leaders will emerge and direct their crowds toward taking action aligned with the movement.

- **Stage 6 - Social Control**
  - o This is the stage where the government usually deploys police or armed forces to regain social control. If the government fails to regain social control, the social movement may develop further. Alternatively, the social movement and collective behavior may end if the government can regain social control.

Assembling Perspective

According to interactionist sociologist Clark McPhail's assembling perspective, individuals in crowds are rational beings.

This particular perspective is another system for understanding collective behavior that credits individuals in crowds as rational beings. **Clark McPhail** was an interactionist sociologist and developed an assembling perspective. He identified several types of **convergent or collective behavior**.

Table 79 - 20: Types of crowd

Type of Crowd	Description	Example
Convergence Clusters	This is where friends and family may travel together	A parent drives a carpool for children attending the same school
Convergent Orientation	A group that all faces the same direction	A half-circle around a stage
Collective Vocalization	A sound or noise that is made collectively	Children and adults who scream on a roller coaster
Collective Verbalization	Participating as a group singing a song or giving a speech	Students who are standing to say the Pledge of Allegiance in their classroom
Collective Gesticulation	A human's body parts create a symbol	A group of people participating in the YMCA dance
Collective Manipulation	Objects that move around together	People holding signs at a rally
Collective Locomotion	A direction that people go and the rate of the movement heading to the event	Children who are running to the ice cream truck in their neighborhood

B. Forms of Collective Behavior

Collective behavior is a non-organized activity in which several people voluntarily engage. **Flash mobs** are a perfect example of collective behavior. Another example would be a group of people, such as commuters, traveling home from work.

Types of Mass Behavior

Unlike crowds, a **mass** is a relatively large number of people with a common interest, though they may not be near. The public is an unorganized, relatively diffused group of people who share ideas such as political parties. Hence, **mass behavior**, a type of social behavior, is the collective action of a group of individuals physically separated from one another. Like crowd behavior, which has five types, there are also five types of *mass* behavior: **mass hysteria**, rumors, gossip, fads, and fashion.

Mass Hysteria

This is also sometimes called **collective hysteria**, **epidemic hysteria**, or **mass psychogenic illness**. It is a condition in which various people experience the same **hysterical symptoms**. Nowadays, hysteria is recognized as a psychological disorder with symptoms of illnesses without an underlying cause. Although it is also often compared to **moral panic**, they are different.

Table 80 - 20: Differences between mass hysteria and moral panic

Mass Hysteria	Moral Panic
Group of close-knit persons exhibiting **hysterical symptoms**	**Extreme response of the public** to a problem or a group of people that is thought to cause harm to society or hurt its current culture of harmony
A phenomenon in which a breakout of an abnormal illness with unknown causes occurs	Induced fear (primarily by the media) among a large portion of the population who believe that societal norms are in danger
Example: The Salem Witch Trials.	Example: Mods and Rockers Subcultures 1960s

Moreover, mass hysteria is also often considered an extreme case of **groupthink** in which the most convincing member of a group suppresses individual opinions in favor of a group viewpoint on a particular issue. Meanwhile, **mass psychosis** happens when a sizable group demonstrates typical signs of mental illness. Lastly, **epidemic hysteria** is a condition wherein otherwise healthy people exhibit hysteric symptoms in response to culture-related stress.

Rumors

Rumors are unsubstantiated information about a topic that is informally circulated. It is often a piece of information or a tale that has not been independently confirmed; thus, the person spreading it is unaware of its veracity. Meanwhile, **slander** is an *orally* expressed untrue, defamatory statement, while **libel** is an untrue, defamatory statement made in *written* form (e.g., by text, Facebook, Twitter, email, etc.).

Gossip

Generally, gossip is a private communication between two people about a third party who is not there. Even if the veracity of the material they discuss may not have been proven, it is portrayed as reality. People often talk about someone they know personally when they gossip, not about famous people or historical figures. The speaker frequently conveys **moral superiority** through their body language and tone. Lastly, people tend to think more highly of themselves than the target of gossip.

Fads

Fads are a type of collective behavior that occurs when many individuals eagerly adopt a particular activity or object for a brief period. Fads include dance styles, slang, musical preferences, and hula hoop. It must be noted, however, that **trends** and fads are different from each other mainly because fads are more short-term. For example, beanie babies of the mid-1990s were a fad product, but they also immediately faded out of public focus after a brief period of popularity. On the other hand, cell phones started as a fad, but they became a growing trend that still exists today.

Fashion

The word "fashion" is frequently used to refer to a particular clothing style. A fashion typically lasts one to three years before being superseded by another trend. In any period, fashion reflects the times and what is happening socially and economically. For instance, after the **United States Constitution's Nineteenth Amendment** granted women the right to vote in 1919, in addition to the nation experiencing economic prosperity in the wake of World War I, it paved the way for the sense of **emancipation** Americans felt. Fashion reflected this in women's attire as it deviated from the Victorian trend of long dresses by wearing clothes that exposed their arms and legs.

C. Social Movements

Social movements are determined, structured groups that work hard to achieve a common social goal. Before we dig deeper, let us first see the main characteristics of social movements and see how they differ or connect to social protests.

Main Characteristics of Social Movements

- **Collective action**: When people band together to take action, such as refusing to buy products or services from a company they disagree with or supporting candidates they believe will enact legislation more in line with their group's interests.

- **Disruptive protest**: When people utilize provocative acts or other outlandish protest strategies, such as obstructing traffic, they engage in disruptive protest.

- **Shared consciousness**: Notion that everyone, or at least a significant section of the populace, may be aware of what is occurring and what needs to be done.

Researcher Douglass McAdam has highlighted three other key characteristics of social movements, and they are as follows:

- **Reactive**: A social movement reacts to a crisis or other outside event.

- **Protective**: When a social movement aims to bring about change because it addresses an enduring societal wrong.

- **Constructive**: When a social movement aims to improve on the status quo while enacting reforms that are advantageous to all members of society.

Social Protests

Social protests are **public expressions of discontent** characterized as demonstrations and open meetings intended to raise attention to **social injustice**. Social movements and protests are connected because they unite people to spark change, and both aim to prevent the same injustice from happening to future generations. Many planned and ongoing social actions, such as **protests**, **strikes**, **boycotts**, and other types of activism, characterize some social movements. These demonstrations may be responses to political, social, or military issues. There are three types of social protests:

- **Peaceful protests**: People engaging in a public display expressing their grievances, avoiding all violence or threats of violence, including symbolic protests, civil disobedience, and economic or political noncooperation.

- **Violent protests**: A protest involving violence bringing about a clear and present danger of, or shall result in, damage or injury to the property of any other person or the person of any other individual.

- **Social revolutions**: A form of protest that happens when society undergoes a significant shift, such as overthrowing an oppressive regime.

Levels of Social Movement

Local

Cities like Chicago, Illinois, tend to go through ups and downs. There has been a history of corrupt government officials and failing schools. There have been several movements in Chicago to focus on change. In 2011, AREA was created as a social movement focused on "building a socially just city." This organization worked on creating relationships in the community using art, research, education, and activism.

State

Let's move to Texas, where the Texas Secede movement occurred. This organization is known for promoting the idea that the State of Texas could secede from the United States and become an independent state/republic. In 2014, the organization had approximately 5,000 likes on its social media page (Facebook). This movement tried to motivate Texans to return to their roots and stand up for their rights and for the government to return state property.

National

One of the most well-known campaigns is **The Human Rights Campaign**. This particular organization focused on the rights of the **LGBTIQA+ community** (lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, intersex, queer/questioning, and asexual community). This organization has been around for over 30 years and

has at least 1 million members, if not more. The organization uses celebrities such as actors and athletes to help engage community members to help with the cause. This organization has raised awareness for over 1,100 different rights, benefits, and protections based on marital status.

Global

Nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) are organizations that are working globally for numerous **humanitarian** and environmental causes. Some examples of NGOs are:

- International Federation of Organic Agriculture Movement (FOAM)
- Oxford Committee for Famine Relief (OXFAM)
- Fair Trade Movement

D. Types of Social Movement

Sociologist David Aberle described different types of movements.

- **Reform Movements**
  - Movements that aim to alter a certain aspect of social structure
- **Revolutionary Movements**
  - Movements that aim to modify every aspect of society
- **Religious/Redemptive Movements**
  - Movements that work to encourage personal change or spiritual development in people
- **Alternative Movements**
  - Social movements that limit themselves to self-improvement change in individuals
- **Resistance Movements**
  - Those who seek to prevent or undo a change to the social structure

E. Stages of Social Movement

Social movements go through a progressive life cycle marked by four stages: emergence, coalescence, bureaucratization, and decline. Let's look at the table below to understand these stages better.

Emergence to Decline

Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4
Preliminary/ Emergence Stage	**Coalescence Stage**	**Institutionalization/ Bureaucratization Stage**	**Decline Stage**
- Individuals become aware of the issue. - Leaders are formed.	People join together.	No more need for grassroots volunteerism.	Some reasons include: goals have been achieved; conflicts within the

	• Organize & prepare to make the issue public. • Begin to raise awareness.	• Movement is now an established organization.	movement; popular support eroded, or activists have become weary.

Preparation to Mobilization

1. **Preparation stage**
2. **Protest stage**
3. **Organization stage**
4. **Mobilization**

Preparation stage: People consider the injustices that already exist and potential solutions.

Protest stage: Actively resisting injustice through a protest, and frequently includes demonstrations.

Organization stage: Prioritizes long-term objectives and methods for achieving them, such as economic boycotts or lobbying for new laws

Mobilization: Stresses mass action through sit-ins, public protests, strikes, and boycotts

F. Theories and Motives of Social Movements

Different sets of theories help explain why particular individuals may launch or join a social movement and how individuals may act within that movement. The first set includes the deprivation theory, mass-society theory, and structural strain theory.

Deprivation Theory

Developed by Robert K. Merton, this theory claims that people are frequently inspired to join social movements when they are denied access to resources or opportunities, such as money or equality. The presence of like-minded people who also believe they are being denied similar resources or rights might heighten the desire to take action when one feels they are unfairly at a disadvantage. This theory explained many social movements, including women's suffrage, same-sex marriage, and civil rights movements. The members of these movements believed they were being denied equality and opportunities, which inspired them to unite and act to alter society.

Mass-Society Theory

Introduced by William Kornhauser in 1959, the term "**mass society**" refers to a society that feels **alienation** and weakened social ties. This theory describes how social movements emerge among those

who feel excluded from society. Despite their desire to improve society, these movements are often anti-democratic and frequently result in oppression. For example, the United States prospered after World War II, but Americans also started fearing communism because the Cold War with the Soviet Union started then. Subsequently, the **anti-communist movement** led to many innocent Americans being accused of being communists.

According to this view, social alienation is what drives people to join movements, regardless of how damaging they may be, because it can make them feel important. A society's availability to its leaders, the ease with which they can persuade their people, and the existence of groups or opportunities for participation are all additional factors.

Structural Strain Theory

Proposed by Robert K. Merton in the 1930s, this theory explains how societal issues can spur social movements. "**Structural strain**" refers to the pressure society can put on its citizens, which makes them angry and inspired to act. People would not feel the need to organize and take action to effect change if there was no structural stress. This theory also explains the **deviation** that can take place inside some movements, demonstrating that failure to achieve success or advancement within a movement can result in criminal behavior. For instance, this theory can also be used to explain the Black Lives Matter movement, as the government's failure to address public concerns about police brutality and racial violence against African American individuals led to the movement's establishment.

G. Theoretical Perspectives Social Movements

While the previous section discusses how social movements form, the following set of theories helps illustrate how social movements succeed, join others, and engage with social and political conflict.

Resource Mobilization Theory

Resource Mobilization Theory explains a movement's success in terms of the ability to acquire resources and mobilize individuals. Resources refer to time and money; the more money and time, the greater the movement.

The Civil Rights Movement is a perfect example of **resource mobilization**. This movement occurred from the mid-1950s through the mid-1960s. This was not the beginning of social movements. Social movements existed far before the civil rights movement came about. The **Woman's Suffrage Movement** that started in the mid-1800s is just one example. Previous movements are considered existing social movement sectors. The **existing social movement sector** is defined as the multiple social movement industries in a society, even if they have widely varying constituents and goals. The Civil Rights Movement was already in full swing before Miss Rosa Parks refused to give up her seat on the bus. Rosa Parks was already a member of the **National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP)**. Her arrest sent society into a frenzy, and there were public outcries. It led to what is now known as the **Montgomery Bus Boycott**.

Framing/Frame Analysis

Frames have been developed over the past few decades. Frames explain how individuals can identify social events and the norms they need to follow in multiple situations. There are three types of frames. Let's take a look.

- **Diagnostic Framing**
    - States the problem in a clear way
    - There are no gray areas
    - Example: The Anti-Gay marriage movement

- **Prognostic Framing**
    - Offers solutions and how the solutions will start

- **Motivational Framing**
    - Considered the "call for action" stage
    - Considered to be action-oriented

Gathering into groups is not always easy, but there is strength in numbers. A statement has a higher impact when multiple people support the cause. Sometimes, several movements with the same goal may link together to form a single group/movement. This is called the **frame alignment process**. There are four aspects of the alignment process.

Bridging

There is a bridge that connects people who are not involved, and other groups together and creates one, larger, stronger movement.

Amplification

An organization may seek to expand the main idea. This is done to have a universal appeal, which in turn will help bring mobilization, so a wider area is covered, and the movement is shared with others.

Extension

Various social movements agree to support and promote one another. Agreements are made even though the different organizations do not have exact goals that are related.

Transformation

There is a revision of the goals of the organization/movement. Once there has been a success, there is an increased risk that it will lose the relevance that it once had.

New Social Movement Theory

New social movement theory is used to explain the **proliferation** of postindustrial and post-modern movements that are difficult to analyze using traditional social movement theories. According to this theory, the new social movements are engaged in political and social conflict, unlike traditional social movements, which are engaged in class conflict. This theory is considered more of a perspective that aims to foster an understanding of the movements and their relation to several aspects: politics, culture, and social change. Sometimes **ecofeminism** is included, which focuses on patriarchal societies and how

it is a source of environmental issues. Look at the example below of a new social movement that has recently occurred.

The Movement to Legalize Marijuana

This has been such a huge debate throughout the years. Today, it is still being debated as millions band together to legalize marijuana. In the 1930s, the Federal Bureau of Narcotics was against public access and the use of marijuana. In 1936, a film named "Reefer Madness" portrayed marijuana as one of the most dangerous drugs around that would cause individuals to engage in dangerous behaviors.

Some studies have shown the therapeutic effects of cannabis and cannabinoids. However, other studies show damage to the brain in both adults and developing minds. More and more social movements are attempting to decriminalize marijuana. As of 2023, thirty-eight states allow for the medical use of marijuana, and twenty-three states allow for its recreational usage.

H. Social Change

There are several causes of social change, but how is social change defined? **Social change** is defined as the change in society created through social movements and external factors like environmental shifts or technological innovations.

Causes of Social Change – Technology

Some believe that technology has made our daily lives a lot easier to deal with. What did people do before having access to the Internet? How did people communicate with one another? How did people get around to where they needed to go? What was done before not having electricity?

Thomas Friedman suggested that technology can be considered a driving force, especially regarding globalization. Friedman believed **globalization occurred in three periods**.

- **First Period**: Globalization was driven by military expansions and powered by horsepower and wind power. Spain, Portugal, Netherlands, and France are just a few countries that were able to take advantage of these sources and did so from the late 15th century to around 1800.

- **Second Period**: Considered to be a shorter period and occurred from 1800 through 2000. There was globalization of the economy; steam and rail power systems were considered to be a guiding force behind social change.

- **Third Period**: This is the post-millennial era. Change is driven by the advancement of technology, especially with the evolution of the Internet.

Advances in modern technology, especially in medical technology, allow infertile women to be able to bear children. Agricultural technology has advanced so much that it is possible to alter food products genetically. While there are a lot of advantages to the new technologies, there are, of course, some negative aspects.

The **digital divide** is one drawback. The digital divide is the increasing gap between the technological **haves** and **have-nots** that occurs locally and globally. There is a continued risk for hackers to steal people's information. In 1999, on New Year's Eve, there was a huge scare that there would be a total technological failure. This was referred to as the **Y2K panic**.

The Dark Side of Technology

The **Centers for Disease Control and Prevention** (CDC) describes electronic aggression as any harassment or bullying that occurs online, including through chat rooms, instant messaging, websites, and text messages. A 2011 study conducted by the U.S. Department of Education found that 27.8% of students aged 12 through 18 reported that they had been bullied. There were 9% who reported that they had been a victim of **cyberbullying**.

Unfortunately, cyberbullying has created a huge change in modern society. Cyberbullying can happen at any time, day or night, seven days a week, or 365 days a year. Adults and children may be targeted for bullying online by fake profiles managed by a bully. Sometimes, the cyberbully is not so discrete and will openly harass someone.

Social Institutions

As **industrialization** occurred, there was no longer a need for farmers to have people come and work on their farms to help with the crops. The invention of machines helped lessen the necessity for manual work within both the industrial and corporate landscape. It has changed how people view the government concerning the private sector. The creation of a global economy paved the way for new platforms and even created new religions, such as **Scientology**. This change in the global economy has changed the way educational institutions educate children. Before the **Industrial Revolution**, children had a different school schedule as they were needed back at home at decent times so that they could help with the family farm. A shift in a single area can create an interconnected impact across **social institutions**.

Population

There are constant changes in population rates. While birth rates may be increasing in one part of the world, death rates could be increasing in another. There are many reasons why populations change daily, such as shifts in social institutions. Whatever the reason for the changes, the population trend has a huge impact on aspects of society.

Within the United States, there is an increase in seniors due to baby boomers aged 57-75 years who have already retired. With the large number of retired baby boomers, the United States is being faced with:

- **Labor Shortages** - As these individuals leave the workforce, fewer available workers fill their positions, resulting in a shortage of skilled and experienced labor.

- **Decrease in Productivity** - Retired baby boomers often possess valuable knowledge and skills that younger workers may not have. With their departure from the workforce, there is a loss of

productivity and efficiency in many industries. This could also lead to a decrease in the country's overall economic growth.

- **Strain on Social Security and Medicare** - The growing number of retirees is putting pressure on the social security and medicare systems, as these programs rely on a steady stream of tax revenue from the working population. With fewer workers paying into these programs, providing necessary benefits to the growing number of retirees becomes challenging.

- **Economic Burden** - The loss of tax income from a large number of retired baby boomers is creating an economic burden on the country. With fewer taxpayers, there is a decrease in government revenue, which can hinder investments in infrastructure and education.

- **Changes in Consumer Spending** - As retired individuals typically have lower incomes, their spending patterns change, leading to a shift in consumer spending. This can impact industries that rely on consumer spending, such as retail, travel, and entertainment.

- **Shift in Workforce Dynamics** - With a significant portion of the population retiring, there is a shift in workforce dynamics. Younger workers may need to take on more responsibilities and roles at a younger age, and companies may need to reorganize and adapt to a smaller workforce.

Overall, the large number of retired baby boomers is causing a significant impact on various aspects of society, from the labor market to government programs and the economy. It is crucial for policymakers and businesses to address these challenges and find ways to support both the retiring population and the working-age population.

Globalization Affects Economic Inequality

Aside from technology, social institutions, and population, globalization also drives social change, particularly economic inequality. **Globalization** is the increased political, economic, and social interconnectedness of individuals. It encourages the exchange of commodities, ideas, and services on a global scale. In this context, "**globalization**" usually refers to the idea that the entire world functions as a single, enormous market rather than having many distinct markets. Although globalization benefits everyone in many ways, there are some unfavorable side effects, like economic inequality. **Economic inequality** is the difference in wealth and resources. To see how globalization affects economic inequality, let us explore global supply and demand, wealth fluctuation, and worker exploitation.

Global Supply and Demand

To illustrate, let us look at the grain production of some fictional countries. For as long as anyone can remember, Fresa has been selling grain to Plátano and Cereza. However, a new nation, Uvas, has begun to produce a lot of grain and sell it to Plátano and Cereza at a much lower price. Uvas' low-cost corn has spread the market, forcing Fresa to reduce the cost of their grain to remain competitive. Due to this, Fresa farmers are now making significantly less money than they did before.

Wealth Fluctuation

Now that Uvas has entered the market, farmers in Fresa are making less money and struggling to meet their other financial commitments. Even though Fresa remains the market leader, Uvas' corn significantly affected their economy. In the meantime, Plátano and Cereza are experiencing a recent economic boom due to their families' increased access to disposable cash due to the lower price of corn. Economic disparity is evident in everything that is now taking place. The availability of products in other countries can affect not only countries that produce goods but also those that consume those goods.

Worker Exploitation

Worker exploitation is another instance of economic inequality brought about by globalization. Instead of corn, let us examine the manufacturing of tractors in Plátano and Cereza. Both nations produce high-quality tractors, but Plátano wants to take the lead. Plátano has established a facility in Peras, a foreign country, to increase its revenues. Since so many farmers in Peras are unemployed, they are ready to work for far less money than their Plátano counterparts. As a result, Plátano can build their tractors at significant cost savings compared to earlier and maintain the same selling price. Due to the closure of tractor plants in Plátano and their relocation to Peras, the workers in Plátano are currently losing their employment.

Modernization

Modernization is defined as the process that increases the scale of specialization and differentiation of structure in societies, resulting in the transition from an underdeveloped society to a developed, technologically driven society. This means that society is judged by the advancement of technology and how sophisticated it is.

Before the introduction of dishwashers, people had to wash their dishes by hand. Before washers and dryers, people had to wash their clothes by hand and hang their items to dry on a line typically found in the backyard of their homes. One thing to be said about doing house chores now and 50 years ago is that it takes the same amount of time to complete the daunting tasks, but with modernization, we are able to do more tasks at once. The Internet has brought the world a way to learn about various things and keep people updated with the news and happenings worldwide. Like most things in life, there are pros and cons to modernization. While the introduction to the Internet was one of the greatest things to happen, there are negative aspects, such as cyberbullying, the risk of information being stolen, etc.

Chapter 20: Review Questions

1. **All of the following describe the members of a crowd, EXCEPT:**

   A. They often do things they would normally not do.
   B. They often feel something must be done immediately.
   C. They are within close proximity of each other.
   D. They share clearly defined expectations of behavior.
   E. Members of a crowd influence each other in behavior.

2. **Which of the following theories states that people who want to act in a certain way come together to form crowds?**

   A. Strain Theory
   B. Social Structure Theory
   C. Convergence Theory
   D. Harmonic Theory
   E. Emergent Norm Theory

3. **Which type of crowd engages in more deliberate planning of action and events?**

   A. Acting crowds
   B. Casual crowds
   C. Expressive crowds
   D. Conventional crowds
   E. Rioting crowds

4. **A group of people with a common ideology who try to achieve certain general goals together is known as a _____.**

   A. Communist movement
   B. Republican movement
   C. Democratic movement
   D. Social movement
   E. Capitalist movement

5. **Why might social movements arise among people who feel deprived?**

   A. Because they need to feel that someone is listening to them.
   B. Because they need to feel that they are important.
   C. Because the sense of deprivation encourages competition among individuals.
   D. Because the sense of having less than other people leads to a sense of resignation, which in turn can lead to a social movement.
   E. Because the sense of having less than other people leads to a sense of injustice, which in turn can lead to a social movement.

6. **A social movement that attempts to modify the workings of society without making drastic changes in the society is called a(n)**

    A. expressive movement.
    B. reform movement.
    C. revolutionary movement.
    D. mob.
    E. radical movement.

7. **When the League of Women Voters successfully achieved its goal of women being allowed to vote, they had to undergo frame _____, a means of completely changing their goals to ensure continuing relevance.**

    A. extension
    B. amplification
    C. bridging
    D. transformation
    E. diagnostic

8. **Which of the following is true about a mass society?**

    A. It is a society in which prosperity and bureaucracy have strengthened traditional social ties.
    B. It is a society in which prosperity and bureaucracy have weakened traditional social ties.
    C. It is a society in which affluence and democracy have enhanced nontraditional social status.
    D. It is a society in which people only purchase mass-produced objects.
    E. All the answers are correct.

9. **The example of worker exploitation is when a country can use workers from another country to produce items _____.**

    A. At lower cost
    B. At home
    C. In bulk
    D. More expensive
    E. More durable

10. **According to Thomas Friedman, what marked the change in the Third Period of globalization?**

    A. Military expansion
    B. Steam and rail power systems
    C. Technological advancements, especially the Internet
    D. Population decline
    E. Economic isolationism

Appendix: Overview of Theorists and their Key Theories

Roots of Sociology

Auguste Comte (1798–1857) is widely recognized as **the "father" of sociology**. He sought to study society methodically and scientifically. He was an engineer who later became a student of philosopher Claude Henri de Rouvroy Comte de Saint-Simon (1760-1825). Saint-Simon and Comte believed that social scientists should conduct studies of society that used the same methods as the natural sciences or the physical world. This is known as the **theory of positivism**. Comte believed that there was real potential for social scientists to help improve society as a whole. Comte also believed that students could identify laws that were used to govern a society and that sociologists would study societal problems such as poverty and poor education.

Harriet Martineau (1802–1876) is considered the "Mother of Sociology," the "first woman sociologist," and also one of the earliest feminists. Some of her great contributions include the Harriet Martineau theory, her translation of August Comte's writings, her fight against ethnocentrism, and her criticisms of the inconsistencies in America's democratic ideals and moral beliefs.

First, the **Harriet Martineau theory** states that individuals are not meant to serve society; a society's purpose is to fulfill the needs of individuals living in that society. That is, social interactions will result in human happiness brought by human association. She also believed that social reform is necessary to enhance everyone's condition. Additionally, she suggested that the following concepts should all be observed when studying sociology:

- Access to resources necessary to thrive in society

- Popular views of the common people

- The status of the downtrodden

Next, her translation of the original writing of Comte (the father of sociology) from French to English helped spread awareness of his teachings. Moreover, in her book *Society in America,* she exposed how women, African Americans, Native Americans, and other minority groups did not have the same freedoms as male caucasian American citizens. Overall, Martineau's works advocated that fairness along with equality must be present in all aspects of society.

Herbert Spencer (1820–1903) was an English sociologist who introduced the concept of social Darwinism, survival of the fittest, and three systems of society. Spencer is also one of the three sociologists who contributed to the **structural-functional perspective**, which asserts that society is made up of different structures, each of which serves a specific purpose for society to function properly.

Nonetheless, he is more known for his concept of **social Darwinism**, which claims that some people will be more powerful than others just because of their race or group, and Charles Darwin's rules of **natural selection** also apply to people. Social Darwinism is used to explain how societies change and evolve.

However, it argues that people who can quickly adapt to *cultural* changes in their surroundings tend to succeed and be able to transmit those benefits to their children. On the other hand, in the theory of evolution, the survival of living organisms relies on their *biological* adaptation. Correspondingly, Spencer coined the term "**survival of the fittest.**" He believed humans naturally seek survival, and only the strong will survive. In the context of society, only the powerful and rich will sustain their wealth because they fit more into that particular period's social and economic condition.

Additionally, Spencer applied the theory of evolution to society by arguing that society would evolve from simple to complex forms. He then proposed the **three systems of society**. First, the **regulative system** corresponds to the central nervous system, which regulates everything. It represents the government. Next, the **sustaining system** is similar to the digestive system, which is also valuable in maintaining the organism's health. In society, this is depicted in jobs and agriculture. Lastly, the **distribution system** matches the living organism's veins and arteries. In society, this system includes transportation and roads, which are essential for transferring goods and services.

System	Animals	Societies
Regulative	Central nervous system	Government
Sustaining	Giving/Receiving	Industry
Distribution	Veins & Arteries	Roads, Internet

Conflict Theorists

Karl Marx (1818–1883) was a German philosopher, economist, and co-author of *The Communist Manifesto.* Some of his significant contributions include social conflict theory and his perspective on religion, class consciousness, labor, the tendency of the profit rate to decline, historical materialism, and scientific socialism.

Social conflict theory is Marx's perspective on understanding society. He believed that all history is the history of class struggle in which a group would oust an oppressive group. Within his theory, Marx also discussed two main groups involved in the class struggle. The **proletariat** or "working class" sells its labor to the **bourgeoisie** or **capitalists** who own properties and means of production.

He also put forth the concepts of **class consciousness,** an awareness of its real interests as social beings, not just as individualistic workers. This also includes awareness of capitalist exploitation and considering the bourgeoisie as the real enemy, not their fellow working-class citizens. Additionally, this entails that members of the proletariat see that their identity mainly originates from their socio-economic class and not their nation, race, culture, etc.

Moreover, there is also **false consciousness,** a term used by other theorists who refer to the work of Marx. According to these theorists, false consciousness is the concept wherein members of the proletariat cannot recognize exploitation and inequality because they seem to occur naturally. For

example, selling one's labor for a set period and wage is acceptable because that is how the universe works. Furthermore, it entails seeing other members of the proletariat as competitors or enemies.

Apart from his theory on consciousness, Marx also contributed to how we understand religion. He called it an **opiate of the masses** because it promotes suffering and gives a false sense of stability to workers. As some religions preach that suffering in one's current life will be rewarded in the afterlife, Marx argued that religion's function is to protect the interests of the bourgeoisie because religion discourages people from changing their condition (through revolution). For a detailed discussion on this, please refer to the chapter on religion.

Theory of Capitalism

Aside from consciousness and religion, Marx also has other theories related to economics. First is the **labor theory of value**, rooted in the work of David Ricardo, a renowned economist generally regarded as having had the greatest influence on Marx's economic theories. According to this theory, the number of actual average labor hours needed to produce a good determines its market value. Where Ricardo left off, Karl Marx continued to expand this theory, giving rise to the **surplus hypothesis**, which proposes that the output produced by labor is shared between the capitalist and working classes.

Another economic idea of Marx is the **tendency of the profit rate to decline** in the capitalist system, which is shaped by the combination of the following factors:

- Reduced mass unemployment

- The (anticipated) increase in wages

- The emergence of more competitors in a market

- The need for new investments at a rate greater than the obtained surplus value

Moreover, he proposed **historical materialism** to understand historical events and phases and predict new ones. He contended that as time went on, new social classes emerged, and the traditional mode of production would be unsuitable for them, thereby stunting the growth of production and productive forces. As such, these forces would overthrow the old regime and install a new one to fulfill collective material interests.

He also put forth his own form of socialism called **scientific socialism.** According to him, in a socialist society, the means of production are owned by the whole society, not just by a few individuals. With all the impact of his work, Marx provided a **new scientific paradigm** in economics.

Charles Wright Mills (1916–1962), more commonly known as **C. Wright Mills**, was a 20th-century American sociologist considered to be a follower of social conflict theory, a theory arguing that society consists of a ruling elite controlling the working classes. Some of his key contributions include his work *The Power Elite* and his concepts of sociological imagination, personal troubles, and public issues.

In his book *The Power Elite,* he noted that the upper classes of society had positions in the military, the economy, and the government. Those individuals, the power elite, exercise the most influence and are linked to extensive institutions and bureaucracy. Even if people outside these sectors can rise to greater prominence in other spheres, like small business owners or church pastors, they are not as powerful or wealthy as leaders in the said three sectors. He also posited that the people who hold the greatest positions and have the most impact in those fields share a common background and went to the same schools, among others.

Moreover, C. Wright Mills also distinguished **personal troubles** from public issues. The former are troubles that affect a person and others in their personal life. For instance, it is personal trouble if a person's father passes away. However, suppose a father passes away in a nursing home amid a national decline in the quality of senior care. In that case, the matter falls under the purview of **public issues** because it is substantial and affects many people. Note that the difference seeks to mark the problem's scope. While public issues are studied as something that affects many people, personal troubles are solely examined from the individual's perspective.

Meanwhile, his concept of **sociological imagination** is defined as an ability to place one's own experiences in a larger sociopolitical context. Having this imagination enables one to see how individual situations have social repercussions and to look beyond one's own experiences to comprehend a larger social phenomenon. In sum, someone who has a sociological imagination is aware that their personal situation is shaped by broader social issues and thinks that everyone does not experience social issues similarly. Let's say someone is struggling to find a job. Those who lack sociological imagination might think everyone is suffering like them due to a lack of a higher education degree. However, someone with a more developed sociological imagination would recognize that this could be due to various factors.

Weberian Theory

Max Weber **(1864–1920)** is a German sociologist, historian, jurist, and political economist who is popularly known for his concepts of antipositivism, verstehen, theory of **impersonal management**, and bureaucracy and his work *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*. As observed in family-owned businesses, there is an informal, personal relationship between the supervisors and employees wherein the authority is misplaced, consequently stifling the company's growth. In this case, the devotion of the employees is placed only on their supervisors and not the company. To address this, Weber proposed **bureaucracy**, a more formal, impersonal, and inflexible form of organization characterized by rules, legal authority, and competence. His major principles of bureaucracy are as follows:

- Specialization and Division of Labor
- Competence for Job Appointments
- Impersonality in Bureaucracy
- Standard Operating Procedures
- Formal Written Records

Moreover, Weber disagreed with Karl Marx by defining religion as a central force in social change. He contended that Protestantism encouraged economic development and was the central factor in capitalism's rise, but only in some countries. Lastly, another term devised by Weber was **Antipositivism,**

the subjectivity researchers take when representing social processes, cultural norms, and societal values.

Structural-Functionalism Theorists

Emile Durkheim (1858–1917) was a French theorist famous for his concepts of **functionalism** theory, **division of labor**, **mechanical and organic solidarity**, and **anomie**.

First, **functionalism** became the basis of structural-functionalism, which states that each part of society serves a specific function that contributes to the proper functioning of society as a whole.

In relation to this is his concept of **division of labor** wherein a society with this division has people doing various jobs, but they do not do similar tasks. This concept also explains how society shifted from mechanical to organic solidarity, two of his most famous concepts. Moreover, he advanced the notion of **anomie,** a condition of instability caused by the vanishing of former social ties shared by people within a community. Anomie creates feelings of alienation from others because there is little or nothing binding people together like there once was. The breakdown of a shared religious ideology can lead to anomie, which then leads people to turn away from cultural norms.

Moreover, he asserted that anomie is one of the social factors that lead to suicide. Unlike other studies that examined common personality traits of those who died of **suicide**, Durkheim focused on social factors from various countries that would influence the likelihood of suicide. Specifically, he studied each country's beliefs, values, norms, and traditions. In his study, he focused on the following three levels:

- Cohesiveness within a society

- A person's standing within the society

- A person's standing within the social, religious, and work groups of the society

He found that people are more likely to commit suicide if their ties to others in their communities are weak—they lack **social integration,** the degree to which people are tied to their social groups. According to Durkheim, four types of suicides are based on degrees of imbalance in social integration and moral regulation.

- **Egoistic** suicides occur when individuals do not feel socially integrated into society.

- **Altruistic** suicides occur when individuals feel an exceptionally high level of social integration.

- **Fatalistic** suicides are suicides that result from too much moral regulation.

- **Anomic** suicides (which refer to social instability caused by economic and social turmoil) occur due to rapid, often economic, social change, leading individuals to experience moral confusion and a lack of social direction.

His findings suggest that although the act of committing suicide is a solitary act, it is influenced by the group and social life of an individual. Additionally, one of his most significant contributions to sociology was establishing the first Department of Sociology at the University of Bordeaux in 1895.

Robert Merton **(1910-2003)** is an American functionalist sociologist. While his influence goes beyond the field of sociology, his main contributions to the field include the following:

- Ideas related to social and cultural structures/functions (e.g., manifest and latent functions and dysfunction)

- The strain theory of deviance

- Focus group research methods

- Merton Thesis - explanation of causes that sparked the Scientific Revolution and scientific thought

- Insights on role model, self-fulfilling prophecy, role strain, and reference group

According to Merton, society has two basic function types: manifest and latent. **Manifest functions** are the clear and intended results of an activity or institution, whereas **latent functions** are the less evident and frequently unintended effects of an activity or institution. However, there can also be **dysfunctions** or negative latent effects that result from institutions making negative contributions or effects on society.

Another contribution of Merton is his **strain theory of deviance,** a theory based on empirical evidence stating that the primary cause of crime or anomie in society is the lack of opportunity to attain goals. This is an extension of Durkheim's theory of anomie, a state of confusion brought by too much individual freedom and will eventually lead to crimes.

Symbolic Interactionism Theorists

George Herbert Mead **(1863–1931)**, a sociologist and philosopher, focused on how the mind developed during social processes. Mead proposed that symbols are the foundation of society. According to this framework, the meaning of different symbols is derived from **social interaction**, including words, gestures, body language, and facial expressions in communication. Further, symbols have meaning, and they direct our lives. However, the symbols we use are arbitrary and vary from culture to culture. The importance of a symbol is rooted in the culture from which it comes. Mead is one of the founders of **symbolic interactionism**—a significant theoretical perspective in sociology, pointing to a micro-level sociology analysis. Mead wrote very little. After his death students compiled his lectures into an influential book titled *Mind, Self, and Society.*

Charles Horton Cooley **(1864–1929)** is a sociologist known for the concept of the **Looking Glass Self**, which states that a person's identity is based on how they believe others see them. Moreover, it is an interactionist viewpoint since identity cannot form independently; rather, it results from interactions

(and perceptions of those interactions). It also claims that **identity development** happens in three stages as follows:

- A person imagines how they appear to others

- A person imagines how others react to that impression

- A person imagines how others feel about them, depending on their reaction to that impression

As a result, these perceptions influence how a person perceives and defines themselves or their self-concept. However, the theory has been criticized because it fails to explain why ingroups and outgroups affect identity differently. For instance, people may worry about the perception of their ingroup but disregard those that are thrown by their outgroup. Nonetheless, Cooley contributed to sociology by highlighting the role of one's perceptions and one's interactions with others in explaining self-identity.

William Edward Burghardt Du Bois (1868–1963) (pronounced Doo-Boyss), more commonly known as **W.E.B. Du Bois**, is an African American sociologist born in Massachusetts after the Civil War and grew up in a European white community. He later attended Harvard University, where he was the first person of color to receive a doctorate. His great contributions to sociology include introducing double consciousness and raising Black consciousness and activism in the 1960s.

Also, he was a professor at Atlanta University and asserted that scholars should not stop learning about problems; they must also find solutions. He started studying their lives in the cities of Atlanta and Philadelphia. He examined social problems that they encountered, such as the denial of basic rights, inequality in education, and the practice of lynching. Later on, he became known in the national scene of racial progress due to his criticisms against the works of Booker T. Washington, a civil rights thinker who argued that Black Americans would gain more from vocational education instead of a degree in higher education.

Moreover, Du Bois introduced the term **double consciousness** to illustrate the internal tensions suffered by African Americans living in a predominantly white society. Rooted in the slavery-era depictions of Black Americans as inferior, the traumas of racist violence, prejudice, and discrimination are rampant in the social life of Americans, which results in incompatible messages about freedom and the American "dream" for Black Americans. Simply put, how can a person achieve America's promise of freedom and inequality while Black Americans are treated with different, legalized, and discriminating mandates of racist sentiments? In his book *The Souls of Black Folk,* he then described that "this double consciousness, this sense of always looking at one's self through the eyes of others," causes a sort of psychological dissonance or "two-ness" as Black Americans strive to resolve these conflicting cultural identities to attain a fulfilling life.

In 1909, he helped establish the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), where he became the Director of Publicity and Research. He mainly edited their monthly magazine, highlighting arguments against racism and evidence on the dangers of racism. Overall, his works helped foster Black consciousness and activism in the 1960s.

Erving Goffman (1922–1982) is a sociologist known for examining daily human interactions to form theories of society and human behavior. Some of his popular contributions are the concepts of symbolic interactionism, impression management, and dramaturgy.

To understand society, Goffman used the **symbolic interaction perspective,** which focuses on daily behavior and interactions between people to help explain society. Specifically, **interactionism** sees society as a framework of people living in a world filled with significant objects**.** Interactionists believe that people assign meaning to all things to comprehend them. Moreover, people produce **symbols** and representations of a society's ideas, thoughts, and beliefs. All members of a society understand the meaning attached to the symbols. For example, a symbol of respect in the United States is placing your hand over your heart while the national anthem is being played. When we know the meaning assigned to each symbol, we learn the appropriate behavior that must correspond to it. Hence, a symbol dictates our behavior.

Another contribution of Goffman is the **dramaturgical approach** (sometimes called dramaturgical analysis), the study of social interaction by comparing it to theatrical performance. According to Goffman, people do **impression management**, which means they adjust their behavior to create specific impressions for their audience. Like a theater, everyone around you can see you on the **front stage**, which corresponds to the public. On the other hand, **backstage,** which is similar to a private place, is where people act naturally as themselves. Basically, Goffman asserts that people modify their behavior depending on their audience.

Other Influential Theorists

Georg Simmel (1858–1915) was not a typical sociologist, as he was a German art critic. Although an art critic, he had several writing projects focused on social and political issues. His works focused on micro-level theories while also analyzing the dynamics of multi-person groups. He believed that culture is creative, just as individuals are. Simmel's contributions to sociology are not usually shared within academic histories and have typically been dominated by other theorists/sociologists, such as Durkheim, Mead, and even Weber.

Also, he believed that conflict would help bring societies together and stabilize them. Simmel said that the intensity of the conflict and the degree of emotional involvement between the individuals correlate with the solidarity within opposing groups.

Gerhard Lenski (1924–2015) was an American sociologist who focused on society's social and cultural elements using an evolutionary perspective on macrosociology. Instead of focusing only on the small segments of society, **macrosociology** studies society as a whole. According to him, human society is a process of change connected to a society's level of innovation, transmissions, and technological advances. This process of change is called sociocultural evolution. It means that a society's survival depends on its level of technology. Technology here refers to the amount of information society has and how it's used. The more information society has, the more likely it is to advance. Based on this, Lenski also proposed the **five types of society** determined by their technology level: Hunter-gatherers, horticultural, pastoral, agricultural, and industrial societies.

Glossary

Abolished	The end of a practice, ideology, or social structure through either legal or social pressure.
Absolute Monarchies	A form of government in which a single ruler holds ultimate power over the state, typically with a hereditary right to rule and without any limits based on law or religious doctrine.
Absolute Poverty	A condition in which an individual/household lacks the necessities of life, such as access to nutritious food, clean water, adequate housing, healthcare, and sanitation.
Abstinence	A lifestyle choice in which individuals refrain from engaging in any behaviors that can result in the conception of a child or the transmission of sexually transmitted infections.
Abusive Relationships	Relationships characterized by a pattern of dominance and control, as well as physical, emotional, or psychological abuse, that often results in harm, injury, or death.
Accessibility	The degree to which people are able to access resources, experiences, and opportunities. It is related to social stratification and is often used to assess opportunities for social mobility.
Achieved Statuses	Gained statuses that are the result of a person's own effort, ability, or distinct characteristics. These statuses can be based on occupation, family, rank, or any other type of status.
Acting Crowd	Social group that forms in a particular social situation for a limited time frame. It is characterized by homogeneity in values, a shared purpose and a quick shift in power dynamics.
Activity Theory	An interdisciplinary sociological theory used to explain human behavior by examining how individuals interact with their environment.
Affirmative Action	A policy or set of practices used by employers, educational institutions, or governments to give members of historically disadvantaged groups preferential treatment or greater access to opportunities.
Affordability	A measure of how well people are able to meet their needs and wants when faced with costs that are higher than their income.
Age Norms	Socially accepted behaviors that are expected at different stages of life.
Age of Enlightenment	A period in the 18th century that emphasized reason and scientific inquiry, which is widely accepted as a precursor to the modern world of sociology.

Agency	The capacity of individuals to make their own free choices and to act independently and purposefully in pursuit of their own goals.
Agents	An individual or a group (such as a family, a group of friends, or an institution) who shape their actions and are actively involved in the construction of social forces.
Aggregate	A collective or group of individuals that share certain characteristics or traits. Can be used to categorize a population based on their demographics, lifestyles, beliefs, and behaviors.
Aging Boom	The population growth of individuals over the age of 65 that has occurred since the early 2000s as a result of longer life expectancy, lower birth rates, and increasing immigration.
Agnostic Theist	A philosophical stance that combines belief in the divine along with uncertainty in the existence of a concrete definition of a higher power.
Agnosticism	A sociological belief system that states that the truth or existence of the supernatural cannot be definitively known or proven.
Agricultural Project	A type of social project that focuses on improving food production and agricultural practices.
Alienation	A sociological concept referring to a state of estrangement or disillusionment with society and the social environment, characterized by feelings of disorientation, powerlessness, and isolation from the systems that govern human lives.
Alternative Movements	Attempts to redefine and challenge established social norms, often involving collective forms of action such as protests and direct actions.
Amalgamation	The process by which two previously distinct social groups are merged, becoming one unified social entity.
Analytical Study	A research method that involves examining existing data sources to identify patterns, characteristics, and relationships to gain a deeper understanding of a specific question or social phenomenon.
Anomie	A condition in which the set of accepted social and cultural norms breaks down, leading to a lack of clear rules or standards for social behavior.
Anorexia Nervosa	An eating disorder that is defined by a refusal to maintain a healthy body weight, an obsession with weight and food, and an intense fear of gaining weight.
Anthropology	A branch of sociology that explores the structure and development of human societies and cultures.
Anticipatory Socialization	A form of socialization that occurs when individuals attempt to prepare themselves in advance for the norms, roles, and values of a social group that they hope to join or rejoin in the future.

Anxiety	An uncomfortable feeling of anticipation or fear, often associated with an unknown future event. It is a response to a perceived threat or danger and is often accompanied by physical sensations such as increased heart rate, increased sweating, increased tension, increased alertness, and increased vigilance.
Anxiety Disorders	Psychological disorders characterized by excessive and persistent feelings of fear, worry, and dread in response to real or imagined threats.
Applied Sociology	An area of study that uses sociological knowledge and insights to address social problems.
Aristocratic	A type of social relationship and/or hierarchy based on hereditary rank or title awarded primarily from inheritance instead of merit or ability.
Arranged Marriages	Marriages established through family members, community or religious leaders, or professional matchmakers.
Artificial Intelligence	The use of computerized technologies and algorithms that emulate human intelligence and behavior to analyze and interpret data, make predictions, and provide insights regarding social phenomena.
Artisan Class	People who are skilled laborers in a particular trade or craft and generally associated with manual labor.
Ascribed Statuses	Predetermined social positions assigned to an individual without regard to the individual's talents, accomplishments, or skills.
Assimilation	The process by which minority groups in society become absorbed into the dominant culture.
Assumption of Unanimity	A theoretical stance adopted by many social theorists that presumes that all members of a particular social group have a common set of values, beliefs, and attitudes towards a particular situation, and that they share a fundamentally unified sense of purpose.
Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder	A developmental disorder characterized by difficulty concentrating, impulsivity, and hyperactivity, and primarily affecting children and adolescents.
Attitude	Often reflect a person's beliefs, values, and feelings about a particular issue or topic.
Authoritarian	A form of societal structure in which a central authority holds absolute or near-absolute power.
Authority	The power held by individuals or groups to enforce rules and expectations and make decisions that others will accept and follow.

Autism Spectrum	A sociological construct used to describe a broad range of conditions characterized by difficulties with social interaction, communication, and repetitive behaviors.
Automation	The use of technology and machines to perform tasks that were traditionally done by humans.
Baby Boomers	The demographic cohort born between 1946 and 1964 in the United States and other developed countries.
Behavioral Contagion	A phenomenon where thoughts, feelings, and behavior become shared among individuals in a social network, spreading rapidly throughout the network over time.
Beliefs	Individual or collective sets of ideas, values, and assumptions that guide the interpretations individuals make of their experiences and behaviors.
Benevolent Sexism	An attitude of chivalrous protection and consideration toward women, which on the surface may appear positive, but in reality can be just as oppressive and limiting as explicit misogyny.
Bible	A sacred text within Christianity, serving as a source of moral and spiritual guidance, as well as a central part of worship for those who adhere to the faith and compete in its traditions.
Bigamy	A form of polygamy in which an individual is married to more than one partner at the same time, which is illegal in many countries and considered socially unacceptable in most religions.
Biological	Refers to living organisms and their characteristics, structures, functions, and processes.
Bisexuality	A sexual orientation defined as having romantic and/or sexual attractions to individuals of both sexes.
Bourgeoisie	A social class made up of people who are wealthy, educated, and typically demonstrate cultural capital.
Broken Window Theory	A criminological theory that suggests that visible signs of criminal activity, such as vandalism, create an atmosphere of lawlessness, leading to further crime being committed within the community.
Bulimia	A mental disorder that affects both physical and mental health and is characterized by repeated episodes of binge eating followed by purging behaviors.
Bureaucracies	Formal organizations in which personnel work in prescribed roles and according to standardized procedures and rules.

Calculability	Refers to the idea that decisions and outcomes, which could be related to social, economic, or political questions, can be reduced to numbers and quantified.
Capital Flight	The movement of capital out of a country, usually because of economic instability or the instability of a currency.
Capitalism	An economic system in which private entities own capital or the means of production, and the goal is to make a profit through competitive markets.
Capitalist Marketplace	A type of economic system in which economic actors (business owners, workers, consumers, etc.) participate in a market based on the exchange of goods and services to create wealth.
Care-based Morality	A type of moral philosophy which focuses on the wants and needs of people and how people should take responsibility for caring for others.
Career Inheritance	A type of occupational structure where access to jobs is based on generational or family lineage.
Carrying Capacity	The maximum number of individuals of a certain species that can inhabit and be sustained by a given environment.
Caste System	A social hierarchy that assigns people's social worth to predetermined categories based on birth.
Casual Crowd	A casual crowd is a group of persons who spontaneously gather in the same area, usually for socializing purposes.
Categorization	A process by which concepts are sorted into distinct groups based on shared characteristics.
Cause-and-effect	The scientific principle that explores the relationship between two or more events that result in a certain outcome.
Census	An official population count conducted periodically by a government to gather data about the people it governs.
Centenarians	Individuals who have reached or exceeded the age of 100 years.
Charismatic Authority	The type of power based on an individual's remarkable personal attributes and abilities rather than legal, traditional, or organizational structures.
Charismatic Dictatorships	A form of government where a strong leader, often considered a charismatic figure, has highly centralized control over the government.
Chattel Slavery	A form of institutionalized, involuntary servitude where individuals or groups own the rights to another person's labor and/or body for an unlimited amount of time.

Child Rearing	The social and psychological process of developing and maturing a child from infancy to adulthood.
Chronic Fatigue Syndrome	A disorder characterized by persistent, unexplained fatigue, exacerbated by physical or mental exertion, accompanied by other symptoms such as pain, cognitive issues, and difficulty sleeping.
Church	An organization that is part of a concerted effort to promote a shared set of religious beliefs and practices.
Civil Religion	A shared system of beliefs and values relating to patriotism and the collective identity of a nation.
Civil Rights Movement	A series of reform movements used to fight for the legal and social rights of minority populations in the United States.
Class Consciousness	The awareness of people of their relative economic, social, and cultural positions within society.
Class Disparity	The unequal distribution of wealth and power among different social classes.
Class System	A system of stratification based on educational attainment, income, occupation, and social origin.
Class-based Conflict	Conflict between social classes or groups due to their differing interests and values.
Classical Sociological Theories	The explanatory ideas of the by the founding fathers of sociology that aim to explain how societies composed of distinct social classes function and explain the origins and effects of the institutions and dynamics of modern industrial society.
Clear Division of Labor	The process of assigning and organizing different individual tasks according to skills, specialization, and expertise.
Clinical Sociology	A branch of sociology concerned with the study of social behavior, mental processes, and personal interactions to better understand how people interact with each other and how they react to social influences.
Closed-access	A system where access to certain resources or opportunities is restricted to a certain group and not available to everyone.
Clusters	The aggregation of similar characteristics among a group and how different groups of people interact within and between those clusters.
Code of Ethics	An ethical framework that governs how individuals and organizations conduct themselves within society.

Coercive Organizations	Organizations that use coercive power to influence and control behavior through intimidation, threats, and/or violence.
Cognitive Bias	A systematic error in thinking that leads to inaccurate and irrational conclusions.
Cognitive Development	The process by which an individual acquires basic thinking skills, cognitive strategies, and knowledge to solve problems and participate in social relationships.
Cognitive Thoughts	The mental process of thinking and understanding which includes memorizing, learning, understanding, and problem-solving.
Cohabitation	An arrangement in which two people of the opposite sex live together as a couple without being married.
Cohort	A group of people born at the same time and living around the same time.
Collective Action	A collective effort or behavior taken by a group of individuals towards a shared goal or cause.
Collective Behavior	The actions, reactions, and movements of a group of individuals that deviate from society's norms and patterns.
Collective Conscience	A shared sense of morality, beliefs, and values that guide the behavior and actions of a society or group.
Collective Gesticulation	The use of hand and body movements to convey meaning and communicate within a group setting.
Collective Locomotion	The moving or traveling together of a group of individuals towards a common destination or goal.
Collective Manipulation	The use of persuasive or deceptive tactics by a group or individuals within a group to achieve a desired outcome.
Collective Verbalization	The act of using language to share thoughts, ideas, and information among a group of individuals.
Collective Vocalization	The act of using one's voice to communicate, express emotions, or make sounds together with a group of individuals.
Collectivist	A social and political ideology that emphasizes the importance of collective or group identities over individual identities.
Colonialist States	Countries that have historically practiced or currently practice colonialism, which is the policy of acquiring and maintaining colonies for economic, political, and cultural purposes.

Colorism	A form of discrimination or prejudice based on skin color, where lighter skin tones are valued and given preference over darker skin tones.
Commodification	The process of turning something (often a good or service) into a commodity that can be bought and sold for profit.
Communication Channels	The various methods or mediums used to convey information and messages between individuals or groups.
Communism	A political and economic ideology that advocates for a classless society in which all property and resources are owned and controlled by the community as a whole.
Community	A group of people living in the same geographic area or sharing a common identity or interest, often with shared social norms and values.
Compact Development	A planning approach that advocates for the efficient use of land by promoting the construction of homes, businesses, and services close to one another.
Comparison Group	A group that is used as a point of reference for comparison in social research, often chosen for its similarities to the experimental group.
Competitiveness	The drive to succeed and outperform others, often encouraged and reinforced in a capitalist society.
Complacency	A sense of satisfaction or contentment that can result in resistance to change or progress.
Complex Behavioral Contagion	The spread of behaviors or ideas through social networks, often influenced by a combination of social, psychological, and environmental factors.
Compulsion	A strong and often irresistible urge to do something, often fueled by internal factors such as an addiction or external factors such as societal pressures.
Concentric Zone Model	A theoretical model developed by sociologist Ernest Burgess, which suggests that cities grow outward from a central business district in a series of concentric rings.
Conflict Theory	A sociological perspective that views society as a constant struggle for resources and power between different groups, often focused on the unequal distribution of resources and social structures that perpetuate these inequalities.
Conformists	Individuals who adjust their behaviors and attitudes to align with societal norms and expectations, often leading to a lack of diversity and perpetuation of dominant cultural norms.
Conformity	The act of adjusting one's behavior or thoughts to align with social norms and expectations.

Confounding Variable	A factor that affects the relationship between two other variables, making it difficult to determine their true relationship.
Confucius	A Chinese philosopher and teacher whose ideas and teachings about respect, moral conduct, and social order have greatly influenced Chinese society and culture.
Conscious	A state of awareness, often used in sociology to refer to an individual's understanding of their social surroundings and position in society.
Consent	The voluntary and informed agreement to participate in a particular activity or situation.
Conservative	A political and social ideology that emphasizes traditional values, limited government intervention, and personal responsibility.
Constitution	A set of fundamental principles or established laws that govern a society or organization.
Constitution Party	A political party in the United States that promotes and defends strict interpretation of the Constitution and advocates for limited government intervention.
Constitutional Monarchies	A form of government where a monarch is the head of state, but their powers are limited by a constitution and shared with a legislative body.
Constructive	A communication or behavior that contributes to a positive outcome or resolution in a social situation.
Constructivism	A theory in sociology that suggests individuals construct their own understanding of the world based on their experiences and interactions with others.
Contagion Theory	A theory in sociology that explains how behaviors, emotions, and ideas can spread rapidly through a group or community, often through mass media or other forms of communication.
Content Analysis	A method used in qualitative research to systematically analyze written, verbal, or visual materials to identify themes, patterns, and meanings within a specific social context.
Contested Illnesses	Conditions or diseases that are not universally recognized or agreed upon by the medical community, leading to disagreement and debate over their classification and treatment.
Continuity Theory	A perspective in gerontology that focuses on how individuals maintain consistency and stability in their lives despite changes in their physical and social environments as they age.

Control Group	A group of individuals in an experiment who do not receive the experimental treatment, used as a comparison to the group that receives it.
Controlled Environment	An environment in which all variables are carefully monitored and controlled in order to observe their effects on a particular phenomenon of interest.
Conventional Crowd	A group of individuals with similar characteristics (such as age, gender, social class, etc.) gathered in a relatively unstructured setting, such as a concert or sporting event.
Convergence Clusters	Groups of individuals with similar beliefs, values, and behaviors that are gradually drawn together and become increasingly similar over time.
Convergence Theory	A perspective in sociology that suggests that over time, societies and cultures become more alike as they adopt similar beliefs, values, and practices.
Convergent Orientation	A perspective in sociology that suggests that individuals from diverse backgrounds may come to share similar beliefs and values as they interact and learn from each other.
Core Nations	Countries that are dominant in the world economy and have a high level of industrialization and development.
Cornucopian Theory	A belief that technological advancements and human ingenuity will always find solutions to resource scarcity and environmental challenges.
Corporate Crimes	Illegal activities committed by corporations or businesses for profit or to gain a competitive advantage.
Correction Systems	Organizations and institutions responsible for supervising and rehabilitating individuals who have committed crimes, such as prisons and probation systems.
Correlation Matrix	A statistical tool used to examine the relationship between multiple variables, showing the strength and direction of their correlations.
Countercultures	Groups or communities that hold values or beliefs that oppose those held by the dominant culture in a society.
Courtship	A socially constructed process of finding a partner for a romantic relationship, typically involving rituals and expectations within a specific culture.
Covenant	A binding agreement or promise between individuals or groups, often involving religious or moral commitments.
Creeping Credentialism	The trend of requiring increasingly higher levels of education or specific qualifications for jobs, leading to credential inflation and creating barriers for individuals without access to education or means to obtain credentials.

Crime Control Model	A criminal justice approach focused on deterrence and punishment, emphasizing the need for strict laws and enforcement to maintain social order.
Crime Rate	A measure of the frequency of criminal behavior within a specific population, often expressed as the number of crimes per 1000 or 100,000 people.
Criminal Acts	Behaviors that are deemed illegal and punishable by law, such as murder, theft, or assault.
Criminal Justice System	The institutions and processes involved in the detection, apprehension, prosecution, and punishment of individuals who have violated criminal laws.
Criminology	The interdisciplinary study of crime, criminals, and criminal behavior and its effects on society, including understanding the causes, patterns, and responses to crime.
Critical Sociologist	A sociologist who uses a critical lens to analyze and challenge social structures and systems of power and privilege with the goal of promoting social justice and equality.
Criticism	The evaluation and analysis of something, often involving identifying flaws, contradictions, or areas for improvement.
Crowd Behavior	The behavior and actions of individuals within a group or crowd, often influenced by social norms, dynamics, and other factors.
Crude Birth Rate	A demographic measure that represents the number of births per 1,000 individuals in a population per year.
Cult	A group or organization with distinctive rituals, beliefs, and practices, often involving a charismatic leader and strict adherence to their teachings.
Cultural Differences	The variations in beliefs, values, customs, behaviors, and ways of life between different groups or societies.
Cultural Feminism	A feminist perspective that emphasizes the importance of women's culture and values in challenging and changing patriarchal systems and promoting gender equality.
Cultural Identities	The sense of belonging and self-identification that individuals have with a particular culture, often shaped by shared beliefs, customs, and traditions.
Cultural Imperialism	The dominance of one culture over others, often through economic, political, and cultural influence and power.
Cultural Lag	The delay or gap between changes in material and non-material culture, resulting in conflicts and tensions between new technologies and traditional values and beliefs.

Cultural Phenomena	The observable, shared behaviors, practices, and beliefs within a culture that shape individuals' experiences and interactions.
Cultural Relativism	The understanding and respect for other cultures and the belief that different cultural perspectives and practices should not be judged by the standards of one's own culture.
Cultural Traditions	The customs, rituals, practices, and beliefs that are passed down through generations within a particular culture.
Cultural Traits	The specific characteristics, behaviors, values, and beliefs that are unique to a particular culture.
Cultural Transmission	The process by which culture is passed down and shared between individuals and groups through socialization, observation, and interactions.
Cultural Universals	The shared patterns of behaviors and customs that are present in all human societies, such as language, family structures, and economic systems.
Culture	The shared beliefs, values, behaviors, and symbols that are learned and transmitted within a specific group or society.
Culture Shock	The feelings of disorientation, confusion, and anxiety that individuals experience when exposed to a new and unfamiliar culture.
Cyberfeminism	A feminist perspective that focuses on the intersections of technology, gender, and power and advocates for the use of technology to challenge and disrupt patriarchal structures.
Data Analysis	The process of interpreting and making sense of data collected through research methods, such as surveys, interviews, and observations.
Data Collection Methods	The techniques and strategies used to gather data for research, including surveys, interviews, experiments, and observations.
De Facto Segregation	The separation of individuals or groups based on social, economic, or other factors rather than by law or official policies.
De Jure Segregation	The intentional and legally enforced separation of individuals or groups based on race, ethnicity, or other characteristics.
Debt Bondage	A system of labor in which individuals are forced to work to pay off a debt they owe, often becoming trapped in a cycle of poverty and exploitation.
Decentralization	The distribution of power, decision-making, and resources among multiple individuals or groups within a society or organization.
Degradation Ceremony	A ritual or event in which an individual's status, identity, or role within a group or society is publicly shamed, humiliated, or stripped away.

Dehumanizing	A process by which individuals or groups are denied their human qualities and treated as objects or less than fully human, often leading to discrimination and oppression.
Deindustrialization	The decline or reduction of industrial activity in a region or country, typically due to economic or technological factors, resulting in the loss of jobs and impact on communities.
Demedicalization	The process of removing medical or psychiatric labels and diagnoses from human conditions or behaviors, often related to changing societal attitudes and beliefs.
Democracy	A form of government in which power is held by the people, usually through elected representatives, and is based on the principles of equality and individual rights.
Democratic Cultures	A set of beliefs, values, and practices that promote a democratic society, including respect for individual freedom, equality, and participation in decision-making processes.
Democratization	The process of transitioning from an authoritarian government to a democratic one, typically involving reforms and changes in political institutions and structures.
Democrats	Members of a political party that supports social and economic equality and democratic principles.
Demographic Transition Model	A theoretical framework that explains the stage-by-stage process of population growth and decline, based on changes in birth and death rates over time.
Demographic Transition Theory	A sociological theory that links population patterns to changes in social and economic development, where declining birth and death rates are seen as a result of modernization and industrialization.
Demography	The study of human populations, including their size, structure, distribution, and characteristics.
Denial	A defense mechanism in which individuals refuse to acknowledge or accept a reality or truth that may be uncomfortable or threatening.
Denominations	Subgroups or branches within a larger religious organization or belief system, often characterized by different interpretations of doctrine and practices.
Dependence	A state of relying on something or someone else for support or sustenance, often leading to unequal power dynamics and relationships.
Dependency Ratio	A measure of the number of non-working individuals (typically children and elderly) compared to those working and can support them.

Dependency Theory	A perspective that explains global inequality due to the historical and structural relationships between wealthy, developed countries and poorer, underdeveloped countries.
Dependent Variable	In research, the outcome or effect that is being studied and is believed to be influenced by one or more independent variables.
Depression	A mood disorder characterized by persistent feelings of sadness, hopelessness, and/or loss of interest in activities, often accompanied by physical and cognitive symptoms.
Descriptive	In research, a type of study or analysis that aims to describe a phenomenon, behavior, or social group, often using statistical measures and data.
Determinism	The belief that human behavior and social structures are determined by a combination of inherent factors such as genetics and environmental influences.
Deviation	Behavior that goes against the norms and expectations of a society or group.
Dharma	A central concept in Hinduism and Buddhism that refers to an individual's moral duty and social responsibility.
Diagnostic Framing	The process of categorizing and defining a social problem or issue in a way that influences how it is understood and addressed.
Differential Association Theory	A theory that states that criminal behavior is learned through interactions with others who engage in deviant behavior.
Differentiation	The process of becoming distinct or differentiated in terms of social status, roles, and identities.
Digital Addiction	A type of behavioral addiction characterized by excessive and unhealthy use of technology, particularly digital devices and platforms.
Digital Divide	The gap between those with access to digital technologies and those without, often based on socioeconomic and geographic factors.
Digital Ethnography	The study of online communities and cultures through observation and analysis of digital interactions and behaviors.
Direct Democracy	A form of government where citizens directly participate in decision-making and policy creation rather than through elected representatives.
Disability	A physical, mental, or emotional impairment that limits an individual's ability to engage in certain tasks or activities.
Discrimination	Unfair treatment or unfavorable action towards a person or group based on their membership in a particular social category, such as race, gender, or age.

Discriminators	Individuals or groups who engage in discriminatory behavior towards others.
Disengagement Theory	A theory that suggests that people gradually withdraw from society as they age, often due to the loss of roles and status.
Disjuncture	A state of disconnect or disconnection, often used to describe the gap between different social, economic, or cultural systems or groups.
Disorder	An individual or group behavior that goes against the expectations of a society and is seen as disruptive, chaotic, or harmful.
Disorganized Crowds	Large groups of people who have gathered with no clear purpose or organization and may engage in chaotic or disruptive behaviors.
Disruptive Protest	A form of protest that involves unconventional or disruptive tactics, often to draw attention to a social or political issue.
Domestic Violence	Any physical, sexual, psychological, or emotional abuse that occurs between people in a domestic or intimate relationship.
Dominant Culture	The cultural beliefs, values, and practices that are most widely accepted and influential in a society, often held by those in positions of power and privilege.
Double Deviance	The experience of societal stigma and discrimination faced by individuals who have committed a primary deviant act and also possess stigmatized social identities (such as race or gender).
Double Standard	A phenomenon in which different sets of expectations or rules are applied to different groups, often based on social status or identity.
Dramaturgical Analysis	A theory in sociology that views social interactions as performances on a stage, where individuals strategically present themselves to others in order to shape their impressions and uphold social norms.
Dramaturgical Theory	A perspective in sociology that posits that social life is like a theatrical stage, where individuals play different roles and present themselves in different ways depending on the audience and the situation.
Dramaturgy	The study of social life as a theatrical performance, where individuals are compared to actors on a stage, and social situations are seen as various "stages" for their performances.
Due Process Model	A legal concept that emphasizes the procedural fairness and protection of the rights of individuals in the criminal justice system.
Dyads	A social group consisting of two members, such as a romantic couple or close friends.

Dynamic Equilibrium	A concept in sociology that describes the balance between stability and change in society.
Dynamics	The study of how individuals and groups interact and behave within a society and how these interactions impact social change and development.
Dysfunctions	Negative consequences or disruptions in the functioning of society or social institutions.
E-readiness	The level of technological literacy and access to digital tools and resources that individuals, communities, or countries possess.
Ebonics	A term refers to the unique dialect of English spoken by some African Americans, characterized by distinct grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation.
Ecclesia	A term used to describe a religious organization or community, often with a hierarchical structure and established rituals and beliefs.
Ecofeminism	A social and political movement that views the root cause of both environmental exploitation and oppression of women as stemming from patriarchal and capitalist structures.
Economic Growth	An increase in the production and consumption of goods and services in a society. It is often used as a measure of the overall health and development of an economy.
Economic Power	The ability of individuals or groups to control or influence economic resources, production, and distribution in a society.
Economic Practices	The ways in which individuals and groups engage in economic activities, such as production, consumption, and trade.
Economic Privilege	The advantages and opportunities individuals or groups have due to their social and economic status.
Economic Systems	The way a society organizes and distributes its resources, goods, and services. This can include market-based systems such as capitalism or more socially-oriented systems such as socialism or communism.
Economy	The way in which resources, goods, and services are produced, distributed, and consumed within a society. It encompasses various systems, structures, and institutions that shape the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services.
Education	The process of acquiring knowledge, skills, and values through formal or informal learning experiences.
Efficiency	The maximum use of resources to achieve desired outcomes.

Ego	An individual's sense of self or identity.
Egocentric View	An individual's tendency to interpret and understand the world from their own perspective without considering the viewpoints of others.
Elder Abuse	Any type of mistreatment or harm inflicted on older adults, either physically, emotionally, or financially, by people in a position of trust or power.
Electronic Aggression	The use of technology to bully, harass, or intimidate individuals or groups.
Element of Society	The various components, including individuals, institutions, and structures that make up a society and contribute to its functioning and development.
Emancipation	The act of being liberated or freed from oppressive social, political, or economic conditions.
Emigrants	A subfield of sociology that examines the relationship between humans and their natural and built environments, and how social structures and processes influence environmental issues.
Emotional Abuse	Settings or physical surroundings in which individuals interact with each other and their surroundings.
Emotional Bias	The tendency to interpret and make decisions based on one's emotions rather than on logical reasoning or objective evidence.
Empirical Data	Information or facts gathered through direct observation and measurement rather than through personal opinions or speculation.
Empirical Evidence	Information derived from empirical data that can be used to support or refute a hypothesis or argument.
Empirical Study	A research method that involves collecting and analyzing empirical data to examine a particular phenomenon or topic.
Empty Nest Syndrome	A psychological condition where parents experience feelings of sadness, loneliness, and loss when their children leave home to live independently.
Endogamous Unions	Marriage or relationships between individuals from the same social, cultural, or religious group.
Endogamy	The practice of marrying or forming relationships within one's own social, cultural, or religious group.
Environmental Racism	The disproportionate impact of environmental hazards and pollution on marginalized communities, particularly communities of color.
Environmental Sociology	The study of the relationship between human behavior, social structures, and the natural environment.

Environments	The physical and social settings in which individuals live and interact with one another.
Epidemic Hysteria	A phenomenon where exaggerated or unfounded beliefs about a particular threat or danger fuel widespread fear and anxiety.
Equal Education	The principle that all individuals have the right to access the same quality of education without discrimination based on race, gender, or socioeconomic status.
Equal Pay Act	A federal law in the United States that prohibits employers from paying employees less based on their sex for performing equal work.
Equilibration	The process of achieving balance, stability, or harmony within a society or social system.
Established Sects	Religious groups that have existed for a significant period and have a large number of followers.
Ethical Concerns	Moral principles or values that guide individuals and societies in determining what is right or wrong, just or unjust, in a given situation.
Ethical Religions	Religious beliefs or practices that prioritize ethical values and actions, such as kindness, compassion, and justice.
Ethics of Care	A moral framework emphasizing the importance of empathy, relationships, and meeting the needs of others in ethical decision-making.
Ethnocentric Bias	A bias that favors one's own culture, beliefs, and values over others, leading to judgments and actions based on this biased perspective.
Ethnocentrism	The belief that one's own culture is superior to others, which can lead to the marginalization and discrimination of other cultures.
Ethnography	A research method that involves the detailed study and analysis of a particular culture or group, typically through immersive fieldwork and observations.
Euthanasia	The intentional and deliberate ending of a person's life to relieve pain and suffering, usually in cases of terminal illness or extreme disabilities.
Exogamous Unions	Marriage or relationships between individuals from different social or cultural groups, often in contrast to traditional endogamous unions that favor partnerships within one's own group.
Exogamy	The practice of marrying or forming relationships outside of one's own social or cultural group.
Experiment	A research method in which one or more variables are manipulated, and their effects on other variables are observed and measured.

Experimental Group	The group in an experiment that receives the experimental manipulation or treatment being tested.
Experimentation	The act of conducting experiments to explore potential cause-and-effect relationships between variables.
Explicit Prejudice	Conscious and intentional negative attitudes and beliefs held towards a particular group based on race, ethnicity, religion, or other social characteristics.
Explicit Rules	Clearly stated and openly communicated rules or guidelines that govern behavior in social contexts.
Expressive Crowd	A type of crowd that forms primarily to seek emotional expression and release, often through shared activities or experiences.
Expressive Functions	The emotional and social benefits that individuals may derive from participating in group activities and behaviors.
Expressive Leaders	Leaders who focus on maintaining and facilitating their group members' emotional well-being and cohesion, often through empathetic and supportive interactions.
Extended Family	A family structure that includes multiple generations and relatives beyond just the immediate nuclear family.
External Structures	Social, economic, political, and cultural systems that exist outside of individuals but still have an impact on their lives and behaviors.
External Validity	The extent to which the results of a research study can be generalized or applied to other contexts and populations beyond the one being studied.
Extraneous Variable	A variable that may influence the outcome of a research study but is not the variable of interest being studied.
Extroversion	A personality trait characterized by outgoing, sociable, and energetic behavior, as well as a preference for stimulation and interaction with others.
Exurbs	Areas beyond the suburbs, typically located in rural or undeveloped regions but still accessible to urban areas, often with a lower population density and a higher proportion of wealthier residents.
False Consciousness	A concept from Marxist theory referring to a lack of awareness or understanding among the working class about their own exploitation and the true nature of their social and economic conditions.
Family Development	The processes and stages a family unit goes through over time, including formation, expansion, and eventual dissolution or changes in family roles.

Family Life Course	The various stages and transitions that individuals and families go throughout their lives, including early adulthood, marriage, parenthood, and retirement.
Family Lineage	A family's descent or ancestral line, often tracing back multiple generations.
Family of Orientation	Also known as the "family of origin," this term refers to the family in which an individual is born and raised.
Family of Procreation	This term refers to the family an individual forms through marriage, cohabitation, or having children.
Fecundity	This term refers to the physical ability of women to bear children.
Federal Communications Commission	A government agency in the United States that regulates communications by radio, television, wire, satellite, and cable.
Felony	A serious crime that is typically punishable by imprisonment for more than one year, often involving violence or significant harm to individuals or society. Examples include murder, robbery, and rape.
Femininity	The set of qualities and attributes traditionally associated with women, including nurturing, sensitivity, and emotional expression.
Feminist Perspective	A sociological approach that focuses on understanding and challenging gender inequalities and how gender shapes social interactions, structures, and institutions.
Feminist Theory	A theoretical framework that examines how gender inequalities are perpetuated and seeks to understand and challenge gender-based oppression and discrimination.
Fertility Rate	An indicator that measures the average number of children born to women of childbearing age in a specific population.
Fibromyalgia	A chronic condition characterized by widespread musculoskeletal pain, fatigue, and other symptoms such as sleep problems and memory impairment.
Figuration	The dynamic interconnection between individuals and society and how their actions and interactions shape and are shaped by larger social structures.
Figurational Framework	A sociological theory developed by Norbert Elias that focuses on the interdependence between individuals and society, and how patterns of human interactions shape social processes and structures.
Filial Piety	A Confucian value that emphasizes respect, obedience, and devotion towards one's parents and ancestors.

Financial Abuse	A form of domestic or elder abuse that involves the control, exploitation, or misuse of a person's financial resources by someone in a position of power, such as a partner or caregiver.
Forcible Rape	Non-consensual sexual intercourse or penetration that occurs against someone's will, often through the use of physical force or threats.
Formal Deviance	Behaviors or actions that go against social norms, values, and rules, and are punishable by law.
Formal Education	The structured and intentional process of learning and acquiring knowledge, skills, and values through institutions such as schools, colleges, and universities.
Formal Organizations	A type of social group or institution that has defined roles, responsibilities, and rules and operates under a hierarchy of authority.
Foundational Sociology	The classical and traditional theories, concepts, and approaches in sociology that form the basis of modern sociological inquiry. These include works by influential figures such as Karl Marx, Max Weber, and Emile Durkheim.
Foundational Theories	The fundamental principles or ideas that serve as the basis for understanding social phenomena and shaping sociological perspectives.
Frame Alignment Process	A sociological concept that refers to the process by which social movements and collective action efforts mobilize individuals by framing actions, events, or issues in a way that resonates with their beliefs, values, and interests.
Functionalism	A sociological perspective that views society as a complex system in which different parts work together to maintain stability and social order.
Functions of Leadership	The roles, responsibilities, and tasks that individuals in positions of leadership must fulfill to effectively guide and influence group or organizational behavior, decision-making, and success.
Gatekeeping	The process by which individuals or groups control access to resources, opportunities, and information, thus influencing the distribution of power and privilege within a society.
Gemeinschaft	A type of social organization characterized by strong personal ties, close-knit relationships, and a sense of community; based on shared culture, values, and traditions.
Gender	A socially constructed concept that refers to the characteristics, behaviors, and roles a particular society associates with being male or female.
Gender Discrimination	The unjust or prejudicial treatment of individuals or groups based on their gender identity or expression, often resulting in barriers to equal opportunities and resources.

Gender Dysphoria	A psychological condition where an individual experiences distress or discomfort due to a discrepancy between their assigned gender and their gender identity.
Gender Equality	The belief in equal rights, opportunities, and treatment for people of all genders, regardless of their assigned sex at birth.
Gender Identity	A person's internal sense of their gender, which may or may not align with their assigned sex at birth.
Gender Inequality	The unequal treatment or distribution of resources, opportunities, and power based on gender, often resulting in disadvantage and discrimination towards one gender.
Gender Pay Gap	The difference in earnings between men and women, often attributed to systemic inequality and discrimination against women in the workforce.
Gender Power Dynamics	How power and privilege are distributed and maintained within a society based on gender, resulting in unequal relationships and hierarchies.
Gender Roles	The social expectations and norms for behaviors, attitudes, and activities that are considered appropriate for individuals of a particular gender.
Gender Stereotypes	Oversimplified and often harmful beliefs about the characteristics, behavior, and roles of individuals based on their gender.
Gender-based Violence	Any form of violence or abuse that is perpetrated against an individual or group based on their gender, often rooted in power and gender inequality.
Gender-specific	Relating to or affecting only one gender, often used in reference to social behaviors, roles, and expectations.
Generational Shifts	Changes in attitudes, values, and behaviors across different generations within a society.
Gentrification	The process of renovating and improving a neighborhood, often leading to displacement of low-income residents and changes in the cultural and socioeconomic landscape of the area.
Geographic Region	A specific area or location defined by physical or cultural boundaries.
Gerontocracy	A societal structure where older adults hold the majority of power and influence.
Gerontology	The study of aging and older adults, including the social, psychological, and physical aspects of the aging process.
Gesellschaft	A type of social organization characterized by impersonal relationships, individualism, and a focus on achievement and success.

Gestures	Nonverbal actions and movements that convey a message or meaning in a given cultural context.
Glass Ceiling	An invisible barrier that prevents certain groups, particularly women and minorities, from reaching top positions in the workplace.
Global Assembly Lines	A system of production where different stages of product manufacturing are spread out across different countries, often resulting in the exploitation of cheap labor in developing countries.
Global Commodity Chains	A network of production and distribution that connects companies from different countries, often resulting in global uneven development, exploitation, and unequal distribution of profits.
Global Inequality	The unequal distribution of resources, opportunities, and power among individuals and societies globally.
Global Stratification	The hierarchical system that ranks countries and individuals based on their economic, political, and social status in relation to the rest of the world.
Global Values	Shared beliefs, attitudes, and norms that are deemed important and desirable on a global scale.
Globalization	The process of increasing interconnectedness and interdependence among countries, resulting in the exchange of goods, ideas, and cultures.
Great Recession	A period of global economic downturn that began in 2007 and lasted until 2009, resulting in high unemployment rates and financial instability.
Greenpeace	An international non-governmental environmental organization that advocates for environmental preservation and protection.
Grief	A complex emotion and psychological process that individuals experience in response to loss or significant changes.
Group Identity	The sense of belonging, connection, and identification with a specific group based on shared characteristics, experiences, and values.
Groupthink	A phenomenon where the desire for group harmony and consensus overrides critical thinking and leads to flawed decision-making.
Gumplowicz Conflict Theory	A sociological theory that emphasizes the importance of conflict and competition in shaping societies, often citing factors such as ethnicity, religion, and class as sources of conflict.
Habitualization	The process by which behaviors, attitudes, and beliefs become routine and automatic through repeated exposure and practice.

Hate Crimes	Criminal acts motivated by bias or prejudice against a certain group, such as race, religion, sexual orientation, or gender identity.
Health Disparities	Differences in health outcomes and access to healthcare between different social, economic, and demographic groups.
Henotheistic	The belief in and worship of multiple gods, but with one deity recognized as supreme.
Heterogeneous	A group or society that is diverse and made up of individuals with varying characteristics, backgrounds, and beliefs.
Heterosexuality	The sexual and romantic attraction between individuals of the opposite gender.
Hidden Curriculum	The implicit, unspoken lessons and values learned through the structure and interactions within an educational institution.
High Validity	The degree to which a research study accurately measures what it intends to measure.
High-income Countries	Countries with a high standard of living and strong economies, typically characterized by industrialization and a high GDP per capita.
Homelessness	The state of having no permanent, safe, and stable place to live.
Homeschooling	The education of children at home, typically by their parents or caregivers, rather than in a traditional school setting.
Homines Aperti	The concept of "open-ended" or fluid gender categories and identities, recognizing that gender is not binary.
Homo Clausus	The belief that genetic and biological inheritance determine an individual's social status and place in society.
Homogamy	The tendency for individuals to form romantic relationships and marry others who have similar social characteristics, such as race, education level, and socioeconomic status.
Homosexual	The sexual and romantic attraction between individuals of the same gender.
Hospice	A specialized care program that provides physical, emotional, and spiritual support for individuals with life-limiting illnesses and their families.
Hostile Sexism	Negative attitudes and beliefs towards individuals of a certain gender, often accompanied by discriminatory behavior and beliefs in traditional gender roles.
Human Ecology	The study of the interactions between humans and their social and physical environments.

Human Ingenuity	The ability of humans to think creatively and develop unique solutions to problems.
Hypothesis	An informed prediction or educated guess about the relationship between variables, used to guide research and testing.
Id	In sociology, id refers to the unconscious and instinctive part of the human psyche that is driven by basic urges and desires.
Ideal Culture	This term refers to the values, beliefs, and norms a society or group strives to achieve or uphold.
Idealize	In sociology, idealize refers to the process of viewing someone or something in an ideal or perfect way.
Immigrants	Persons who move from one country to another intending to settle there permanently.
Immigration	The process of people moving to a new country to live there permanently.
Impairment	A physical or mental limitation that affects an individual's ability to function in society.
Imperialism	A policy or practice of a country extending its power and influence through diplomacy or military force over other territories or countries.
Impersonality	A term used to describe social relationships that are characterized by a lack of personal connection or emotional involvement.
Impression Management	The conscious or subconscious process that individuals use to control or shape the perceptions others have of them.
In-group	A social group to which an individual feels they belong and identify with, typically sharing similar interests, beliefs, and values.
In-group Bias	The tendency to favor and show positive attitudes towards members of one's own in-group, often at the expense of those in out-groups.
Independent Variable	In sociology, this refers to a factor or condition that is considered to have an effect on another variable being studied.
Individual Discrimination	Prejudiced or harmful actions directed towards an individual based on their group membership.
Industrial Revolution	A period of rapid social and economic change marked by the transition from manual labor to machine-based manufacturing and industrialization.
Infant Mortality	The death of a child before their first birthday.

Informal Deviance	Behaviors that violate social norms but are not necessarily considered criminal, and are often subject to social disapproval.
Informal Education	Learning that occurs outside of a formal educational setting, such as in the family, workplace, or community.
Informal Organizations	Social groups or networks that emerge naturally among individuals with shared interests or goals rather than being formally established.
Information Society	A society in which the production, distribution, and consumption of information plays a significant role in the economy and everyday life.
Informational Conformity	The tendency to conform to the opinions or behaviors of others when we are uncertain or lacking knowledge in a particular situation.
Informed Consent	A legal and ethical concept that requires individuals to be fully informed and able to freely make decisions about their participation in activities or procedures.
Informed Decisions	Choices made after careful consideration of all available information and potential consequences.
Infrastructure	The basic physical and organizational structures and facilities necessary for the functioning of a society, such as roads, power grids, and communication systems.
Inner City	The urban area at the center of a city where low-income and marginalized populations often reside.
Innovation	The introduction of new ideas, inventions, or processes that can lead to significant change in society.
Innovators	Individuals who are among the first to adopt new ideas or practices and play a key role in spreading innovation to others.
Institutional Agents of Socialization	The individuals or organizations that transmit societal norms, values, and beliefs to members of society, such as family, schools, and media.
Institutional Discrimination	Discriminatory practices that are built into the norms and structures of institutions, perpetuating inequality and marginalization.
Institutional Sexism	A form of discrimination that is embedded in the policies, procedures, and practices of institutions and perpetuates unequal treatment based on gender.
Institutionalization	The process by which society norms, behaviors, and practices become stable and ingrained into cultural and societal institutions.
Institutions	The structures, systems, and organizations that shape and govern societal behavior, such as government, education, and religion.

Instrumental Functions	The practical ways a social group or organization meets its objectives and maintains its existence.
Instrumental Leader	A person who takes charge and focuses on achieving goals and tasks rather than maintaining group harmony and relationships.
Intangible	Something that cannot be touched or physically measured, such as emotions, ideas, or beliefs.
Integration	In sociology, integration refers to the process of bringing different individuals, groups, or cultures together to form a cohesive society.
Interconnectedness	The idea that all things and beings are linked and influenced by each other, shaping and impacting society as a whole.
Intergenerational Effects	The impacts that events and experiences in one generation have on the following generations, shaping their attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors.
Intergenerational Mobility	The movement of individuals or groups between social classes or statuses from one generation to the next.
Internal Perception	How a person views and interprets themselves, including their thoughts, feelings, and beliefs.
Internal Structures	In sociology, this refers to the underlying systems and hierarchies that govern and organize a society, such as class, race, and gender.
Internal Validity	The extent to which a study or experiment accurately measures the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable without interference from other factors.
Internalized Sexism	The acceptance and belief in sexist attitudes and stereotypes about one's own gender, often influenced by societal messages and norms.
International	Relating to or involving two or more countries and their interactions and relationships.
Internet Service Providers	Companies or organizations that provide internet access and services to users.
Interpersonal Equality	The belief in equal rights and treatment for all individuals in social relationships, regardless of power, status, or identity differences.
Interpersonal Sexism	Discrimination, prejudice, or stereotyping based on a person's gender in interpersonal interactions and relationships.
Interpretive Approach	A sociological perspective that focuses on understanding the meaning and significance individuals give to their social worlds.

Interpretive Framework	A set of assumptions, concepts, and principles used to make sense of social phenomena and interactions.
Interpretive Sociologist	A sociologist who focuses on understanding and interpreting the meanings and significance attributed to social behavior and interactions.
Interpretivism	A theoretical approach that emphasizes the subjective interpretation of social interactions and the importance of understanding individual perspectives.
Interrelated Social Groups	The interconnectedness of different social groups within a society, with each group having distinctive identities, values, and roles.
Intersectionality	A framework that acknowledges the interconnectedness and overlap of different social identities, such as race, gender, and class, in experiencing oppression and privilege.
Intersex	Refers to individuals who are born with a combination of male and female biological characteristics, often leading to challenges in conforming to societal expectations of gender.
Intimate Partner Violence	Any violent behavior, physical or emotional, between current or former intimate partners.
Inventor	A person who creates or develops new products, processes, or ideas.
Inverted Roles	A role reversal is when individuals take on the behaviors or traits of a different gender, social class, or other societal category.
Iron Rule of Oligarchy	A sociological concept that states that in democratic organizations, power tends to become concentrated in the hands of a few individuals or a small elite group.
Jury	A group of individuals selected to hear and evaluate evidence in a legal case and determine the guilt or innocence of the accused.
Justice-based Morality	A moral system based on fairness, equality, and the belief in the value of human rights.
Kibbutz	A type of communal settlement in Israel where members share land, labor, and resources equally.
Kin	A person's blood relatives, including parents, siblings, and extended family members.
Kinship	A social bond based on genetic and legal ties, typically involving family relationships.
Knowledge Divide	The unequal distribution of information and education in society, which can contribute to social and economic disparities.

Labor Market	The arena where individuals offer their labor skills in exchange for wages or salaries.
Labor Union	An organization formed by workers to advocate for their rights and interests in the workplace.
Latent Functions	The unintended or unrecognized consequences of social structures and institutions.
Legitimation	The process by which a social system or institution is accepted and deemed legitimate or valid by its members.
Leisure Activities	Non-work-related activities that individuals engage in for enjoyment, relaxation, or personal fulfillment.
Lesson Plans	A detailed outline or guide used by educators to plan instruction for a particular lesson or topic.
Libel	A false and damaging written or published statement about a person or entity.
Liberal Feminism	A form of feminism that focuses on achieving gender equality through legal and political reform, as well as promoting individual autonomy and freedom for women.
Liberal Perspective	A sociological viewpoint that emphasizes individual agency and freedom and advocates for a limited role of government in society.
Liberation Theology	A religious and political movement that seeks to address social and economic injustices, particularly among the oppressed and marginalized, through the lens of Christian teachings.
Libertarians	Individuals who prioritize individual freedom and limited government intervention, often advocating for a free market and minimal regulations.
Life Course	The social and psychological trajectory of an individual's life, including major life events, transitions, and social roles.
Life Course Method	A theoretical and methodological approach in sociology that examines how individual lives are shaped by historical context, social structures, and personal agency.
Literature Review	A comprehensive and critical evaluation of existing scholarly research on a particular topic.
Lobbyist	An individual or group hired to influence government policies and decisions on behalf of a particular organization or interest.
Looking-glass Self	The concept that an individual's sense of self is developed through interpersonal interactions and how others perceive them.

Low-income Countries	Countries with relatively low levels of economic development and income per capita.
Macro	The level of analysis in sociology that focuses on large-scale systems, structures, and institutions rather than individual behavior or interactions.
Macro-level Perspective	A sociological viewpoint that focuses on large-scale social structures and institutions, such as governments, economies, and social classes.
Macro-level Theory	A theory in sociology that seeks to explain large-scale social phenomena and patterns in society.
Malthusian theory	A sociological theory proposed by Thomas Malthus suggests that population growth will eventually outpace food production and lead to social and environmental crises.
Manifest Functions	The intended, recognized, and observable consequences of social institutions and actions.
Marginalize People	To push individuals or groups to the fringes of society, often resulting in limited opportunities and social exclusion.
Marginalized	Describes individuals or groups who are pushed to the outskirts of society and often face limited opportunities and social exclusion.
Market Socialism	An economic system in which the means of production are primarily owned and controlled by the government but operate in a market-based economy.
Market-based Country	A country that relies heavily on market forces and competition in economic activities.
Marriage	A legally recognized union between two individuals, typically involving shared economic resources and social obligations.
Marxist Feminism	A feminist perspective that combines Marxist analysis of capitalism and social class with the study of gender oppression to understand the ways in which women are subordinated and exploited in society.
Masculine	Describes traits, behaviors, and characteristics associated with traditional societal expectations of males.
Masculine Bias	A societal tendency to favor traits, behaviors, and characteristics traditionally associated with males.
Masculinity	The cultural and societal expectations, attitudes, and behaviors associated with being male.
Mass Behavior	Collective actions and behaviors of large groups of individuals that are shaped by societal factors.

Mass Hysteria	A phenomenon in which a large number of people simultaneously experience intense anxiety, fear, or other negative emotions.
Mass Media	Forms of communication, such as television, newspapers, and the internet that reach a large audience and can shape public opinion and perceptions.
Mass Movements	Large-scale, organized efforts by individuals or groups to promote social or political change.
Mass Psychosis	A state in which a large number of people have shared, often irrational, beliefs and behaviors.
Material Culture	Tangible objects and physical artifacts created by humans, often reflecting the values, beliefs, and behaviors of a society.
Matriarchy	A social system in which women hold power and authority over men.
Matrilineal	A kinship system in which ancestry and inheritance are traced through the female line.
Matrilocal	A family structure in which the husband moves into the wife's household after marriage.
Measurement	The process of assigning numerical values to variables to describe and understand phenomena scientifically.
Media Consolidation	The process by which a small number of large corporations or conglomerates control a significant proportion of media outlets and content.
Media Globalization	The increasing interconnectedness and integration of media systems and content across national borders.
Median Age	The age at which half of the population is younger, and half is older.
Medical Sociology	The study of how social factors, such as race, class, and gender, influence health and healthcare systems.
Medicalization	The process by which non-medical issues or behaviors become defined and treated as medical problems.
Medicalization of Deviance	The labeling of non-normative behaviors as medical conditions, leading to diagnosis and treatment within the medical system.
Megalopolis	A large urban region formed by the coalescence of several major cities and their surrounding areas.
Mental Health	The state of psychological well-being and functioning, often influenced by societal and environmental factors.

Meritocracy	A social system in which individuals are rewarded and promoted based on their abilities and achievements.
Meta-analysis	A research method in which multiple studies on a particular topic are synthesized and analyzed to provide a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon.
Metaphysical Stage	A stage in Auguste Comte's theory of the development of human thought, characterized by a focus on abstract concepts, such as religion and philosophy.
Methodological Problems	Challenges or issues in the process or methods of conducting research studies.
Methods	Systematic approaches and techniques used to gather, analyze, and interpret data to answer research questions.
Metropolitan Area	A large urban region encompassing a central city and its surrounding suburbs and rural areas.
Micro	A prefix used in sociology to indicate a focus on individual-level phenomena and processes.
Micro-level Approach	A sociological perspective that focuses on individual-level interactions and behaviors in social contexts.
Microanalytical Level	The smallest level of analysis used in sociology, focusing on individual-level interactions and behaviors.
Mid-level Analyses	An approach to studying social phenomena that focuses on groups, institutions, or social structures between the individual and societal levels of analysis.
Migrant	A person who moves from one location to another, typically due to employment, economic, or social reasons.
Migration	The movement of individuals or populations from one geographic location to another.
Minority	A group that holds a smaller proportion of political, economic, or social power in society compared to the dominant group.
Minority Group	A group whose members share a distinct set of cultural, racial, ethnic, or religious characteristics that are viewed as different from those of the dominant group in society.
Miscegenation	The interbreeding or mixing of different racial or ethnic groups, often considered taboo in certain societies.
Misdemeanor	A minor criminal offense, often punishable by a fine, community service, or a short jail sentence.
Misogyny	Prejudice, contempt, or hatred directed towards women as a group.

Mixed Method	A research approach that combines qualitative and quantitative methods to gain a more comprehensive understanding of a research topic.
Mobilization	The process of organizing and rallying individuals or groups to take action for a particular cause or goal.
Mobilization for Action	An approach to social change that involves grassroots efforts and collective action at the community level.
Mobs	Large and often disorderly groups of people with a common purpose or mission.
Modernization	The process of adopting modern, Western values and institutions, often seen as a necessary step towards progress and development.
Modernization theory	A sociological and economic theory that posits that economic development and societal change occur in a predictable, linear progression towards a modern, Western model of society.
Monarchy	A form of government in which a monarch, such as a king or queen, holds the highest position of power.
Monogamy	The practice or custom of being married to only one person at a time.
Monopolization	The process of gaining control over a particular market or industry, often resulting in increased prices and limited competition.
Monotheism	The belief in and worship of a single god or deity.
Mood Disorders	A group of mental health disorders characterized by disruptions in emotions, including depression and bipolar disorder.
Moral Development	The process of acquiring and internalizing societal values and ethical standards, often influenced by family, peers, and social institutions.
Moral Panic	A widespread fear or concern about a perceived threat to societal values or norms.
Moral Reasoning	The cognitive process of thinking through ethical dilemmas and making decisions based on moral principles.
Morbidity	The presence of disease or illness in a particular population or group.
Mores	Social norms and customs that are widely accepted and considered essential for the functioning of society.
Mortality Rate	The number of deaths within a population over a specified period.
Motivational Framing	The way in which a message or issue is presented to elicit certain emotions and behaviors from the audience.

Multiculturalism	A social and political philosophy that promotes the coexistence and celebration of different cultural groups within a society.
Multigenerational	Relating to or spanning multiple generations within a family or social group.
National Crime	Criminal acts that are defined and punishable by law within a specific nation or country.
Natural Sciences	Scientific disciplines that study the natural world, including subjects such as biology, chemistry, physics, and geology.
Naturally-occurring Divisions	Social divisions that arise naturally and are not deliberately created, such as gender, race, and age.
Negative Correlation	A relationship between two variables in which an increase in one variable leads to a decrease in the other variable.
Negative Formal Sanctions	Punishments or consequences imposed by official institutions, such as the government or legal system, for violating social norms or laws.
Negative Informal Sanctions	Social disapproval or punishment for breaking social norms that is not enforced by official institutions, but rather by the disapproval of peers or other members of society.
Neolocality	The cultural practice of a newly married couple establishing their own independent residence rather than living with either partner's family.
Net Migration	The difference between the number of people immigrating to a country and the number of people emigrating from that country.
Net Neutrality	The principle that all internet traffic should be treated equally by internet service providers, without discrimination or preference based on content or source.
New Money	Wealth acquired relatively recently, often through entrepreneurship, rather than being inherited or acquired through traditional means.
New Social Movement Theory	A sociological theory that examines the emergence of new forms of social movements, particularly those that challenge traditional power structures and seek to create social change through collective action.
No Space to Question	An environment or culture where individuals are not encouraged or allowed to ask questions or critically examine social norms or beliefs.
Nomadic	A lifestyle characterized by continually moving from one place to another, often in search of resources or better living conditions.
Nomadic Life	A lifestyle in which individuals or groups live nomadically, traveling and living in temporary settlements.

Non-binary	A gender identity that does not fit neatly into the categories of male and female, often used as an umbrella term to describe gender identities beyond the gender binary.
Non-Discriminators	Individuals who do not engage in discriminatory behavior based on characteristics such as race, gender, or sexual orientation.
Non-traditional Families	Family structures that do not follow the traditional nuclear family model, such as single-parent families, blended families, or households with same-sex parents.
Nongovernmental Organizations	Non-profit organizations that operate independently from governments and often work towards social or environmental goals.
Nonmaterial Culture	The intangible aspects of a culture, such as beliefs, values, norms, and symbols.
Nonreactive Research	A research method that does not interfere with or change the natural behavior of the subjects being studied, often used to study behavior in a more natural setting.
Nontheism	A belief system in which an individual or group does not adhere to any specific religion or deity and does not necessarily reject the existence of a higher power.
Nonverbal	Communication or behavior that does not involve using words or language, such as facial expressions, gestures, or body language.
Normative Conformity	The act of adjusting one's behavior or beliefs to align with societal norms or expectations, even if they do not necessarily align with one's personal values.
Normative Organizations	Social groups or institutions that have a defined set of norms, values, and rules that guide the behavior of its members.
Norms	Socially and culturally constructed rules and expectations that guide and regulate individual and group behavior.
Nuclear Family	A social unit composed of a married couple and their dependent children, considered to be the most basic and traditional form of family structure.
Obedience	The act of complying with commands or instructions from authority figures or social norms.
Objective Truths	Facts and realities that are independent of personal feelings, opinions, and perspectives.
Objectivity	The state or quality of being unbiased and free from personal biases or opinions.
Occupy Wall Street	A social movement that began in 2011 in New York City, USA, and spread to other cities worldwide.
Old Money	Individuals or families who have inherited their wealth and continue to hold high social and economic positions.

Oligarchy	A form of government or social system in which power is held by a small group of individuals or families.
Oligopoly	A market structure in which a few large companies dominate an industry and control the supply and pricing of goods or services.
Open-access	The free and unrestricted availability of information, resources, or opportunities to all individuals regardless of their socio-economic status.
Operational Definitions	Clear and specific descriptions of how variables are measured and observed in a research study.
Oppressed	Individuals or groups who experience systematic social, economic, or political disadvantage and discrimination.
Oppressive Power	The ability of individuals or groups to maintain control and dominance over others through systemic and oppressive practices. In sociology, this concept is often used to analyze power dynamics and social inequalities.
Oppressor	An individual or group who holds power and uses it to maintain control and dominance over others through systemic and oppressive practices.
Organizational Structures	How a group, organization, or institution is arranged and functions.
Organized Crime	A group or network of individuals who engage in criminal activities in a coordinated and systematic manner.
Organized Social Dynamics	The patterns of behavior and interactions that occur within groups and institutions.
Ostracized	Individuals or groups who are excluded or shunned from mainstream society due to their differences in beliefs, practices, or social characteristics.
Out-group Derogation	The negative attitudes and behaviors that individuals or groups may display towards those perceived as different or outside of their own group.
Outliers	Data points or individuals that deviate significantly from the norm or average.
Outsourcing	The practice of obtaining goods, services, or labor from an external source rather than producing them in-house.
Panoptic Surveillance	A type of surveillance that involves constant and comprehensive observation of a population or group, often through the use of technology or structures such as the panopticon prison design.
Paradigm	A set of theoretical or methodological assumptions and beliefs that guide research and understanding within a particular field or discipline, often used to refer to overarching sociological theories or frameworks.

Parental Duties	The responsibilities and obligations that parents have towards their children, including providing basic needs, guiding and protecting them, and teaching them social norms and values.
Participant Observation	A research method in which the researcher actively participates in the social setting being studied to gain a deeper understanding of the group's culture, behaviors, and interactions.
Patents	Legal protections that grant the exclusive rights to produce and sell an invention or innovation for a period of time, often used in discussions of the ownership and distribution of resources.
Patriarchy	A system of society and social organization in which men hold primary power and authority, often resulting in the subordination of women and the prioritization of male perspectives and needs.
Patrilineal	A kinship system in which family identity, property, and inheritance are passed down through the male line, often favoring male descendants.
Patrilocal	A cultural practice in which a newly married couple lives with or near the husband's family, often resulting in a continuation of patriarchal power and influence within the household.
Patrimonialism	A government or social organization system in which power and resources are controlled and distributed through personal and familial relationships, often resulting in corruption and favoritism.
Peasant Class	A social class made up of rural agricultural workers or small-scale farmers who often have a low social standing and limited access to resources and opportunities.
Peer Groups	A social group of individuals who share similar age, status, and interests and often have a strong influence on an individual's attitudes, behaviors, and socialization.
Peoples Temple	A religious organization founded by Jim Jones in the 1950s, known for its mass suicide in 1978 in Jonestown, Guyana.
Peripheral Nations	Countries or regions with low economic development, which are often exploited by more powerful nations for resources and cheap labor.
Personality Disorders	A group of mental health disorders characterized by patterns of thinking, feeling, and behaving that deviate from societal norms and cause distress and impairment in functioning.
Perspective	An individual's point of view or understanding of a particular situation, influenced by their unique experiences, values, and beliefs.

Phenomena	Observable events or occurrences in the world that are subject to study and analysis within sociology and other fields.
Physical Environment	The natural and built surroundings in which individuals and societies live, including climate, landforms, plants, animals, and human-made structures, which can impact behavior and social interactions.
Physical Health	The overall physical well-being of an individual, including factors such as nutrition, exercise, access to healthcare, and disease prevention.
Physical Needs	Basic requirements for survival and functioning, such as food, water, shelter, and safety, which are essential for human development and social well-being.
Physical Violence	The use of physical force or aggression by one individual or group against another, often with the intent to cause harm or exert control.
Physician-assisted Suicide	A controversial practice in which a physician provides a terminally ill patient with the means to end their own life, often used in discussions of end-of-life care and medical ethics.
Physician's Role	The functions and responsibilities that a medical doctor or healthcare professional has within a society, including diagnosing and treating illnesses, promoting public health, and often serving as a gatekeeper to specialized medical care.
Pidgin	A simplified language or communication system that combines elements of two or more languages, commonly used among people who do not share a common language.
Placebo Effect	The improvement of symptoms or health outcomes that occur in some individuals taking a placebo (an inactive substance) due to their belief that they are receiving a beneficial treatment.
Pluralistic Society	A society characterized by diversity and tolerance of different cultural, social, and religious groups.
Polarization	A division or separation of groups, people, or ideas into opposing and often extreme positions or views.
Political Action Committees	Organizations that pool and donate money to political campaigns and influence legislation and elections in support of their political interests.
Political Economies	The study of how political and economic systems interact and influence one another in a society.
Political Ideologies	A set of beliefs and values that shape political thinking and actions, often promoting specific visions for society and policies to achieve them.

Political Revolutions	Major and often violent social and political upheaval that seeks to radically change or overthrow an existing government or societal system.
Political Structures	The systems, institutions, and processes that govern and organize political life in a society, including government bodies, laws, and regulations.
Politics	The activities and processes involved in making and implementing decisions that affect society as a whole, including the distribution of power and resources.
Polygamy	A marriage practice in which an individual has multiple spouses at the same time, often defined as having more than one spouse of a different gender.
Pop Culture	The mainstream and popular culture of a society, encompassing entertainment, fashion, trends, and other elements that are widely embraced and consumed by the general population.
Population	The total number of people living in a specific area or region.
Population Composition	The characteristics and demographics of a population, including age, gender, ethnicity, and income.
Population Growth Rate	The rate at which a population increases or decreases over a certain period of time, often expressed as a percentage.
Population Pyramid	A graphical representation of a population's age and gender distribution, with the youngest age groups at the bottom and the oldest age groups at the top.
Pornography	Sexually explicit images, videos, or literature that are created and distributed for arousal or gratification.
Positive Correlation	A relationship between two variables where an increase in one variable is associated with an increase in the other.
Positive Functions	The beneficial consequences or outcomes of a social structure or institution within a society.
Positive Informal Sanctions	The rewards or positive consequences given by individuals or groups in response to conforming behavior rather than formal punishments imposed by authorities.
Positive Prejudice	A positive attitude or belief towards a particular social group, which may lead to unfair treatment or bias towards other social groups.
Positivism	A theoretical perspective that uses the scientific method to study social phenomena and believes that social reality can be objectively measured and observed.
Positivist Approach	The use of scientific methods and principles to study social phenomena, focusing on observable data and measurable outcomes.

Positivist Sociologist	A sociologist who adheres to the positivist approach and believes that social phenomena can be studied objectively using the scientific method.
Postmodern Society	A society is characterized by rejecting traditional norms and values and a constantly changing and fluid social reality.
Poverty Guideline	A set income threshold determined by the government to determine eligibility for certain social welfare programs.
Poverty Line	The minimum income level deemed necessary to cover basic expenses and sustain a standard of living acceptable within a society.
Poverty Rate	The percentage of the population living below the poverty line in a given society or country.
Poverty Threshold	The minimum income level necessary for an individual or family to meet their basic needs and maintain a sustained standard of living.
Power Dynamics	The ways in which power is distributed and exercised within a society or social group.
Power Structure	The hierarchical organization and distribution of power within a society or social group.
Power Struggle	A conflict or competition between individuals or groups for control or influence within a society.
Power-elite Model	A perspective that views power as concentrated in the hands of a small, wealthy, and influential elite group within society.
Pre-existing Characteristics	The personal attributes or traits an individual possesses before a situation or event.
Precipitating Factors	Events or circumstances that trigger or contribute to the onset of a particular behavior or social phenomenon.
Preconscious	Mental processes and thoughts that are not currently in conscious awareness but can be easily accessed and brought into consciousness.
Predestination	The belief that an individual's fate or destiny is predetermined by a higher power.
Predictability	The degree to which future events or behaviors can be anticipated based on past patterns or knowledge.
Premarital Sex	Sexual activity occurring before marriage or without the intention of marriage.
Price Volatility	The fluctuation of prices for goods and services, often influenced by external factors such as supply and demand, economic conditions, or market trends.

Primary Aging	The natural, inevitable physical and biological changes that occur as a person ages.
Primary Deviance	An isolated or occasional act of deviant behavior, often not seen as a reflection of the individual's character or identity.
Primary Socialization	The initial and most important stage in the socialization process where individuals learn the cultural norms, values, and beliefs of their society.
Print Media	The use of printed materials, such as newspapers, magazines, and books, as a means of communication and information dissemination within a society.
Proclamation	A public or official announcement made by a government, organizational, or religious authority.
Profane	Ordinary, everyday aspects of life that are not considered spiritual or sacred.
Profession	A recognized and specialized occupation or vocation that requires advanced education, training, and adherence to ethical standards.
Profit Motive	The drive or motivation of individuals or organizations to make a profit, often at the expense of others.
Prognostic Framing	A method of presenting information or messages that focuses on predicting the future consequences of a particular issue or action.
Proletariat	The working class, often associated with the Marxist theory of the class struggle between the working class and the wealthy elite.
Prostitution	The exchange of sexual services for money or other forms of compensation.
Protective	Actions or policies intended to prevent harm or provide safety and security to individuals or groups within society.
Proximity	The physical or geographical closeness of individuals or groups, which can influence their interactions and relationships.
Psychology	The study of the mind and behavior of individuals and how they interact with and are influenced by their social environment.
Puritan Ethic	The values and beliefs of early Puritans in colonial America that emphasized frugality, hard work, and a strict moral code.
Pygmalion Effect	The phenomenon where people's expectations of another person's behavior or performance can influence the actual outcome.
Qualitative Analysis	The examination and interpretation of non-numerical data, such as words, images, and themes, to understand social phenomena.

Qualitative Methodologies	Research methods that focus on understanding the meanings and experiences of individuals as they relate to social phenomena.
Qualitative Research	A research approach that seeks to understand social phenomena using methods such as interviews, observations, and textual analysis.
Quality of Life	The overall well-being and satisfaction of an individual or group within a society beyond basic economic or material measures.
Quantitative Analysis	The use of statistical methods and techniques to collect, analyze, and interpret numerical data to understand social phenomena.
Quantitative Data	Numerical information collected through surveys, experiments, statistical records, etc.
Quantitative Methodologies	Research methods that focus on collecting and analyzing numerical data to understand social phenomena.
Quasi-experiments	Research studies that resemble true experiments but lack full control over variables due to ethical or practical limitations.
Quaternary Sector	The part of the economy that involves the production and dissemination of information and knowledge, often through technology and intellectual labor.
Queer Theory	A perspective that challenges traditional notions of gender and sexuality and emphasizes the heterogeneity and fluidity of human identities and behaviors.
Quid Pro Quo	The exchange of goods, services, or favors between individuals, typically with the expectation of mutual benefit.
Quinary Sectors	The highest level of economic activities that involves high-level decision-making, research, and development.
Qur'an	The holy book of Islam, believed to be the word of God and a sacred text for Muslims.
Race	A socially constructed concept that categorizes people based on shared physical characteristics and cultural traits.
Race-integration	The process of assimilation and inclusion of different racial groups within a society.
Racial Minority	A group with a smaller population and less power and influence within a society than other racial groups.
Racial Steering	The practice of real estate agents to direct or limit housing options for individuals or families based on their race.

Racialization	The social process of constructing and reinforcing racial categories and identities within a society.
Radical Feminism	A perspective that views patriarchy and the oppression of women as a central issue to be addressed in order to achieve gender equality.
Random Assignment	The use of chance to assign participants to different groups or conditions in a research study, minimizing bias and increasing the validity of the results.
Rational Thinking	Decision-making or problem-solving based on logical reasoning and objective analysis.
Rational-legal Authority	A form of authority grounded in laws, rules, and regulations rather than personal or traditional sources of authority.
Rationalization	The process of organizing and managing society according to rational and efficient principles, often at the expense of traditional or moral considerations.
Rationalization Thesis	Refers to Max Weber's theory that the modern world is characterized by increased rationality and efficiency, leading to a more bureaucratic and impersonal society.
Reactive	Behavior or actions that respond to a situation rather than planned or intentional.
Real Culture	The actual behavior and practices of individuals and groups within a society, as opposed to the ideal or normative culture.
Rebellion	A collective or organized resistance or opposition against a group or system of authority.
Rebels	Individuals who actively resist or oppose the dominant norms or systems of a society.
Recession	An economic downturn characterized by a significant decline in economic activity, profits, and employment.
Redlining	The discriminatory practice of denying services, such as housing or loans, to individuals or communities based on their race or ethnicity.
Reference Group	A group of people used as a standard for comparison in shaping one's attitudes, behaviors, and beliefs.
Reform Movements	Organized efforts to bring about social or political change through nonviolent means, often to address a perceived social injustice or inequality.
Relational Ethnography	A research method that explores relationships between individuals and how they affect social dynamics.

Relationship	The connections or bonds between individuals or groups based on various factors such as kinship, friendship, or mutual interests.
Relative Poverty	A measure of poverty that compares an individual or group's income to the average income of the general population within a society.
Reliability	The consistency and accuracy of data collected and the likelihood of obtaining the same results if the research were to be replicated.
Religious Beliefs	A set of ideas, values, and doctrines that shape an individual's or group's spiritual and moral worldview.
Religious Norms	The customs, rules, and expectations that govern behavior and social interactions within a religious community.
Religious Rituals	The symbolic actions and practices performed within a religious context, often intended to connect individuals to a divine or spiritual realm.
Religious/Redemptive Movements	Organized efforts to bring about social change through religious beliefs and practices, often seeking salvation or redemption for society.
Remarriages	The act of getting married again after a previous marriage has ended, either through divorce or death.
Ren	The philosophical concept of "humaneness" or benevolence, which emphasizes the value of kindness, empathy, and compassion in human relationships.
Representative Democracy	A form of government in which citizens elect representatives to make decisions on their behalf.
Republicans	A political party in the United States that generally leans conservative on issues such as limited government, free market capitalism, and strong national defense.
Research Design	The overall blueprint or plan for conducting a research study, including the type of data to be collected, the methods of data collection, and the approach to data analysis.
Research Method	A specific technique or approach used to collect, analyze, and interpret data in a research study.
Research Process	The systematic and scientific approach taken to conduct a research study, including steps such as identifying a research question, designing a study, collecting and analyzing data, and drawing conclusions.
Research Strategy	The general approach or framework used to guide a research study, such as qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods.
Resistance Movements	Organized efforts by individuals or groups to resist or challenge societal norms, values, or structures.

Resocialization	The process of unlearning previous social behaviors, attitudes, and beliefs and adopting new ones, often due to changes in one's environment or social status.
Resource Mobilization Theory	A sociological theory that explains social movements as the result of the mobilization of resources, such as money, people, and media attention.
Retirement	The stage in a person's life when they stop working and leave the workforce, often due to reaching a certain age or meeting eligibility requirements for social security or a pension.
Retreatism	A form of deviance where individuals withdraw from society and reject both societal norms and goals.
Retreatists	Individuals who reject both traditional societal norms and goals and withdraw from society to live a life of "dropping out."
Retrospective Labeling	The process of attaching a deviant label to a person or group based on their past behavior, often leading to self-fulfilling prophecies and continued deviance.
Revolutionary Movements	Social movements aimed at radically transforming society, often through force or violence.
Riot	A sudden and often violent public disturbance, typically involving a large crowd or group.
Rioting Crowd	A group of people engaging in behavior such as vandalism, looting, or violence in a riot.
Ritualism	A form of deviance where individuals conform to societal norms and rules but reject society's goals.
Ritualists	Individuals who conform to societal norms and rules, but reject the goals of society and instead focus on following the prescribed routines and rituals.
Rituals	Repeated and symbolic actions or behaviors with recognized meanings and purposes, often used to reinforce social bonds or values.
Robotics	The branch of engineering and technology focused on the design, development, and use of robots.
Role Conflict	A form of interpersonal conflict that occurs when a person's roles in different social contexts come into conflict, leading to tension and stress.
Role Performance	The actual behavior or actions that an individual exhibits in a specific role.
Role Set	The array of roles a person occupies in their daily life, including roles such as parent, student, and employee.

Role Strain	A form of stress that occurs when the demands of a single role become overwhelming or conflicting.
Rural	Areas or populations outside urban or suburban areas, often characterized by lower population density and a reliance on agriculture and natural resources.
Sacred	Objects, rituals, or beliefs considered holy or religiously significant by a group or society.
Sample Group	A subset of individuals chosen from a larger population to be studied or analyzed in research.
Sanctioned Deviance	Behaviors or actions considered deviant but are explicitly allowed or approved by a society or social group.
Scapegoating	The practice of blaming a specific group or individual for societal problems or issues, often leading to discrimination and persecution.
Scatter Plot	A graph used in statistical analysis to show the relationship between two variables.
Schemas	Mental structures or frameworks that shape an individual's perception and understanding of the world.
Scientific Method	A systematic approach to research that involves formulating a hypothesis, conducting experiments or collecting data, and analyzing results to draw conclusions.
Scientific Principles	General theories and laws that guide scientific research and knowledge.
Scientific Stage	A phase in human development where individuals become more rational and reliant on scientific explanations.
Secondary Aging	The physical and psychological changes that occur due to illness, injury, or lifestyle choices rather than natural aging processes.
Secondary Data Analysis	The process of using existing data collected by someone else for a different purpose.
Secondary Deviance	Continued rule-breaking and deviant behavior after someone has been labeled as deviant by society.
Sect	A subgroup within a larger religious or social group with distinctive beliefs, practices, and rituals.
Sedentary	A lifestyle characterized by little to no physical activity or movement.
Sedentary Life	A lifestyle characterized by long periods of sitting and limited physical activity.

Self-censorship	The conscious suppression of one's thoughts, ideas, or behaviors to avoid negative consequences from others.
Self-esteem	One's overall evaluation or perception of one's worth and value as a person.
Self-fulfilling Prophecy	A prediction or belief about a person or group that causes them to act in a way that ultimately confirms that prediction or belief.
Self-governing Schools	Educational institutions where students are involved in decision-making processes and have a say in their own education.
Self-image	The mental picture an individual has of themselves, influenced by their own perceptions and the perceptions of others.
Semi-sedentary	A lifestyle that involves some physical activity and movement but also includes long periods of sedentary behavior.
Senescence	The natural physical and mental decline in functioning that occurs with aging.
Service Industries	Businesses and organizations that provide services rather than tangible products.
Service Sector	A segment of the economy characterized by businesses and industries that provide services to consumers and other businesses.
Sex Ratio	The proportion of males to females in a population, often expressed as the number of males per 100 females.
Sexism	Discrimination or prejudice based on someone's gender or sex.
Sexual Assault	Any type of unwanted sexual contact or behavior, often involving force or coercion.
Sexual Harassment	Unwanted verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature, creating a hostile or offensive working or living environment.
Sexual Orientation	A person's emotional, romantic, and sexual attraction to others based on their gender identity.
Sexual Violence	Any type of coerced or non-consensual sexual act, including sexual assault and rape.
Sexuality	An individual's sexual preferences, behaviors, and identity.
Shaken Baby Syndrome	A form of physical child abuse that occurs when a baby is shaken violently, resulting in serious injury or death.
Shantytowns	Informal settlements or neighborhoods characterized by substandard housing and living conditions.

Shared Consciousness	A sense of collective identity and understanding among members of a group.
Sick Role	A social role that defines and sanctions individuals who are ill, allowing them certain rights and duties.
Simple Behavioral Contagion	The spread of specific behaviors or actions among individuals in a group or society through observation and imitation.
Slander	A defamatory statement or false spoken statement that damages someone's reputation.
Slums	Highly impoverished and overcrowded urban neighborhoods with inadequate housing and living conditions.
Social Behaviors	Actions and conduct exhibited by individuals in a social setting or group.
Social Bond Theory	A theory that explores the factors that lead individuals to conform to societal norms and rules.
Social Change	The transformation or evolution of social structures, patterns, and institutions over time.
Social Classes	A system of ranking individuals or groups in a society based on factors such as wealth, occupation, and education.
Social Conditions	The various factors and circumstances that shape an individual's life experiences, including cultural, economic, and political factors.
Social Conflict Theory	A theoretical perspective that views society as a power struggle between different groups competing for resources and influence.
Social Construction of Health	The process and social factors that influence how health and illness are defined and perceived by society.
Social Control Theory	A theoretical perspective that focuses on the mechanisms and institutions that regulate individuals' behaviors and actions.
Social Darwinism	A social theory that argues for the application of Darwin's principles of natural selection to human society, justifying social inequality and class structure.
Social Deviance	Any behavior that violates societal norms and expectations.
Social Dynamics	The study of how and why societies change over time.
Social Epidemiology	The branch of sociology that examines the social factors that influence the distribution of health and disease within a population.
Social Facilitation	The influence of others on an individual's performance in a group setting.

Social Factors	External factors or forces that shape the behaviors and interactions of individuals and groups within a society.
Social Gerontology	The study of aging individuals and the social, psychological, and biological aspects of the aging process.
Social Groups	Collections of individuals who interact and share common characteristics, interests, or goals.
Social Identification	The process of forming and maintaining a sense of identity based on one's membership in a social group.
Social Inequality	Disparities in access to resources, opportunities, and privileges between different individuals or groups in society.
Social Institutions	Established patterns of behavior and relationships that guide and regulate social life, such as family, government, education, and religion.
Social Integration	The degree to which individuals feel connected to and accepted by their society and social group.
Social Interaction	The reciprocal exchange of information, thoughts, and feelings between two or more individuals.
Social Isolation	A state of detachment and disconnection from others, often leading to negative physical and psychological effects.
Social Issues	Problems or challenges that affect society and often require collective action to address.
Social Loafing	A decline in individual effort and motivation when working in a group setting, often caused by a sense of reduced accountability.
Social Media Technologies	Online platforms and tools that allow individuals to create and share content, connect with others, and participate in virtual communities.
Social Mobility	The movement of individuals or groups between different social positions or classes.
Social Movements	Organized efforts by individuals and groups to bring about social change through collective action and activism.
Social Needs	The necessities and requirements for a satisfying and fulfilling life, including food, shelter, and social relationships.
Social Norms	Informal rules and expectations that guide and regulate behavior within a society.
Social Order	The established and stable patterns of behavior, relationships, and institutions that help maintain social stability and control.

Social Organization	The way in which individuals and groups are arranged and structured within a society.
Social Outcomes	The consequences or results of individual and collective actions within a society.
Social Phenomena	Observable and measurable patterns and behaviors that occur within a society.
Social Placement Systems	Structures and processes that determine individuals' positions and roles in society based on factors such as education, occupation, and income.
Social Power	The ability of individuals or groups to influence and control others within a society.
Social Roles	Patterns of expected behaviors and responsibilities associated with a particular position or status in society.
Social Solidarity	A sense of connection, unity, and shared values among members of a society or social group.
Social Stability	The degree to which a society maintains its established social structures and functions without significant change or disruption.
Social Status	An individual's relative position or rank in a social hierarchy.
Social Stratification	The division of individuals and groups into hierarchical layers based on factors such as wealth, power, and prestige.
Social Structure	The organized patterns of social relationships and institutions that make up a society.
Social Systems	Interconnected and interdependent patterns and processes that guide social life and behavior within a society.
Social Unity	Cohesion and cooperation among individuals and groups within a society.
Social Upheaval	Dramatic and disruptive changes in social structures and institutions within a society.
Social Variables	Factors or characteristics that influence or impact social behavior and interactions.
Socialism	A political and economic system that advocates for the collective ownership and control of resources and the redistribution of wealth.
Socialization	The process of learning and internalizing social norms, values, and expectations through social interactions and experiences.
Socialized Medicine	A healthcare system where the government is responsible for providing and funding medical services for its citizens.

Societal Assumptions	Shared beliefs and assumptions held by members of a society that guide and shape their behaviors and attitudes.
Societal Changes	Changes and shifts that occur within a society over time, affecting its social structures, norms, and values.
Societal Subordination	Systemic and institutionalized inequality and discrimination based on factors such as race, class, gender, and sexuality.
Societal Trait	A characteristic, attitude, or value that members of a society commonly share.
Sociobiology	The study of the biological and evolutionary basis of social behavior.
Socioeconomic Tiers	Categorizations of individuals or groups based on their economic status or social class.
Sociological Concepts	Ideas, theories, and frameworks used to understand and analyze social phenomena and behaviors.
Sociological Perspective	A way of looking at and understanding the world based on social structures, interactions, and institutions.
Sociological Theory	A systematic and explanatory framework used to analyze and interpret social phenomena and behavior.
Sociology	The scientific study of human society, social behavior, and relationships.
Solidarity	A sense of unity, shared purpose, and support among individuals in a group or society.
Spirit of Capitalism	A cultural and psychological orientation towards hard work, discipline, and profit maximization, often associated with the rise of capitalism.
Stability	The ability of a system or society to maintain its structures and functions without significant change or disruption.
Standard of Living	The level of material comfort and well-being experienced by individuals and households within a society.
Stateless Societies	Culturally and politically complex societies without a centralized authority or government.
Statistical Analyses	Methods and techniques used to analyze and make sense of data in statistical studies.
Statistical Methods	Systematic procedures and techniques for collecting, organizing, and analyzing numerical data.
Statistical Studies	Research studies that use statistical methods to analyze and interpret data.

Stereotype	Oversimplified, often negative, beliefs and assumptions about a group of people based on limited information.
Stigmatization	The process of labeling and devaluing individuals or groups based on perceived differences or deviations from societal norms.
Stigmatized Illnesses	Medical conditions that are highly stigmatized and lead to negative attitudes and discrimination towards those who have them.
Strain Theory	A theory that suggests individuals may engage in deviant behavior as a coping mechanism when they cannot achieve societal goals through legitimate means.
Stratification	The hierarchical arrangement of individuals or groups based on factors such as wealth, power, and social class.
Structural Conduciveness	The social and environmental conditions that facilitate the emergence and growth of social movements and collective action.
Structural Functionalism	A theoretical perspective that views society as a complex system composed of interdependent parts working together to maintain order and stability.
Structural Mobility	The movement of individuals or groups between social classes or positions due to changes in societal structures and institutions.
Structural Strain	Tensions and conflicts that arise within a society due to the mismatch between societal goals and the means available to achieve them.
Structural-functional Perspective	A sociological approach that examines how each part of society contributes to the overall functioning and stability of the whole.
Structural-Functional Theory	A theoretical framework that explains social phenomena and behavior in terms of the contribution of social structures and institutions to societal stability and functioning.
Subcultures	Smaller, distinct groups within a larger culture that share their own values, behaviors, and beliefs.
Subjective	Based on personal opinions, feelings, and experiences rather than objective facts.
Subjective Experiences	An individual's personal perceptions, thoughts, and feelings about a particular situation or event.
Subjective Poverty	The perception of being poor based on one's own evaluation of their socio-economic status rather than objective measures of poverty.
Suburbs	Residential areas located outside of urban areas, typically characterized by lower population density and a higher standard of living.
Supercentenarians	Individuals who have reached the age of 110 or above.

Superego	In Freudian psychology, the aspect of the personality that represents a person's moral code and conscience.
Supreme Court	The highest judicial court in a country or state responsible for interpreting and upholding laws and the constitution.
Symbolic Culture	The abstract and non-material aspects of culture, including ideas, values, and beliefs.
Symbolic Interactionism	A sociological perspective that examines how individuals construct meaning through their interactions and relationships with others.
Synthesizing Data	Combining multiple data sources to create a more comprehensive understanding of a particular topic or phenomenon.
Systematic Approach	An organized and methodical approach to research or problem-solving that follows a predetermined set of steps or procedures.
Systematic Observation	The process of observing and recording behaviors and events in a systematic and structured manner.
Systemic Injustice	Systemic and institutionalized inequalities and injustices that result in unequal treatment and opportunities for individuals and groups within a society.
Systems	Interrelated and interconnected parts or elements that work together to form a larger whole.
Tangible	Refers to something that can be touched, seen, or experienced physically. In sociology, tangible objects or ideas often have symbolic meaning and can significantly impact social interactions and relationships.
Taoism	A religious and philosophical belief system originating in China that emphasizes living in harmony with the natural world and finding balance and inner peace.
Tech-driven Economy	An economic system in which technology and its advancements play a significant role in the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services.
Technical Diffusion	The spread and adoption of new technologies and technical knowledge throughout a society or culture.
Technocracy	A government or social organization system in which experts and professionals have the most influence and decision-making power, based on their technical skills and knowledge.
Technological	Relating to or involving technology, such as the development and use of tools, machines, or systems for a specific purpose or function.
Technological Advances	Progress or improvements in technology that result in better or more efficient ways of doing things, often leading to societal and cultural changes.

Technological Inequalities	Unequal access to technology and its benefits among different social groups, often based on factors such as economic status, race, and gender.
Technological Innovations	Creative and original technological ideas, products, or processes that bring about change and advancement.
Technological Progression	The continuous development and improvement of technology over time, leading to progressively more advanced and sophisticated tools, machines, and systems.
Technological Stratification	The unequal distribution of technology and its benefits among different social groups, resulting in social and economic hierarchies.
Technology	The application of science and knowledge to the practical aims and needs of humans, often used to improve and enhance their lives and environment.
Tertiary Sector	The sector of the economy that involves providing services rather than producing goods, such as healthcare, education, and entertainment.
Thanatology	The study of death and dying, including the physical, social, and emotional aspects of the end of life.
The Protestant Ethic	A belief system and value system that emphasizes hard work, self-discipline, and frugality to achieve success and salvation, often associated with Protestant Christianity.
Theism	The belief in one or more gods or divine beings who have power and control over the world and its inhabitants.
Theocracy	A form of government in which religious leaders have ultimate authority and power in decision-making and governing.
Theological Stage	According to French sociologist Auguste Comte, the earliest stage of human society in which religion is the dominant force in shaping social structures and individual behaviors.
Theoretical Framework	A broad set of principles and concepts that provide a context for understanding and interpreting sociological phenomena and guiding research and analysis.
Theory	A set of explanations or principles that attempt to explain and predict certain social phenomena and their patterns and relationships.
Theory of Evolution	The scientific theory proposed by Charles Darwin that explains how organisms change and adapt over time through the process of natural selection.
Torah	The central religious text of Judaism, containing the first five books of the Hebrew Bible.
Totalitarian Dictatorships	A system of government in which a single ruler or ruling party has absolute and authoritarian control over all aspects of society and its citizens.

Toxic Masculinity	A set of harmful and stereotypical behaviors and attitudes associated with traditional expectations of masculinity, often leading to gender inequality and violence.
Traditional Custom	Established and long-standing patterns of thought and behavior within a culture or society, often passed down through generations.
Traditional Family	A type of family structure based on conventional gender roles and kinship ties, typically consisting of a heterosexual couple and their children.
Transgender	A person whose gender identity differs from the sex they were assigned at birth.
Transsexual	A person who identifies as a gender different from their biological sex and may seek medical interventions, such as hormone therapy or surgery, to physically transition to their identified gender.
Trends	General direction or pattern of change over time, often observed through data and statistics.
Triads	A group of three individuals or elements, often used to study and understand social relationships and power dynamics.
True Experiments	A scientific research method in which participants are randomly assigned to different experimental conditions and the researcher manipulates certain variables to observe their effects, used to establish causal relationships.
Unambiguous	A communication or situation that is clear and unequivocal, with no room for confusion or uncertainty.
Unconscious	The part of the human mind that contains thoughts, feelings, and memories that are not immediately available or accessible to conscious awareness but may still influence behavior and experiences.
Underclass	A social group that is marginalized and disadvantaged in terms of economic, social, and political power. This group usually has limited access to education, resources, and opportunities and may experience poverty and other forms of social exclusion.
Underemployment	A situation where an individual is employed in a job that is below their qualifications and skill level, resulting in lower income and job satisfaction.
Unemployment	A state where individuals who are able and willing to work cannot find employment. It is often used as an indicator of the health of an economy.
Unhealthy Market Items	Goods or services that may have a negative impact on individuals or society as a whole, such as tobacco, alcohol, or unhealthy processed foods.
Universal Access	Equal and unrestricted access to resources, opportunities, and services for all individuals, regardless of their background, identity, or social status.

Unstructured Crowds	Large groups of people who come together without any pre-planned or organized structure or purpose.
Urban	Areas and communities that are densely populated and characterized by a high concentration of people, buildings, and infrastructure.
Urban Sociology	A branch of sociology that focuses on the social, cultural, and economic aspects of urban areas and the relationships between urban residents and their environment.
Urbanization	The process of societal and economic change that leads to an increasing concentration of people in urban areas, often accompanied by the growth of cities and the transformation of rural or suburban areas.
Usage Divide	Unequal access and use of communication technologies, such as the internet, among different groups of individuals or communities.
Utilitarian Organizations	Organizations focused on achieving specific goals and objectives, often through efficient and rational means. Examples include businesses, non-profit organizations, and government agencies.
Validity	The accuracy and effectiveness of a research study or measurement in accurately capturing and representing the intended phenomenon or concept. It ensures that the data and conclusions drawn from the study are reliable and trustworthy.
Value-neutrality	The principle of maintaining objectivity and impartiality in research and analysis without allowing personal beliefs or biases to influence the findings or interpretations. It is crucial in maintaining the scientific rigor and integrity of sociological research.
Values	Deeply held beliefs and principles that individuals, societies, and cultures value and adhere to. They guide behavior, shape attitudes, and influence decision-making in personal and social contexts.
Variables	Characteristics, attributes, or traits that can vary among individuals, groups, or situations and are used to measure or explain a phenomenon. In sociology, variables are often categorized as independent (causes) or dependent (effects) and are studied through quantitative or qualitative research methods.
Vedas	Hinduism's oldest texts, composed in Sanskrit sometime during the mid-2nd Millennium B.C.E.
Verbal Communication	Refers to the use of language to exchange information between individuals or groups, including both spoken and written forms of communication.
Victim Blaming	Refers to holding the victim of a crime responsible for the actions done to them.

Victimization Report	An account of an individual's experience of victimization, typically detailing all criminal and non-criminal forms of victimization they have experienced in a given period.
Violation	Any action or behavior that goes against the accepted norms, values, and beliefs of a particular group or society.
Virtual Reality	A computer-simulated environment that uses interactive technologies to create a sensory experience for the user, often using a combination of visuals, audio, and motion-sensitive controllers.
Voter Apathy	A lack of interest, enthusiasm, or motivation of citizens to participate in the electoral process or to actively engage in political activity.
Voter Participation	The measure of the rate of eligible citizens in a given area who have chosen to exercise their right to vote in any given election.
Walkability	The extent to which an area is conducive to walking for transportation, errands, exercise, recreation, and other activities.
White Privilege	The systemic advantages that white people experience in societies where they are the racial majority.
Working Poor	A subpopulation of individuals characterized by their inability to replace wages lost from jobs or other income sources with sufficient financial resources to meet their basic needs for food, clothing, shelter, and healthcare.
Xenophobia	An irrational fear of outsiders or foreign influences that results in the exclusion of certain individuals or groups from society.
Yahweh	A Hebrew term for God, traditionally used in the Jewish and Christian faiths.
Yin-Yang	Symbolizes the interconnectedness of opposing forces and suggests that good and evil, love and hate, and any other duality are inextricably linked and cannot exist without the other.
Zero-population Growth	An ultimate population level in which the number of births plus the number of immigrants is balanced with the number of deaths and the number of emigrants.

Chapter Quiz Answer Key

Chapter 1: Introduction to Sociology				
1. A	2. D	3. E	4. D	5. A
6. C	7. D	8. D	9. B	10. C

Chapter 2: Sociological Research				
1. B	2. C	3. A	4. E	5. A
6. B	7. D	8. C	9. E	10. D

Chapter 3: Culture				
1. A	2. C	3. D	4. C	5. D
6. E	7. A	8. C	9. E	10. A

Chapter 4: Society and Social Interaction				
1. A	2. D	3. D	4. C	5. E
6. B	7. C	8. E	9. A	10. E

Chapter 5: Socialization				
1. E	2. A	3. B	4. D	5. C
6. C	7. A	8. E	9. D	10. B

Chapter 6: Groups and Organization				
1. D	2. A	3. C	4. D	5. B
6. B	7. E	8. C	9. A	10. A

Chapter 7: Deviance, Crime, and Social Control				
1. A	2. A	3. D	4. D	5. A
6. A	7. C	8. B	9. B	10. C

Chapter 8: Media and Technology				
1. B	2. A	3. C	4. D	5. D
6. A	7. D	8. C	9. B	10. D

Chapter 9: Social Stratification in the United States				
1. D	2. B	3. C	4. C	5. D
6. A	7. E	8. E	9. B	10. D

Chapter 10: Race and Ethnicity				
1. B	2. D	3. B	4. A	5. C
6. D	7. A	8. C	9. E	10. A

Chapter 11: Gender, Sex, and Sexuality				
1. A	2. B	3. D	4. A	5. A
6. D	7. C	8. C	9. A	10. C

Chapter 12: Aging and the Elderly				
1. D	2. C	3. A	4. A	5. E
6. B	7. B	8. C	9. D	10. E

Chapter 13: Marriage and Family				
1. C	2. B	3. A	4. C	5. B
6. D	7. D	8. B	9. A	10. D

Chapter 14: Religion				
1. D	2. B	3. A	4. A	5. B
6. E	7. A	8. B	9. D	10. B

Chapter 15: Education				
1. D	2. C	3. E	4. A	5. B
6. D	7. B	8. C	9. B	10. D

Chapter 16: Government and Politics				
1. C	2. E	3. B	4. D	5. A
6. A	7. D	8. C	9. C	10. B

Chapter 17: Work and the Economy				
1. E	2. D	3. D	4. C	5. B
6. C	7. A	8. B	9. A	10. D

Chapter 18: Healthcare and Medicine				
1. D	2. A	3. D	4. D	5. B
6. A	7. A	8. A	9. C	10. C

Chapter 19: Population, Urbanization, and the Environment				
1. C	2. E	3. E	4. A	5. B
6. E	7. A	8. B	9. D	10. C

Chapter 20: Social Movements and Change				
1. D	2. C	3. D	4. D	5. E
6. B	7. D	8. B	9. A	10. C

Chapter Quiz Answer Key and Explanation

Chapter 1: Introduction to Sociology

1. **A** - The correct answer is **(A) Clinical sociologists** because they directly help improve people's lives using sociological concepts. They utilize the big-picture concept of sociology to help people with social issues. **(B) Social workers** do a wider range of interventions and address various social issues beyond the direct application of sociological concepts. **(C) Social psychologists** focus more on psychological processes to directly improve people's lives. **(D) Empirical sociologists** focus on researching and gathering data to understand social phenomena and trends. Lastly, **(E) Anthropologists** use anthropological concepts to understand cultural diversity, social practices, etc. (See Types of Sociology)

2. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **feminism** is a perspective that views society as traditionally unequal between men and women and strives for equality between the sexes, so it is the theoretical perspective that would address the issue contained in the news item. While **(A), (B), (C),** and **(E)** may indirectly address gender disparities, they are not the primary theoretical perspectives specifically dedicated to examining gender inequalities, like feminism. (See Feminist Theory)

3. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because the guiding principles of social constructivism developed by Vygotsky include:
   - Knowledge is constructed through human activity, and reality is constructed jointly by the members of that society.
   - Individuals create meaning through their interactions with others and their environments.
   - Learning is social and active, and meaningful learning only occurs when individuals are engaged in social activities.
   (See Symbolic Interactionism Theory and Glossary)

4. **D** - The correct answer is **(D) Theological stage**, which Comte saw as the first societal stage in which people view the world and events in that world as a direct expression of the will of various gods, as Jorge does in this example. The other options are wrong because **(A) the emotive stage** of society is characterized by personal emotional responses to events or phenomena, whereas **(B) the empirical stage** involves seeking explanations for events based on observable evidence. While the **(C) metaphysical stage** can involve some degree of supernatural or spiritual thinking, it does not specifically center on attributing events to gods or deities. **(E)** is also incorrect because it is not one of the stages. (See Comte's Three Stages of Society & Theories of Positivism)

5. **A** - The correct answer is **(A) Societies are based on scientific principles and laws** because Comte's positivism is the belief that societies have their own scientific principles and laws, like physics or chemistry. While the **(B) improvement of society** could be a goal for some

sociologists, it is not the core defining concept of Comte's positivism. **(C)** is also wrong because positivism doesn't dictate that only positive correlations are acceptable, and **(D)** and **(E)** refer to positivity, not positivism. (See Positivism)

6. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because Comte's stages of society in chronological order are: the **theological stage** (when everything is understood as related to gods), the **metaphysical stage** (an intermediate stage where gods are not as directly involved in affairs, though they still play a part), and a **scientific stage** (where everything is explained scientifically). Thus, **(A)** and **(E)** are wrong because they don't follow the order, while **(B)** introduces new terms that are not staged by Comte. **D** also does not correspond to the stages that Comte described. (See Comte's Three Stages of Society & Theories of Positivism)

7. **D** - The correct answer is **(D) Structural-functionalism** because Spencer is one of the top three sociologists who influenced the thinking of the structural-functional perspective, which simply believes that society is made up of various structures (or parts) and that each has a function. Also, **(A) Social conflict** is often linked to Karl Marx, while **(B) feminist** theories are linked to Harriet Martineau. Lastly, Spencer's contributions focused more on broader societal structures and functions, making the **(C) Symbolic Interactionism** option incorrect. **(E) Positivism** is often credited to Auguste Comte. (See Herbert Spencer)

8. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **Structural-functionalism** analyzes how a group cooperates to form a successful whole. **(A) Symbolic Interactionism** focuses on micro-level interactions and the creation of meaning in everyday life, while **(B) Conflict Theory** emphasizes social inequalities. Lastly, **(C) social construction** refers to the idea that social concepts and categories are shaped by society and its norms. **(E)** is wrong because there's a correct answer **(D)**. (See Structural-Functional Theory)

9. **B** - The correct answer is **(B) conflict theory** because it analyzes potential negative influences and focuses on social inequalities and power struggles. Meanwhile, **(A) social construction** refers to the idea that many aspects of reality are not inherently fixed but are shaped by society and its norms, whereas **(C) structural-functionalism** examines how institutions and structures contribute to the overall functioning of society, and **(D) symbolic interactionism** focuses on how interactions influence society. **(E)** is wrong because there's a correct answer **(B)**. (See Social Conflict Theory)

10. **C** - The correct answer is **(C) Symbolic interactionism** because it is a micro-sociological theory explaining how repetitive individual behaviors or interactions define how societies grow and propagate through time. Meanwhile, **(A) social interactions** and **(B) societal deviance** are not regarded as one of the main theoretical perspectives in sociology. **(D) Structural-functionalism** is a macro-sociological perspective that views society as having parts essential to maintaining order. Lastly, **(E) conflict theory** focuses on inequality in society. (See Symbolic Interactionism Theory (micro))

Chapter 2: Sociological Research

1. **B** - The correct answer is **(B) the interpretive method** because Caroline is analyzing the crime data by examining various points of view and interpreting people's views and experiences. It is an interpretive approach. **(A) The critical method** is less fitting because Caroline's research may touch on power dynamics and social inequalities, but her main focus is on understanding the subjective meanings and interpretations of 'crime.' **(C) The conflict perspective** is also incorrect because it does not specifically capture her intention to explore the meanings and interpretations of 'crime.' Although related, Caroline's objective goes beyond the scope of **(D) the interactionism perspective** and **(E) the positivist perspective**. (See Research Without Hypothesis)

2. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because the steps of the **scientific method** include: Asking a question, Conducting background research, Forming a hypothesis, Testing the hypothesis and collecting data, Analyzing data, and Reporting. While background research is crucial, **(A)** a "**survey of peers for interest**" is not a standard step in the scientific method. **(B) Checking for existing experiments** is part of background research (not separate), and the conclusion comes after analyzing data, which is missing from this option. **(D)** is also wrong because the "**survey of peers for interest**" is not a recognized step in the scientific method, and reporting is a step, but the sequence of the options is not accurate. **(E)** is also wrong because **surveying** is a data collection method, while a review of literature is usually done at the beginning. (See The Scientific Method)

3. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because **experiments** entail manipulation and control of variables, which allow for strong conclusions about causal relationships. **(B) Quasi-research** shares some characteristics with experimental research but lacks full experimental control. While **(C) correlation** can identify associations, it does not establish causation. **(D)** "**Negative research**" is not a recognized term in the context of research methodology. Lastly, **(E) exploratory research** focuses on gaining insights instead of manipulating variables to establish causation. (See Types of Research Methods)

4. **E** - The correct answer is **(E) Placebo effect** because it occurs when patients given the placebo in place of the medication get similar results to those who received the medication. Meanwhile, **(A) a control group** is a group in an experiment that does not receive the experimental treatment, **(B) hallucination** refers to perceiving something that is not actually present, and **(C) a stimulus** is something that triggers a response in an organism. Lastly, the **(D) halo effect** is when positive opinions about one thing largely affect how we feel about other things or our overall impression of someone or something. (See Experimental vs. Control Group)

5. **A** - The correct answer is **(A) naturalistic observation** because it is a specific type of field research that only observes how people act. Since Ralph is observing the nurses without setting up an experiment, he is engaging in naturalistic observation. **(B) Aggregation** is wrong because it combines data from different sources to analyze trends, whereas a **(C) experiment** involves manipulating variables. **(D)** "**Non-Reaction**" is not a recognized term or method in the context of

research methodology. **(E)** A **survey** involves administering questionnaires to respondents. (See [Types of Research Methods](#))

6. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because ethnography often, but not always, uses **in-depth interviews** to support findings derived from the main research methodology in ethnography. **(A)** is wrong because ethnography emphasizes understanding participants' viewpoints in their own cultural context rather than imposing the researcher's expertise. **(C)** is also incorrect because comparing assessment scores does not capture ethnography's immersive and contextual approach. **(D) Carrying out brief quizzes** and **(E) surveys** also do not involve the depth of engagement and understanding that characterize ethnographic methods. (See [Ethnography](#))

7. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **validity** generally refers to how accurately a conclusion, measurement, or concept corresponds to what is being tested. In the context of school assessment, for instance, validity is specifically concerned with measuring the *intended learning outcomes* of students, not the overall quality of instruction **(A)**, not just overall student learning **(B)**, and not just the role of the teacher in measurement **(C)**. While connected, validity alone cannot predict future economic trends **(E)**. (See [Validity and Reliability](#))

8. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **internal consistency** reflects whether different items measure similar constructs in a test. **(A) Split-half reliability** is incorrect because it is not specifically focused on the correlation among different items measuring the same construct. Meanwhile, **(B) test-retest reliability** assesses the consistency of measurement by administering the same test to the same individuals at two different periods, whereas **(D) inter-rater reliability** evaluates the degree of agreement between different raters. **(E)** is not a type of validity. (See [Types of Reliability](#))

9. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because only the line in **chart C** moves *down* from left to right, which suggests a **negative** correlation. The other options are wrong because the line in **chart A** does not go up or down, neither increasing nor decreasing. The line in **chart B** moves up from left to right, which suggests a positive correlation. **Chart D** has too many outliers, and there is no correlation. (See [Quantitative Analysis](#))

10. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because only the line in **chart B** moves *up* from left to right, which suggests a **positive** correlation. The other options are wrong because the line in **chart A** does not go up or down, neither increasing nor decreasing. The line in **chart C** moves down from left to right, which suggests a negative correlation. **Chart D** has too many outliers, and there is no correlation. (See [Quantitative Analysis](#))

Chapter 3: Culture

1. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because **material culture** includes material or physical objects such as technology, art, and architecture. It is not synonymous with high culture **(B)** or subculture **(C)**. Lastly, **(D)** and **(E)** are also incorrect because material culture specifically refers to the tangible and physical aspects of culture. (See [What is Culture?](#))

2. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **subcultures** still use the culture's **symbols, customs, and values** but are more specific to a certain population. **(A), (B),** and **(D)** are incorrect because a subculture is not necessarily defined by opposition to another culture, is not synonymous with "low culture," and is a subset typically distinct from the dominant culture. **(E)** is also wrong because it refers to cultural assimilation. (See Cultural Subsets)

3. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because Society X demonstrates a **real culture** because none of its listed attributes are ideals people actively strive for. They involve both tangible and intangible things. Meanwhile, **(A)** refers to aspects of culture that are not physical or concrete, whereas **(B)** refers to the values, norms, and aspirations that society strives to achieve. **(C)** is wrong because it refers to physical artifacts and objects that represent a culture's heritage, not the behaviors and actions described in the question. Lastly, **(E)** is wrong because it envisions people living in peace, equality, and prosperity. (See Ideal Culture & Real Culture)

4. **C**- The correct answer is **(C)** because **ethnocentrism** is the belief that your own cultural or ethnic group is superior to other cultural or ethnic groups. **(A)** is wrong because this option refers to a lack of consideration of ethnicity in taking action. **(B)** does not entirely capture the concept of ethnocentrism, specifically the inherent bias regarding cultural superiority. **(D)** is incomplete because ethnocentrism goes beyond mere liking and involves an assumption of cultural superiority over others. Lastly, **(E)** is wrong because ethnocentrism doesn't involve embracing and appreciating other cultures. (See Ethnocentrism and Cultural Relativism)

5. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **cultural relativism** means we can't judge cultural practices or try to impose our own values on other places in the world. Cultural practices only make sense if we understand that **they happen in a particular context**. **(A)** and **(B)** are incorrect because they imply a hierarchical ranking of cultural norms, which contradicts the meaning of cultural relativism. Meanwhile, **(C)** and **(E)** are misinterpretations because cultural relativism does not require adopting or endorsing all practices of another culture but understanding them without imposing judgments. (See Ethnocentrism and Cultural Relativism)

6. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because **mores** are a society's most deeply held beliefs, and **laws** can enforce some taboos, but others are seen as extremely distasteful. **(A)** and **(B)** are wrong because taboos are strong cultural prohibitions, and while violating them might lead to social consequences, they are not synonymous with laws. **(C)** reverses the relationship between taboos and laws; taboos are cultural norms, while laws are formal regulations. **(D)** is also incorrect because mores are a society's deeply held norms, while laws are formal legal codes. (See Norms)

7. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because **multiculturalism** is the idea that many **different types of cultures can exist within one nation**. The idea has the component of accepting the cultures into society, but it does not necessarily mean they automatically receive equal footing in the country. **(B)** is also incorrect because it does not fully capture the essence of multiculturalism, which specifically focuses on the coexistence of these cultures within a shared societal context. **(C)** describes a form of cultural assimilation or integration, not necessarily multiculturalism. **(D)** is

also incorrect because it is too broad and does not accurately define multiculturalism. **(E)** is also wrong because multiculturalism doesn't force conformity to the dominant culture. (See [Diffusion and Globalization](#))

8. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **cultural lag** is the tendency for material culture to develop faster than non-material culture. **(A)** is wrong because cultural lag is not about the level of acceptance or enthusiasm for cultural changes. **(B)** is incorrect because cultural lag does not entail altering the cultural hierarchy. **(D)** is also incorrect because cultural lag is not about cultural borrowing and diffusion. **(E)** is also wrong because it does not capture the disparity between material and non-material cultures. (See [Innovation: Discovery and Invention in Cultures](#))

9. **E** - The correct answer is **(E) Cultural Imperialism** because this involves imposing one dominant culture's values, beliefs, norms, and practices onto another culture. While **(A) multinationalism** can play a role in spreading cultural influences, it does not specifically capture the concept of exporting cultural values. **(B) Globalization** is also wrong because it does not specifically emphasize the imposition of one culture's values on another. **(C) Sedentarism** refers to a lifestyle characterized by a lack of physical activity, while **(D) cultural relativism encourages** understanding cultural practices in a particular culture. (See [Diffusion and Globalization](#))

10. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis highlights the **impact of language on cognition**, which is exemplified in the sexist language that our society uses and influences how we think about women. **(B)** and **(C)** are wrong because they show the influence of values on language or culture on opinions, respectively. **(D)** and **(E)** are wrong because only **(A)** aligns with the hypothesis. (See [Symbols and Languages](#))

Chapter 4: Society and Social Interaction

1. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because "**mating society**" is not one of the recognized and established types of societies in sociological or anthropological classifications. The six types of societies are hunting and gathering, pastoral, horticultural, agricultural, industrial, and post-industrial. (See [Types of Societies](#))

2. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **hunter-gatherer societies** are nomadic, meaning their members (called nomads) travel continuously to hunt, fish, and gather food. This makes **(A), (C),** and **(E)** wrong because hunter-gatherer societies do not rely on farming. They also eat food other than meat, which makes **(B)** wrong. (See [Types of Societies](#))

3. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **post-industrial society** has transitioned from an economy of goods to an economy of services, increased the rate of innovation and invention of new technologies, and explored their applications. While **(A) industrial society** is related to economic development, it does not specifically emphasize the shift to a service-based economy. Meanwhile, a **(B) post-agricultural society,** or post-agrarian society, is a society that has moved beyond its agrarian or agricultural phase. **(C) Agricultural societies** are characterized by their

reliance on farming and agricultural practices. In contrast, **(E) Hunter-gatherer societies** exercise a subsistence strategy based on hunting, fishing, and gathering wild resources for food. (See Types of Societies)

4. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because, for Durkheim, the key factor is the **division of labor** or the number, type, and status of occupations. **(A) The industrial revolution** is not the direct cause of organic solidarity as conceptualized by Durkheim. While **(B) capitalism** can influence social structures, it is not the primary cause of organic solidarity as defined by Durkheim. **(D) Race and class differences** are not the key causes of organic solidarity, according to Durkheim's theories. **(E)** is also wrong because Durkheim's concept of organic solidarity is primarily tied to the division of labor in **industrial** societies, *not* agricultural ones. (See Emile Durkheim and Functionalism)

5. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because Karl Marx believed that there were two classes of people—**the proletariat and the bourgeoisie**—who formed the economic system. Although the terms **(A) "the haves and the have-nots"** are also associated with economic inequality, Victor Hugo is often credited with popularizing them. **(B)** is also wrong because these are not the specific class distinctions that Marx used. **(C)** and **(D)** are also incorrect because they refer to a distinction between different roles within the workplace and to individuals based on their economic activities, respectively. (See Karl Marx and Conflict Theory)

6. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because, in the broadest sense, **alienation** is the process through which a person becomes an outsider in their community. **(A) Assimilation** is incorrect because it refers to how individuals from one culture adopt and integrate into another. While **(C) acculturation** involves interactions between different cultures, it does not specifically capture the sense of isolation from participating in society. **(D) Anti-socialization** refers to learning behaviors that are counter to societal norms. **(E)** is also wrong because **accommodation** refers to the adjustments individuals in groups make to ease the strain of competition and conflict. (See Karl Marx and Conflict Theory)

7. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **class consciousness** simply means that people within a society are well aware of existing social classes and, therefore, can take action against and stand up to social injustice, poverty, and the social elite. Thus, **(A), (D),** and **(E)** are incorrect. **(B)** is also incorrect because it centers on economists only and does not capture the notion of workers' awareness of their class situation. (See Karl Marx and Conflict Theory)

8. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because **Karl Marx** applied the concept of alienation to industrialized capitalist societies. **(A) Hobbes** and **(C) Rousseau** are incorrect because they are more often linked to the concept of social contract, while **(B) Durkheim** and **(D) Burke** did not contribute to the concept of alienation as formulated by Karl Marx. (See Karl Marx and Conflict Theory)

9. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because the **iron cage** of society is the idea that individuality will be stifled or imprisoned for the sake of acting rationally. **(B) Bureaucracy** specifically refers to formalized administrative systems and hierarchical structures, and **(C) Instrumental-rational**

action and **(E) McDonaldization** do not capture the metaphorical imagery of feeling trapped. **(D) Emotional** does not address the idea of pressure to act efficiently rather than creatively. (See Max Weber and Symbolic Interactionism)

10. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because **social constructionism** is a theory that explores how one's learning and development evolve from human interactions. According to this theory, learning is an active process that continues to evolve and develop based on discourse and experiences. Meanwhile, the **(A) Thomas Theorem** and **(D) functionalism** don't focus on the joint construction of meaning through interactions. **(B) Ethnomethodology** is also wrong because it's a sociological approach that studies the methods and practices people use to make sense of their social world. **(C)** "**Special Reactionism**" doesn't appear to be a recognized sociological theory or concept. (See Social Constructions of Reality)

Chapter 5: Socialization

1. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because **Sigmund Freud** created the terms id, ego, and superego to describe the key components of the personality. **(A) Piaget** is known for his theory of cognitive development; **(B) Kolhberg** and **(C) Gilligan** for the theory of moral development; and **(D) Cooley** for his ideas about the "looking-glass self." (See Freud's Theory of the Id, Ego, and Superego)

2. **A** - The correct answer is **A (leave the money)**. The superego is our moral side. While taking the money is purely driven by the id, the other options would be for Cece to reason with herself or use her ego. The superego would know that taking the money is wrong and would keep Cece from taking it. (See Freud's Theory of the Id, Ego & Superego)

3. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because the **formal operational stage** is characterized by the development of abstract systems of thought. The **(A) operational stage** is too vague and doesn't specify the advanced level of thinking. **(C) Sensorimotor**, **(D) Concrete Operational**, and **(E) Pre-operational** don't involve abstract problem-solving abilities. (See Jean Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development)

4. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **assimilation** is defined as dealing with a new event in a way that is consistent with an existing schema, whereas **accommodation** is the process of dealing with new information or events by either modifying an existing schema or forming a new one. This makes **(E)** wrong. **(A) Organization** is also wrong because it doesn't directly relate to the process of incorporating new information. At the same time, **(B) schema** refers to our mental structures that help us organize and understand the world. **(C)** is wrong because the order is reversed here. (See Important Concepts in Piaget's Theory)

5. **C** - The correct answer is **(C) the autonomy vs. shame and doubt stage** because Erikson believed that a sense of independence is learned at this stage of development and that toilet training is an important focus of this independence. The other options refer to different stages in Erikson's theory, which have distinct focuses and occur at different points in a person's life. (See Erik Erikson's Stages of Psychosocial Development)

6. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because the **second pre-conventional stage** is characterized by self-interest and the desire to gain rewards, not just avoid punishment. **(A)** and **(E)** are wrong because the scenario does not show advanced moral reasoning based on ethical principles and a sense of justice. **(B)** is also wrong because the scenario doesn't particularly relate to conforming to societal norms or seeking approval, a characteristic of the first conventional stage. Although the **(D)** first pre-conventional stage also entails doing things for self-interest, this stage mainly involves avoiding punishment. (See Kohlberg's Stages and Theory of Moral Development)

7. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because Gilligan felt that Kohlberg's theory did not adequately address the **gender differences** in moral development. Although **(B) IQ differences**, **(C) geographic factors, (D) religious preferences**, and **(E) age differences** can influence moral development, Gilligan focused on addressing the factor of gender differences in moral development that was not fully considered by Kohlberg's original theory. (See Carol Gilligan's Theory of Moral Development)

8. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because **George Herbert Mead** described socialization as a process of movement from the *play stage to the game stage* during which a *generalized other* emerged. The other four theorists did not use these concepts. (See Mead's Theory of Self: The "Me" & "I")

9. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **(A), (B), (C)**, and **(E)** describe social roles, and **(D)** is the exception because social roles can be seen differently depending on one's culture. (See Social Roles)

10. **B** - The correct answer is **(B) walkability**, the ability for a person to *access* services and social connections in their immediate environment. **(A), (C)**, and **(D)** are wrong because these options are much broader concepts. **(E)** is also wrong because **affordability** refers to how residents can comfortably manage the costs associated with necessities without experiencing financial strain. (See The Impact of Neighborhood)

Chapter 6: Groups and Organization

1. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **reference groups** are groups that we look to for guidance to evaluate our behaviors and attitudes. They are generalized versions of role models. **(A)** is wrong because the main focus of her admiration and imitation is the group as a whole, and Zoe might not have a shared feeling of unity with the group. **(B)** is also wrong because the cheerleading squad, in Zoe's context, represents more of an aspirational or influential group than a secondary group focused on specific tasks or goals. **(C)** is also incorrect because tertiary group is a less common term and typically refers to a group that is even more formal and impersonal. **(E)** is also wrong because this simply refers to a two-member group. (See Types of Groups)

2. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because **ingroups** are social groups to which individuals feel a sense of belonging and with which they identify. The other options **(B), (C), (D),** and **(E)** describe characteristics commonly associated with members of an ingroup. (See In-Groups and Out-Groups)

3. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **democratic leaders** encourage group discussion and believe in decision-making through consensus, which makes **(E)** wrong. Meanwhile, **(A) laissez-faire** leaders tend to allow group members to make decisions without much intervention, and **(B) authoritarian** leaders usually make decisions without much input from group members. Lastly, although Brenda's leadership style seems positive and supportive (characteristic of a **(D) expressive style**), the scenario primarily emphasizes her participatory decision-making approach. (See Leadership Styles and Types)

4. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **(A)**, **(B)**, and **(C)** contribute to preventing groupthink by fostering a climate of openness, critical thinking, and diverse participation. Hence, **(E)** is wrong because there's a correct answer. (See Ways to Avoid Groupthink)

5. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because it is not a characteristic of groupthink. Groupthink tends to discourage dissenting views and can lead to a lack of inclusion of diverse perspectives within the decision-making process. The other options are features of groupthink. (See Groupthink)

6. **B** - The correct answer is **(B) subjective** because the four types of rationality we all use in our everyday lives, as identified by Weber, are practical, theoretical, substantive, and formal. Hence, the other options are wrong. (See Types of Rationality)

7. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because all of the statements are elements of a **bureaucracy,** as noted by Weber. Other characteristics noted by Weber include a clear-cut division of responsibilities in the different positions in the bureaucracy, promotion based upon merit, and a clear-cut separation between one's position in the bureaucracy and one's private life. Only **(E)** includes all four statements. (See Bureaucracies)

8. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **Verstehen** is the word that Weber used to describe the concept of an effort made to understand why people do the things they do. The other options do not specifically address understanding individuals' motivations for specific actions. (See Max Weber's Verstehen)

9. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because a **coercive organization** is characterized by membership that is not voluntary and is often established through legal or societal means. **(B) Informal** is wrong because prisons are formal, structured institutions. **(C)** is also wrong because a **utilitarian organization** is usually characterized by members who join for specific benefits or rewards, while a **(D) normative organization** is formed around shared values, beliefs, or a common cause. **(E) Transactional** is often linked to a style of leadership where leaders focus on task-oriented goals, maintaining order, and achieving predetermined objectives. (See Formal Organizations)

10. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because **automation** is not typically considered one of the principles of McDonaldization. George Ritzer refers to four principles that have been applied from the McDonald's model to society at large: predictability, efficiency, calculability, and control. (See The McDonaldization of Society)

Chapter 7: Deviance, Crime, and Social Control

1. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because **labeling theory** describes how individuals come to be defined as deviant. Primary and secondary deviance are elements of this theory. The other options are wrong because **(B) differential association** analyzes how one comes to learn deviant norms and values. **(C) Control theory** focuses on the concept of conformity. **(D) Techniques of neutralization** describe how people may rationalize their involvement in deviant behavior. **(E) Strain theory** discusses how individuals may utilize illegitimate means to achieve legitimate goals. (See Labeling Theory)

2. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because **formal sanctions** usually involve law enforcement, like being arrested for burglary. This makes **(E)** incorrect. Meanwhile, **(B) informal** is incorrect because it refers to sanctions that are not backed by official institutions and are more subtle, while **(C) positive** and **(D) negative** refer to the valence of sanctions (rewards and punishments), but they do not specifically address whether the sanctions are enforced by formal institutions. (See Deviance and Control)

3. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because Acme Chemicals knowingly sold an unsafe product to the public, an example of **corporate crime**. It involves a violation of laws for the financial gain of the company. The other choices are wrong because **(A) blue-collar crime** is usually done by people from lower socioeconomic backgrounds, often involving **(E) street crimes**, and **(B) organized crime** is committed by structured groups like drug cartels or crime syndicates. Lastly, although the situation involves a corporation, **(C) white-collar crime** usually focuses on individual actions within an organization rather than the whole company's actions. (See Applications of Conflict Theory of Crime)

4. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **retribution** is a punishment that makes the offender suffer as much as the suffering caused by the crime. The other options are wrong because **(A) rehabilitation** aims to reform the offender and prevent future criminal behavior through interventions, and **(B) deterrence** seeks to discourage individuals from committing crimes by making the punishment severe enough. Also, **(C) societal protection** focuses on isolating the offender to prevent them from causing harm to society while incarcerated. **(E) Revolution** is not often considered a punishment like the other options. (See The United States Criminal Justice System)

5. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because the three crime categories are felonies, misdemeanors, and violations (also known as infractions). Hence, the other options are incorrect because they don't fall into these categories. (See Type of Crime Based on Level of Severity)

6. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because **rebels** feel so strained by society that they want to replace the goals and the means of achieving them. This makes **(E)** incorrect. The other options are also incorrect because **(B) conformists** strive to achieve success within the established social norms and institutions. **(C) retreatists** withdraw from societal goals and norms altogether, while rebels

actively challenge and replace existing goals and means, and **(D) innovators** accept societal goals but reject conventional means of achieving them. (See <u>Merton's Strain Theory of Deviance</u>)

7. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **labeling theory** helps to explain why a behavior is considered negatively deviant by some people, groups, and cultures but positively deviant by others. A vigilante can be viewed as a hero or a positive deviant by some groups while being considered a criminal by others, such as law enforcement. The other options pertain to different concepts. (See <u>Labeling Theory</u>)

8. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **Merton's Strain Theory** states that deviance arises when societal goals, like wealth, conflict with available means. For example, Jennifer's desire to own a car clashes with her low income, possibly leading to deviant actions like stealing to fulfill the goal. The other options are incorrect because **(A)**, **(D),** and **(E)** do not involve the strain between societal goals and means. **(C)** involves an individual's inherent tendency to commit crimes, which is not the focus of the Strain Theory. (See <u>Merton's Strain Theory of Deviance</u>)

9. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because only **theft** is considered a property crime among all the options. Property crime is represented by the lighter bar. Regardless of type, theft still outnumbers all the other crimes, based on the graph. (See <u>Types of Crime</u>)

10. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **aggravated assault** has a rate of 250.2 compared to **(E)** robbery (81.6) and rape (42.6). The other options in this question are also wrong because they are examples of property crimes. (See <u>Types of Crime</u>)

Chapter 8: Media and Technology

1. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because a **design patent** is usually conferred in architecture and industrial design. It means someone has invented a new and original design for a manufactured product. The other options are wrong because **(A) utility patents** cover new and useful processes or machines, whereas **(C) plant patents** cover new and distinct varieties of plants that have been asexually reproduced. **(D)** and **(E)** are incorrect because **(B)** is the only answer. (See <u>Technology Today</u>)

2. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because the **digital divide** centers on discrepancies in *access to digital technologies* and online resources, whereas the **(B)** knowledge gap is a disparity in general *knowledge* and understanding, which also sometimes stems from the digital divide. **(C)** and **(D)** are incorrect because they do not specifically address unequal access to technology. Also, **(E)** refers to media ownership by a few big companies. (See <u>Technology Today</u>)

3. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because, as the **digital divide** increases, an unfair advantage is given to those exposed to technical skills to succeed in the workforce. It makes **(E)** wrong. **(A)** is also wrong because the digital divide often leads to *un*equal access, not equal access. **(B)** is also wrong because the digital divide can make it more challenging to succeed, but it is not the primary reason for considering it negative. **(D)** is also incorrect because the digital divide does not necessarily relate to individual effort or trying harder. (See <u>Technology Today</u>)

4. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **media globalization** refers to the interconnectedness and exchange of media content, information, and cultural influences across national and international borders. In this scenario, Bob and Ralph, living in different countries, are exposed to each other's ideas and cultures through interactions on a global digital platform like Twitter. Hence, **(A)** and **(B)** are wrong because they refer to disparities. **(C)** refers to the spread of technology, and **(E)** is about media ownership, but they don't exactly capture the scenario in question. (See Media Globalization)

5. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because an **oligopoly** occurs when a few firms dominate an industry and control at least 40% of the market. They differ from monopolies because they involve more than one firm, and no individual firm controls 100% of the market. Hence, the other options are wrong. Particularly, **(E)** is wrong because the few firms that control the industry don't have to be the government. (See Media Globalization)

6. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because both are groups of people who share a common concern; however, a **crowd** is in close proximity to each other while a **mass** is not, which makes **(D)** and **(E)** incorrect. The other options are also wrong because **(B)** a mass doesn't necessarily involve people with different concerns, and in **(C)**, the definitions are reversed. (See Forms of Collective Behavior)

7. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **mass hysteria** is defined as an imagined or assumed threat that causes physical symptoms among a large number of people. The other options are wrong because **(A) poor lesson planning** cannot explain why his students would also smell the same, and **(B)** is a form of **therapy**. **(C)** refers to **widespread excessive concern** over a social issue, and **(E)** refers to **relaxed behavior**. (See Moral Panic & Mass Hysteria)

8. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because, through mass media, children are often exposed to gender stereotypes. Some of the content children view are things their parents may not want them to see because it conflicts with the family's core values. The other options are wrong because they pertain to other agents. (See Agents of Socialization)

9. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **rumors** are unsubstantiated information about a subject that is spread informally. A rumor is typically a piece of information or a story that has not been verified, meaning that the person telling it doesn't know if it's true or false. In the above scenario, it was never confirmed that Sam was intoxicated. Ruby is telling her co-worker this without knowing if it is actually true or false. (See Mass Behavior in Technology & Media)

10. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because mass media has evolved; it started with newspapers and went to radio and television, and now the internet. This makes the other options incorrect. (See Types of Media and Technology)

Chapter 9: Social Stratification in the United States

1. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because the defining characteristic of **closed systems** is rigid boundaries between classes. **(B)** is irrelevant because how closed or open a system has nothing to do with immigration but with movement up and down in the stratification hierarchy. **(C)** is wrong because closed systems have clear, rigid, and impermeable boundaries. **(A)** and **(E)** are incorrect because hereditary position and ascribed statuses are very important in determining class position in a closed system. (See Types of System)

2. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because the **poverty line** in the United States is an official measure of poverty that is adjusted every year for inflation, but it does not factor in regional variations in the cost of living or government benefits, which makes it controversial. The other options are wrong because **(A)** doesn't fully capture the concept of the poverty line. **(C)** is also wrong because the poverty line changes over time and varies by region. **(D)** is also incorrect because it is not used to establish territorial boundaries, and **(E)** is wrong because the poverty line is not a condition but a marker to distinguish socio-economic classes. (See Measures for Determining Level of Income)

3. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **relative poverty** is the lack of the minimum amount of income determined as necessary by society to maintain the average standard of living. **(A)** is wrong because it describes a notion of affluence or luxury, while **(B)** describes absolute poverty. **(D)** is wrong because relative poverty is characterized by a lack of income, not excessive income, to maintain the average standard of living. **(E)** is wrong because **(C)** describes relative poverty. (See Types of Poverty Classification)

4. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **horizontal mobility** is a change in position at the same social level. For example, a nurse might change jobs from one hospital to another. The others are incorrect because they all illustrate vertical mobility: **(A)** and **(B)** are downward mobility, while **(D)** and **(E)** are upward mobility. (See Social Mobility)

5. **D** - The correct answer is **(D),** since Sue is moving from one elite professorial position to another, she is moving **horizontally**. **(A)** Status mobility is not a factor, like the demand for professors in Sue's field, that affects one's ability to move through the social strata. Similarly, **(B)** is incorrect because Sue is not moving up or down. **(C)** is wrong because we are only focusing on one generation in this example, and **(E)** is also wrong because this question doesn't discuss large-scale social factors that may affect Sue's move. (See Social Mobility)

6. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because **vertical mobility** refers to movement within the social system where the individual can move up or down. If Gary had found another job as an office manager, he would have had **(B)** horizontal mobility. **(C)** is wrong because the scenario only shows one generation. **(D) Status mobility** has no sociological meaning, and **(E) structural mobility** refers to societal-level factors that affect one's ability to move through the social strata, which were not discussed in the scenario. (See Social Mobility)

7. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because, at the time, the term was popular, and the **Soviet Union** was far and the most important communist state in the world. **(A) China, (B) Cuba, (C) North Korea**, and **(D) Vietnam** were indeed communist nations, but they were not as central or powerful as the Soviet Union at that time. (See Three-World Model)

8. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because **high-income countries** were among the first to industrialize using advanced technology and accruing so much wealth that they are capital intensive. The other options are wrong because **(A)** and **(B)** are outdated terms referring to countries, whereas **(C)** and **(D)** generally have less advanced economies and lower standards of living. (See Income Classification Model)

9. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **low-income countries** typically have higher birth rates compared to middle and higher-income countries. This is often due to factors such as limited access to education and healthcare. The other options are incorrect because low-income countries **(A)** tend to have lower life expectancies; **(C)** are typically less industrialized; **(D)** have varying economic systems; and **(E)** are less advanced in technology. (See Income Classification Model)

10. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **external areas** maintain their own economic systems and are, therefore, not part of the world systems as described in this lesson. The other options are wrong because **(A)** an **enclave** typically refers to a small territory or group that is surrounded by a larger entity. **(B)** and **(C)** are terms used in world systems theory to describe countries' positions within the global economic hierarchy; and **(E)** core nations typically have substantial economic influence, which is the opposite of the situation described where Mark's country is free from foreign influence. (See Immanuel Wallerstein: World Systems Theory)

Chapter 10: Race and Ethnicity

1. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because the concept of racism, which asserts the inherent superiority of certain races over others, has been employed to rationalize social hierarchies based on race. **(A)** is inaccurate since there is no biological connection between race and personality characteristics. If variations in behavior do arise, they are typically the product of societal influences rather than biological factors. **(C)** is also incorrect because race-based social hierarchy is not synonymous with slavery. **(D)** Race remains a significant factor in social stratification. **(E)** Stratification based on race is, in fact, one of the more recent forms of social hierarchy. The modern concept of race itself only emerged in the past few centuries. (See What is Race?)

2. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because the **authoritarian-personality theory** of aggression explains prejudice as residing in individuals who carry a particular personality trait. This theory, then, is only able to explain prejudice in those few people who possess such personality configurations (i.e., Hitler). Thus, **(A)** is incorrect. Meanwhile, **(B)** is covered by the normative theory of prejudice, and **(C)** is best explained by power conflict. **(E)** is also incorrect because it's

an example of the scapegoating theory of prejudice, not the authoritarian personality theory. (See Explicit vs. Implicit Prejudice)

3. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because Charlotte is demonstrating an **authoritarian personality**, which is characterized by the belief that some people are just better than others. The other options are wrong because **(A)** and **(C)** don't match Charlotte's characteristics or beliefs; **(D)** contradicts Charlotte's judgmental attitude, and **(E)** doesn't capture Charlotte's rigid and hierarchical thinking style. (See Explicit vs. Implicit Prejudice)

4. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because **social identity theory** says that prejudice toward an outgroup is an attempt to enhance one's self-esteem by making the group they identify with more attractive. **(B)** is incorrect because the **scapegoat theory** attributes prejudice to the frustration of individuals who are unable to target the real cause of their frustration and instead displace it onto a convenient target. **(C)** is also incorrect because **cultural transmission theory** focuses on how cultural attitudes and beliefs are passed down through generations. **(D)** is incorrect; the **authoritarian personality theory** links specific personality traits to prejudice. **(E)** is also wrong, as the **normative theory** links prejudice to conforming to societal norms. (See Explicit vs. Implicit Prejudice)

5. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because a **stereotype**, such as the belief that all vegetarians like sitar music, is an exaggerated or oversimplified belief about a *fairly large group of people*. **(A)** is incorrect because an **assumption** is not necessarily limited to a specific group of people. **(B)** is also incorrect because **prejudice** refers to a preconceived *feeling* about a particular group, often involving negative attitudes, while a stereotype is more cognitive and about *generalizing characteristics*. **(D)** is incorrect because **discrimination** already involves unfair or prejudiced *actions*, while **(E)** refers to the process where **individuals or groups adopt the cultural norms** of the dominant culture. (See Stereotypes)

6. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because Tara holds a belief about a group of people that is called a stereotype, an example of the **cognition** element in the ABC Model that depends on thought processes. The other options are wrong because **(A) contempt** is an *emotional* response, which corresponds to **(B) affect.** **(C)** is also wrong because **behavior** entails actions like **(E) discrimination**, an overt behavior involving unfair treatment. (See Intersectionality)

7. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because **institutional discrimination** is carried out by institutions, not individuals. A landlord's distaste for Latino applicants is a form of **individual discrimination**, where the intentional discriminatory behavior is carried out by an individual. In contrast, **(B), (C), (D),** and **(E)** are all forms of institutional discrimination because they refer to specific institutions like banks, companies, or standardized tests. (See Discrimination)

8. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because when we talk about **assimilation**, we generally mean the process through which a minority group becomes part of the dominant group in society. It could be cultural, in terms of adapting to things like dress and religion, or it could be biological, through processes like procreation or interracial marriage. The other options are wrong because

(A) only associates assimilation with intermarriage and **(B)** inaccurately links assimilation to the biological definition of races. Also, **(D)** confuses assimilation with the opposite concept of increased division between ethnic groups, while **(E)** misrepresents assimilation as a process of expelling ethnic minorities. (See Intergroup Relations)

9. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because **pluralism** is when an ethnic minority group attempts to maintain their own distinctive culture, even though they live in a larger society that is sometimes at odds with their beliefs, norms, and values. **(A)** is incorrect as it shows a pattern of assimilation, and **(B)** illustrates a pattern of amalgamation or fusion where the groups that come into contact with one another blend together to form an entirely new product. **(C)** and **(D)** are incorrect as they depict no discernible pattern of ethnic relations. (See Intergroup Relations)

10. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because, in the 1960s, the African American community joined together while supporting the non-violent leader, **Martin Luther King, Jr**. The other options are wrong because **(B) Lyndon B. Johnson** signed civil rights legislation, but he wasn't a prominent leader in the movement, whereas **(C) George Jefferson** is a fictional character from a TV show. Meanwhile, **(D) Frederick Douglass** and **(E) Abraham Lincoln** were involved in advancing the rights of African Americans, but they were already dead in the 1960s. (See Civil Rights Act of 1964)

Chapter 11: Gender, Sex, and Sexuality

1. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because, in most social sciences, **sex** refers to biological differences between males and females. In contrast to the biological concept of sex, **gender** is a social construct involving how a person identifies as male or female and how they express those traits to others. The other options are wrong because **(B)** and **(C)** refer to types of sex and gender identity. **(D)** swaps the terms. **(E)** confuses the terms related to identity and orientation and is, hence, incorrect. (See Sex and Gender)

2. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **secondary sex characteristics** include characteristics not related to reproduction, which is the opposite of **(A)**. Also, **(C)**, **(D)**, and **(E)** are incorrect as they are not commonly recognized biological concepts. (See Sex and Gender)

3. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **benevolent sexism** is the belief that women have qualities of purity and morality that men lack and should be treated like princesses. However, believing that women are delicate princesses is actually condescending in some ways because it creates the expectation that women need to be protected and can't accomplish difficult tasks on their own. It implies that women are dependent on men. Although the other options are related, they do not entirely capture the notion of benevolent sexism. (See Sexism)

4. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because **patriarchy** is the belief that power should reside in the male population, which is the opposite of **(B) matriarchy**. The other options are also wrong because **(C) patrilineal** emphasizes the male line of descent, and **(D) patrilocal** refers to the

norm that newlyweds will reside with the groom's family. Lastly, **(E)** the term **paternal** refers to the male line of ascent. (See [Patriarchy vs. Matriarchy](#))

5. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because Mead described Mundugumor as selfish, aggressive, and masculine. **(B)**, **(C)**, **(D)**, and **(E)** are incorrect because they do not accurately reflect Mead's findings regarding the aggressive behaviors of both genders in that society. (See [Margaret Mead and New Guinea](#))

6. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **gender roles** refer to socially defined and culturally accepted behaviors, expectations, and norms associated with being male or female. The other options are wrong because **(A)** is often linked to sex, while **(B)** and **(C)** do not accurately capture the concept of gender roles as established patterns of behavior and expectations. Lastly, **(E)** refers to gender identity. (See [Gender Roles and Gender Stereotypes](#))

7. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **sexual harassment** includes not only a hostile work environment but also quid pro quo harassment, where employment benefits are conditioned on submitting to sexual advances. **(A), (B), (D),** and **(E)** are true statements about sexual harassment, explaining its occurrence in different settings, its nature, forms, and potential sources. (See [Sexual Harassment](#))

8. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **institutional sexism** refers to systemic discrimination against one sex in various aspects of society. **(A), (B), (D),** and **(E)** are incorrect because they refer to different types of sexism, which do not directly capture the role of society in perpetuating unequal opportunities or advantages. (See [Sexism](#))

9. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because, while many men are now doing housework, in most families, women still have the primary responsibility for the home, even when they work outside the home. Thus, the other options are wrong because **(B)** women don't have more second jobs, and **(C)** women work similar time patterns to men. Also, **(D)** is no longer true, and **(E)** is also wrong because there are still substantial differences in earnings for comparable work. (See [Theories around Patriarchy vs. Matriarchy](#))

10. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **feminism** does not hold that women are innately superior to men. That is a sexist notion, not a feminist one. **(A), (B), (D),** and **(E)** are all goals of the feminist movement. Feminists would like to see a broader spectrum of roles for women. (See [Feminist Theory](#))

Chapter 12: Aging and the Elderly

1. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **gerontology** is the study of **maturing and development** through middle age and later life. The other options are incorrect because gerontology is not limited to **(A) degradation and failure**, **(B) growth and decay**, or **(C) sickness and health**. Lastly, gerontology doesn't pertain to **(E) children's development**; it's concerned with the later stages of life. (See [Gerontology](#))

2. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **cohort** refers to a group of people born in the same year. The other options are incorrect because **(A)** gerontology focuses on aging and the elderly, and **(B)** cohort differences concern variations between cohorts. **(D)** age-related changes involve transformations with age, while **(E)** a clique is an exclusive group of friends. (See Studying the Aging Populations)

3. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because **Young-Old** consists of 65 years to 74 years of age. **(B)** is incorrect because being active is a general characteristic, not a specific age range. **(C)** and **(E)** are incorrect since the "Young-Old" category does not include those older than 75. **(D)** is also incorrect as it associates them with retirement, which isn't definitive for this group. (See The Phases of Aging)

4. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because individuals born between 1946 and 1964 are commonly referred to as "**baby boomers**," which reflects the post-World War II baby boom. Thus, **(E)** is wrong. The other options are also wrong because **(B) Gen Zs** were born from the mid-1990s to the early 2010s; **(C) millennials** were born roughly between the early 1980s and the mid-1990s, and **(D) Gen X** were born between the mid-1960s and the early 1980s. (See Baby Boomers)

5. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because all of the statements are true regarding a **population's death rate**. The other options are incorrect because they don't cover all the true aspects mentioned in the question. (See Factors Influencing the Graying of America)

6. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because "**life expectancy**" represents the average age individuals in a population are expected to live up to. The other options are wrong because **(A)** "**mortality expectancy**" is not a commonly used term in this context, and **(C)** "**birth rate**" refers to the number of births per thousand individuals, not the age at which individuals die. **(D)** is also incorrect because "**death rate**" refers to the number of deaths per thousand individuals, whereas **(E)** "**fertility rate**" is the average number of children per woman in a population. (See Factors Influencing the Graying of America)

7. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because "**secondary aging**" involves changes that occur due to external factors like illnesses and environmental influences that accelerate the aging process. The other options are incorrect because primary aging, not secondary aging **(A)** is a natural part of growing older. **(C)** Memory training games address cognitive aspects but not the body succumbing to illnesses. **(D)** is also incorrect because skin rejuvenation serums target the skin's appearance but not the overall effects of illnesses and the environment. **(E)** is incorrect because secondary aging is influenced by external factors rather than primarily genetic ones. (See Biological Changes)

8. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **Kubler-Ross** proposed the following order: Denial, Anger, Bargaining, Depression, and finally Acceptance as stages of grief. Hence, the other options are wrong. (See Death and Dying)

9. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **Russia** has the darkest color among all the options, with at least 12 crude death rate per 1,000. This means that it has the **highest number of deaths**

among the countries compared. The other countries range between 6.4 to 8.70 as evidenced by their lighter color on the map. This makes the other options wrong. (See <u>Death Rate</u>)

10. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because the term "**birth rate**" refers to the number of births occurring within a specific population over a specified period, usually per 1,000 people. When it's stated that South Dakota has a higher birth rate, it means that **fewer births are happening in Vermont** relative to its population compared to South Dakota. This makes **(A)** incorrect. The other options are wrong because **(B)** describes infant mortality rate, **(C)** refers to fertility rate, while **(D)** pertains to death rate. (See <u>Birth Rate</u>)

Chapter 13: Marriage and Family

1. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because traditionally, a **family** can be defined as a group of individuals who are related through common ancestry, marriage, or adoption. The other options are wrong because **(A)** a **kinship** group is a more general term that can include extended relatives beyond the immediate family. **(B)** An **institution** is a larger societal structure; **(D)** A **bilateral group** doesn't accurately describe a family structure. Lastly, **(E) bigamy** refers to the act of marrying multiple spouses, which is not the definition of a family. (See <u>Family</u>)

2. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because a **nuclear family** is, in the traditional sense, a mother and father raising their children. The other options are wrong because **(A)** a **stepfamily** involves a parent's new partner and their children from past relationships, and **(C)** a **same-sex couple family** involves partners of the same gender. **(D)** is also incorrect, since an **extended family** includes relatives beyond parents and children, whereas **(E)** a **matrilocal family** involves the husband residing near the wife's family. (See <u>Family</u>)

3. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because an **extended family** structure involves a child being raised by relatives beyond the parents, like grandparents, aunts, uncles, or cousins. The other options are wrong because **(B)** a **step-family structure** includes a new partner and their children from previous relationships; **(C) single-parent families** have one parent raising the child. Similarly, **(D)** is incorrect because a **nuclear family structure** includes the parents and their children only. **(E)** is also incorrect because **patrifocal family structure** refers to a structure in which a single father independently raises her children. The family revolves around the father and his children, with the mother having minimal or no participation in raising their children (See <u>Family</u>).

4. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **marriage** is a legally recognized social contract between two people that traditionally involves a sexual relationship and implies the permanence of the union. The other options are wrong because **(A) monogamy** refers to the practice of having only one spouse, and **(B) polyandry** is a form of marriage where a woman has multiple husbands. Also, **(D) polygamy** is a broader term encompassing multiple forms of marriage involving multiple spouses, while **(E) cohabitation** refers to living together without being married. (See <u>Marriage and Family</u>)

5. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because adults in pre-industrial societies generally view marriage as an **economic arrangement**. **(A)** is incorrect because uniting on the basis of romantic love is a relatively recent phenomenon as well as a Western phenomenon. **(C)** is also incorrect because, in most pre-industrial societies, marriage is not viewed as a polygamous relationship. Both **(D)** and **(E)** include the incorrect statement II and are therefore incorrect. (See Marriage and Family)

6. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **polygamy** refers to the practice of having multiple mates of either sex simultaneously. The other options are incorrect because they describe **(A)** monogamy, **(B)** polygyny, and **(C)** polyandry, respectively. **(E)** is also incorrect because it is not accurate in describing any specific practice. (See Marriage and Family)

7. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **polygyny** allows men to have more than one wife at the same time. The other options are wrong because **(A) monogamy** is when one may have only one mate at a time, while **(B) serial monogamy** is when one may have several mates but only one at a time. Also, **(C) polygamy** is the general term used to refer to having more than one mate at a time, regardless of gender, but it doesn't specifically identify more than one wife, as the question specifies. Lastly, **(E) polyandry** is when a woman is permitted to have more than one husband at the same time. (See Marriage and Family)

8. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because Jose and Maria belong to the same ethnic and religious groups, demonstrating the norm of **endogamy**, which involves marrying within one's own social group. Other options are incorrect: **(A) exogamy** involves marrying outside the group, **(C) arranged marriages** are not evident here, **(D) stimulus-value-role theory** pertains to partner selection, and **(E) polyandrous marriages** allow women to be married to multiple men simultaneously. (See Marriage and Family)

9. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because crimes like sexual assault, rape, and domestic violence are often **underreported** due to various reasons such as stigma, fear, or a lack of trust in authorities. The other options are wrong because **(B)** does not accurately represent the main reason for the underreporting of these crimes. **(C)** is also incorrect because these crimes are indeed against the law, **(D)** is not a known cause for the underreporting of these crimes, and **(E)** the socioeconomic background of individuals is not the primary reason for the underreporting of these crimes. (See Domestic Violence)

10. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because the percentage of adults aged 18+ who live with an unmarried partner or **cohabiting** is increasing from 4.1 to 8.0, which makes **(A)** wrong (55.8 to 50.4). **(B)** is also wrong because the percentage of adults aged 18 and older living alone is actually increasing. **(C)** and **(E)** are both wrong because the chart didn't include a breakdown of adults aged 18–25 years old. (See Traditional vs. Non-Traditional Family)

Chapter 14: Religion

1. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **sociologists who study religion** look at certain religions' characteristics, the individuals involved, and religion's impact on them. **(A)**, **(B)**, and **(C)** are all incorrect because the sociology of religion does not address questions of the supernatural or the

existence of God. Religion deals with ideas neither common sense nor science can verify or disprove. Also, **(E)** is incorrect because religions remain an important part of society and are not the only focus of the sociology of religion. (See Theoretical Perspectives of Religion)

2. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **rituals** are actions that have religious significance for the participants. The other options are wrong because **(A) dogma** is a system of doctrine in religion, and **(C) churches** are the organizations and structures central to religion. Likewise, **(D) revelation** is seen as a result of participating in rituals, whereas **(E) ecumenical events** occur when representatives of more than one religion join together in ceremonies. (See Key Concepts of Religion)

3. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because **theology** involves the study of religious texts and doctrines. The other options are incorrect because **(B)** and **(C)** are not accurate definitions, **(D)** is too broad and vague. **(E)** does not accurately reflect the focus of theology on religious matters. (See Theoretical Perspectives of Religion)

4. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because **liberation theology** is grounded in Christian principles and combines religious beliefs with political activism. The other options are incorrect because **(B) Calvinistic** principles are different, **(C) radical** does not necessarily imply religious context, **(D) Protestant** is a broader religious category, and **(E) Republican** refers to political affiliation, not theological principles. (See Max Weber's Protestant Ethic and Liberation Theology)

5. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because, according to Karl Marx, the ruling class controlled the masses through **religion**, which was used to pacify and distract the working class from the inequalities of the capitalist system. The other options are incorrect because **(A) money** is a tool but not the unconscious control mechanism Marx emphasized, **(C) laws** and **(D) force** were more direct means of control, and **(E) work** is not the focus of Marx's argument about control. (See Conflict Theory)

6. **E** - The correct answer is **(E) Karl Marx** because he argued that religion serves as an "opiate" for the poor, leading them to accept their subordinate status in society. **(A) Weber** was one of the leading figures in the study of comparative religion. **(B) Tonnies'** work concentrated on the study of community. **(C) Freud** is the father of psychoanalysis. **(D) Durkheim** saw religion as having important social functions and, most importantly, as an element that helps to hold societies together. (See Conflict Theory)

7. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because **nontheistic religions**, often called "ethical religions," prioritize moral and ethical principles rather than being centered around the commandments of a deity. The other options are incorrect because **(B)** contradicts the nontheistic nature of these religions, **(C)** is opposite to the core feature of nontheistic religions, **(D)** is unrelated to their classification, and **(E)** is not a defining characteristic of nontheistic religions. (See Types of Religious Views)

8. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **monotheism** is the belief in one God, and **Islam** teaches the existence of one supreme God, Allah. This makes **(C)** and **(E)** incorrect. The other options are

also wrong because **(A) animism** is the belief that spirits inhabit both animate and inanimate objects, and **(D) theism** is the belief that gods directly interfere in human activities. (See [Monotheism](#))

9. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **civil religion** is a quasi-religious loyalty binding individuals in a secular state. **(A)** is incorrect because there is no **religion** specifically endorsed by the government. Also, **(B) secularization** is wrong because Mr. Clark is not teaching the students about the importance of religion in American society. **(C)** The United States economic system is not **socialism** but capitalism. **(E) Theodicy** refers to how religions explain random misfortune, which does not explain what Mr. Clark teaches his students. (See [Secularization](#))

10. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **secularization** refers to a decline in the importance of religion and the sacred in society. The other options are incorrect because **(A)** contradicts the concept of secularization, **(C)** is related but not the central idea of secularization, **(D)** is not a direct result of secularization, and **(E)** does not accurately define secularization. (See [Secularization](#))

Chapter 15: Education

1. **D** - The correct answer is **(D) school segregation** because this landmark case declared that the idea of "separate but equal" schooling was unconstitutional. The other options are correct because **(A)** discrimination based on gender was made illegal by the Civil Rights Act of 1964. **(B)** Discriminations in hiring and **(E)** housing are against the law because of several federal and local laws. **(C)** Bans against interracial marriages were declared unconstitutional in 1967 (Loving v. Virginia). (See [Equal Education](#))

2. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because the **No Child Left Behind Act** required school districts to demonstrate improvements in student achievement by measuring Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP). The other options are incorrect because **(A)** is a separate education initiative, **(B)** refers to a general concept but not directly to No Child Left Behind, **(D)** is a different educational framework, and **(E)** is a separate early education program. (See [No Child Left Behind](#))

3. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because supporters of **affirmative action** see it as addressing historical discrimination and promoting diversity by providing opportunities to marginalized groups. **(A)** is incorrect because affirmative action is not about perpetuating stereotypes but rather about dismantling them by promoting diversity. **(B)** is incorrect because affirmative action does not seek to prove that any race is superior or inferior to another. **(C)** is also incorrect because, while affirmative action may involve goals for diversity, it is not primarily based on strict racial quotas. **(D)** is incorrect because it does not accurately represent the core goal of affirmative action, which is to address historical and systemic inequalities, not to make any group underprivileged. (See [Affirmative Action](#))

4. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because promoting a student to the next grade despite a lack of mastery of previous grade content is called **social promotion**. The other options are incorrect

because **(B)** refers to holding a student back. **(C)** is a general term for successfully completing a course, **(D)** relates to grouping students by ability, and **(E)** is incorrect because not all options are correct. (See Social Promotion)

5. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because both self-fulfilling prophecies and tracking in education involve how the **expectations and perceptions** of teachers and others can significantly influence students' actual performance and opportunities. **(A)** is about class size and testing, **(C)** is about self-esteem and advanced placement classes, **(D)** is about teacher training, and **(E)** is about school segregation, none of which capture the essence of the controversies related to self-fulfilling prophecies and tracking. (See Classroom Issues)

6. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because when students are placed in classes based on characteristics like ability or social class, it's known as **tracking**. The other options are incorrect because **(A)** does not accurately describe this concept, **(B)** and **(C)** relate to different educational functions, and **(E)** does not directly reflect the practice described. (See Tracking System)

7. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **cultural transmission** refers to conveying information or knowledge through culture. The other options are wrong because **(A)** refers to a mode of learning, **(C)** is the acquisition of the characteristics of a culture, **(D)** is the development of culture from simple to complex, and **(E)** involves the expected, beneficial outcomes from education. (See Manifest Function of Education)

8. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because the **hidden curriculum** of a school unintentionally teaches students the social attitudes and habits needed to fit into society. The other options are wrong because **(A)** pertains to the formal subjects taught, **(B)** is a general concept, **(D)** refers to the intended purposes of education, and **(E)** is not a recognized term in educational theory. (See Latent Function of Education)

9. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **social placement**, through tracking, can perpetuate social inequality by directing students into different educational paths based on their perceived abilities, resulting in unequal access to opportunities. **(A)** means learning about norms and practices; **(C)** is related to limited access to education or academic rank; **(D)** Culturization is creating or modifying a new culture, or as proposed by Emma Gilberthorpe, using property rules in extractive industries to create distinctions, often overlooking the complexities of meaningful social relationships. **(E)** refers to promoting students despite poor performance at their level. (See Latent Function of Education)

10. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because individuals finding mates while attending a college or university is an unintended and secondary outcome of the educational system, making it a **latent function**. The other options are wrong because **(A)** is about the intended and obvious purposes of education, **(B)** is about the general societal functions of schools, **(C)** is about unspoken social lessons taught in school, and **(E)** involves arranging students into various levels or groups within the school's structure. (See Functions of School)

Chapter 16: Government and Politics

1. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **authority** is legitimate power. The other options are wrong because **(A) power** may be recognized and accepted or not; it is the ability to control others. **(B) Coercion** is forcing someone to accept your decisions. **(D) Influence** is the ability to sway others' views. It may derive from legitimate power or not. **(E) Laws** are norms that are codified and supported by the state and are a result of legitimate power. (See Types of Authority)

2. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because the **rational-legal system** of governance means authority is derived from laws and rules and tied to the individual's role, not their personal characteristics. The other options are incorrect because **(A)** impeachment is a check on power but doesn't define the entire system as rational-legal. **(B)** and **(C)** are also wrong because, although related, the Congress or judiciary support doesn't define the rational-legal system. **(D)** This describes a monarchy, not a rational-legal system. (See Rational-Legal Authority)

3. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **democracy** is a system of government in which the people have authority and participate in decision-making directly or through elected representatives. The other options are incorrect, as **(A)** describes an oligarch, **(C)** a theocracy, not a democracy, and **(D)** a form of autocracy. Lastly, **(E)** is incorrect as it does not accurately define democracy; it's closer to a reversal of the hierarchical structure in a traditional society. (See Democracy)

4. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because, in an **absolute monarchy**, the monarch holds unlimited power without legal constraints. **(A)** is incorrect because ceremonial roles do not define an absolute monarchy. **(B)** is wrong because citizen elections aren't a defining factor. **(C)** is also wrong because a lack of parliament doesn't automatically signify absolute monarchy. **(E)** is incorrect because whose opinions are considered doesn't determine the type of government. (See Monarchy)

5. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because, in the description provided, where citizens have limited civil liberties and there's a single ruler to whom people are obedient, this aligns with an **authoritarian** government. **(B)** is incorrect, as monarchy typically involves a hereditary ruler, which isn't explicitly mentioned in the description. **(C)** is also wrong because an oligarchy involves rule by a small group of individuals, not a single ruler. **(D)** and **(E)** are incorrect as **direct democracy** involves citizens directly participating in decision-making, whereas **representative democracy** involves elected officials representing the people's interests, all of which are not described in the scenario. (See Democracy)

6. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because an **oligarchy** refers to a system where a small group of individuals, often from the elite class, hold significant political power. **(B)** and **(C)** are incorrect because an oligarchy is different from a strict authoritarian rule and doesn't necessarily involve elected representatives. **(D)** is also incorrect because hereditary succession defines a monarchy, whereas **(E)** governance by the working class refers to socialism or communism. (See Oligarchy)

7. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **lobbying** is an attempt to influence the government's decision-making process. **(A) Bribery** is the illegal act of trying to buy off a public official. **(B)** There is nothing **illegal** about trying to influence government policies. **(C) White-collar crime** refers to illegal acts committed by people in legitimate positions. Lobbying is not illegal. **(E) Deviant behavior** assumes that behavior is unacceptable by the ethical or legal standards of society. (See <u>Interest Groups</u>)

8. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because the **Constitution Party** can be characterized as having views that reflect the Founding Fathers' ideals, the U.S. Constitution, the Declaration of Independence, and morals taken from the Bible. The other options are wrong because the **(A) Libertarian Party** focuses on individual liberties and limited government involvement but has broader and more modern policy positions; **(B)** The **Green Party** emphasizes environmental issues and social justice. **(D)** The **Jeffersonian Party** and **(E)** the **Freedom Party** are not widely recognized or significant political parties in the U.S. and don't have a strong connection to the ideals of the Founding Fathers. (See <u>Political Parties</u>)

9. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because the **Marxist model** views power dynamics primarily through the lens of class and economic status, highlighting the struggle between the bourgeoisie (ruling class) and the proletariat (working class). **(A)** is incorrect because the "**world-view model**" isn't a recognized sociopolitical concept. **(B)** is incorrect because the **pluralist model** emphasizes the competition and cooperation of various interest groups, not solely class and economic status. **(D)** is also incorrect, as the **power-elite model** suggests power is concentrated in the hands of a small, interconnected group of elites rather than solely focusing on class and economic status. **(E)** is incorrect because the **functionalist model** emphasizes the stability and equilibrium of society, not so much class-based power dynamics. (See <u>Marxist Model</u>)

10. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **outsider groups**, like those organizing the rally, are a key feature of the **pluralist model**. **(A)** is incorrect because the **Marxist** model focuses on class struggle and economic power dynamics. **(C)** is also incorrect because the term "**inside**" isn't commonly used to describe a specific model of power. **(D)** is wrong, as the **power-elite** model suggests that power is concentrated in the hands of a small, interconnected elite group rather than being dispersed among various interest groups. **(E)** is incorrect because the "**world-view model**" isn't a recognized sociopolitical concept. (See <u>Pluralist Model</u>)

Chapter 17: Work and the Economy

1. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because the **Davis-Moore thesis** argues that social stratification is a functional necessity as it ensures that the most important positions in society are filled by the most qualified individuals. **(A)** is incorrect, as the **Convergence Theory** focuses on the idea that as societies modernize, they become more alike. **(B)** and **(C)** are incorrect as they refer to theories and concepts that are not directly related to the Davis-Moore thesis. **(D)** is also incorrect, as "**spending ideology**" does not relate to this context. (See <u>Functionalist Perspective</u>)

2. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because, under socialism, one of the main principles is the **equitable distribution of resources and wealth** among all members of society, not just among a few wealthy individuals or entities. **(A), (B),** and **(C)** are incorrect because socialism aims to promote equality and prevent the extremes of wealth and poverty. **(E)** is also incorrect because socialism does involve government intervention, but not to the extent of controlling all aspects of individual lives. (See [Socialism](#))

3. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because Michael L. Smith's research on the sting of honey bees falls within scientific research, which is a part of the **quaternary** sector of the economy and is focused on knowledge-based activities and information services. The other options are incorrect because **(A)** the **primary sector** involves raw material extraction, **(B)** the **secondary sector** involves manufacturing and processing, **(C)** the **tertiary sector** involves services, and **(E)** the **quinary sector** involves high-level decision-making and executive roles. (See [The Modern Economy](#))

4. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because workers in the **secondary labor market** often lack the professional networks and connections that could assist them in transitioning to the primary labor market. The other options are wrong because **(A) primary** jobs generally require higher education and training. **(B)** is also incorrect because it discusses downsizing and shutdowns but doesn't directly address barriers. **(D)** and **(E)** are incorrect because the **primary labor** market's entry-level positions might not necessarily be abundant, and **secondary labor** market jobs are typically characterized by lower wages and fewer benefits. (See [The Modern Economy](#))

5. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **monopolies** can control markets, raising prices without competition and forcing consumers to pay more. The other options are wrong because **(A)** monopolies aren't always owned by illegal groups, and **(C)** they limit competition and consumer choice. **(D)** is also wrong because not all monopolies discriminate, and **(E)** while they can set standards, they can hinder innovation and variety. (See [The Modern Economy](#))

6. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **price volatility** refers to the extent of fluctuations in a stock's price over a period of time. The other options are wrong because **(A) the return on investment** is the profit relative to the initial investment, and **(B) the bell curve** represents a normal distribution. **(D)** is also incorrect because **standard deviation** measures data dispersion, and **(E) market capitalization** is a company's total value. (See [The Modern Economy](#))

7. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because large price changes indicate **high price volatility**, reflecting significant fluctuations in the market. The other options are wrong because **(B) return on investment** measures profitability, and **(C) low price volatility** would imply smaller price fluctuations. **(D)** is also incorrect because **standard deviation** measures data dispersion, whereas **(E)** indicates an **increase in market competition** that might affect prices but doesn't directly indicate large price changes. (See [The Modern Economy](#))

8. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **labor unions** work to resolve employer-employee conflicts and ensure fair wages, conditions, and rights for workers. **(A)** is wrong, as unions aim to reduce gaps in labor markets, not widen them. **(C)** is incorrect since unions primarily negotiate

collective agreements, not individual contracts. **(D)** is also incorrect because unions protect wages and benefits, not reduce them. Lastly, **(E)** is wrong, as unions encourage cooperation and collective bargaining, not competition among workers. (See [Labor Market in the United States](#))

9. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because the **Equal Pay Act** prohibits discrimination in pay based on **sex**, ensuring equal pay for equal work regardless of gender. **(B)**, **(C)**, **(D)**, and **(E)** are incorrect since they are not the primary focus of the Equal Pay Act and are not directly related to pay discrimination based on sex. (See [Wage Gap in the United States](#))

10. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because the graph shows that **8%** of the reported **physicians** in 1970 were women. This is higher than female dentists (1%) and female lawyers (5%) in 1970. Hence, the other options are incorrect. (See [Women in the Workforce](#))

Chapter 18: Healthcare and Medicine

1. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **Structural-Functionalism** is a sociological perspective that views society as a complex system of interconnected parts working together to maintain stability and balance. The other options are incorrect because **(A) conflict theory** emphasizes power struggles, and **(B)** a **feminist analysis** usually focuses on gender inequality. **(C) Symbolic-interaction analysis**, emphasizing individual interactions, may not fully cover the broader implications of the sick role. Lastly, **(E) labeling theory** focuses on the impact of labels on a person becoming a deviant. (See [Structural Functionalism](#))

2. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because the **sick role** refers to the set of social expectations and behaviors that are considered appropriate for individuals who are sick. **(B) Social role** is a broader concept that encompasses various roles and expectations. **(C) Medical role** and **(E) patient role** refer to different things not part of Talcott Parsons' theory. **(D) physician's role** refers to the responsibilities and expectations of a medical doctor. (See [Structural Functionalism](#))

3. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because elements of **industrialized nations** tend to protect people from acute infections so that they may live long enough to develop the chronic diseases associated with modern life. This makes **(B)** and **(C)** incorrect. **(A)** is also incorrect because it doesn't explain the specific shift in causes of death. Also, **(E)** working conditions might have impacted health, but the question focuses on changes in causes of death, not comparisons between industries. (See [Economics and Health](#))

4. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **smoking** is a major preventable cause of numerous health problems, including lung cancer, heart disease, and respiratory issues. According to the Centers for Disease Control (2021), 11.5% of U.S. adults are current smokers. While **(A) STDs** are a significant health concern, they are not the greatest preventable cause of many health issues in the U.S. **(B) sanitation issues** are not considered diseases. While healthy lifestyle choices and mental health support can help manage **(C) eating disorders** and **(E) anxiety disorders**, they are not entirely preventable in the same sense as the other options. (See [Cigarette Smoking](#))

5. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **eating disorders** can affect people of any gender, not just women. While the majority of cases are reported in women, eating disorders also impact men. Hence, the other options are considered true about eating disorders. (See Eating Disorders)

6. **A** - The correct answer is **(A) socialized medicine** because Great Britain's National Health System (NHS) gives **free healthcare** to all its residents. **(B)** "**Private healthcare**" implies private entities, but in Great Britain, healthcare is publicly funded by the NHS. **(C)** "**Single-payer private healthcare**" typically involves a single entity handling payments, which is not the case in Great Britain. **(D)** "**Universal private healthcare**" contradicts itself. **(E)** "**Preferred Provider Organization**" (PPO) is a US-specific private healthcare model not used in Great Britain. (See Socialized Medicine and Universal Health Care)

7. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because a **Health Maintenance Organization** (HMO) typically requires members to obtain a referral from their primary care physician before seeing a specialist. **(B)** and **(C)** are wrong because they are not recognized insurance plan types. Meanwhile, **(D)** a Preferred Provider Organization (PPO) allows members to see specialists without referrals. Also, **(E)** socialized medicine refers to a healthcare system where the government owns and operates healthcare facilities, but it's not related to the referral requirement in the question. (See Health Maintenance Organization)

8. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because HMOs provide health services to individuals or groups through a specific network of healthcare providers. The other options are wrong because **(B)** HMOs are not regarded as health authorities; **(C)** HMOs focus on services, not just the "best" providers at low cost, **(D)** HMOs don't set standards for insurance acts, and **(E)** HMOs aren't nonprofit promoters of healthy living. (See Health Maintenance Organization)

9. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **sanctioned deviance** refers to behaviors that deviate from societal norms but are approved by an authority figure, like a doctor. The other options are wrong because **(A)** they violate norms without the authority's approval. **(B)** Refusal to act like an ill person defies illness norms but is not necessarily approved by authority. **(D)** focuses on medical treatment rather than authority approval, while **(E)** relates to societal attitudes, not authority approval. (See Structural Functionalism)

10. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **medicalization** refers to defining and treating behaviors or conditions previously considered moral or social issues as medical problems. The other options are wrong because **(A)** addresses bias, a separate issue from the medicalization of deviance. **(B)** focuses on isolation and productivity during illness. **(D)** concerns the evolving doctor-patient relationship rather than the reclassification of deviant behaviors. **(E)** is related to public health education but does not involve redefining deviant behavior. (See Symbolic Interactionism)

Chapter 19: Population, Urbanization, and the Environment

1. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **demography** is defined as the study of the **size, density, and distribution of the human population. (A)** captures size, density, and abundance but lacks

the mention of distribution, which is integral to demography. **(B)** emphasizes distribution but neglects size and density. **(D)** only considers population size, omitting density and distribution. **(E)** is unrelated, as it pertains to the study of genetic characteristics within a population rather than the population's characteristics as a whole. Therefore, the accurate definition includes all three components: size, density, and distribution. (See Demography and Population)

2. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)**, the exception. Fertility is the actual output of reproduction, while fecundity is the potential output. **(A)** This statement highlights the difference between fertility (actual births) and fecundity (potential births). **(B)** This statement correctly mentions Europe's low fertility rate. **(C)** This statement provides the fertility rate in the United States. (D) This statement, like option **(A)**, correctly distinguishes between fertility and fecundity. (See Fertility)

3. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because Malthus said that while food production remains somewhat stable, population growth increases exponentially. **(A)**, **(B)**, **(C)**, and **(D)** do not accurately represent Malthus's theory of population growth and food production. (See Demographic Theories)

4. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because demographic transition involves the shift from **high birth and death rates to low birth and death rates**. This transition reflects social and economic development, improved healthcare, and changing population dynamics. **(B)** is incorrect, as it describes a shift from high birth and low death rates to the same pattern. **(C)** misrepresents the concept by suggesting a move from low birth and death rates to low birth and high death rates. **(D)** incorrectly implies a reversal from low rates to high rates. **(E)**'s notion of constant rates over time doesn't align with the changing nature of demographic transition. (See Demographic Theories)

5. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because urbanization amplifies **environmental pollution** due to higher population density and increased industrialization in cities. **(A)** narrows the focus to suburbs and pollution, omitting the broader effects of urbanization. **(C)**'s idea of decreased pollution in cities is generally untrue. **(D)**'s claim of no environmental impact from urbanization is inaccurate. **(E)**'s notion of urbanization significantly reducing energy consumption and resource depletion doesn't align with the usual outcome of increased urbanization, which tends to raise resource demands. (See Challenges of Urbanization)

6. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because **Gemeinschaft** is a community characterized by close-knit relationships and a shared sense of purpose. The other options are wrong because **(A)** **gentrification** is when wealthier residents and businesses transform urban neighborhoods, causing property values and rent to rise and altering the neighborhood's culture. **(B)** **Gesellschaft** describes societies with impersonal, self-interested, and contractual relationships. **(C) Socialism** is an economic system that supports collective or government control of production and distribution, but it doesn't entirely capture the scenario described. **(D) Zone 1** is the innermost circle where most employment opportunities lie in a city. (See Growth of Cities)

7. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because **Zone 1** is the innermost circle where most employment opportunities lie in a city. **(B) Zone 2** serves as the transportation center, housing facilities like rail and shipping yards. **(C) Zone 3** is the residential area for lower-income residents. **(D) Zone 4** accommodates middle-income households. **(E) Zone 5** is the residence of upper-middle-income individuals. (See Growth of Cities)

8. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because an outlying district of a city is referred to as a **suburb**. This term accurately describes a residential area located on the edges of a city. **(A) Suburban sprawl** incorrectly focuses on excessive suburban development rather than the district itself. **(C) The peripheral model** pertains to urban planning concepts rather than the term in question. **(D) Urban sprawl** denotes unplanned city expansion, encompassing both central and outer areas. **(E) metropolis** signifies a large city but doesn't specifically indicate an outlying district. Therefore, **(B)** is accurate, while the other options misrepresent or broaden the context. (See Challenges of Urbanization)

9. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because global warming occurs when the **average temperature of the lower atmosphere increases over time due to the accumulation of greenhouse gases**. **(A)** is limited to surface warming and doesn't encompass the broader atmospheric change. **(B)** relates to climate variability, not the gradual increase in temperature. **(C)** addresses localized heat waves rather than the global trend. **(E)** Orbital distance impact is incorrect; greenhouse gases are the primary driver. **(D)** accurately describes global warming's core mechanism, while the other options deviate from or overlook essential aspects. (See Global Warming)

10. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because environmental racism refers to the **unequal exposure of minority or low-income communities to environmental hazards. (A)** is about resource depletion, unrelated to environmental racism. **(B)** focuses on animal rights, not the unequal burden on communities. **(D)** broadly mentions pollution without addressing systemic injustices. **(E)**, discussing equitable distribution doesn't capture the specific issue of disproportionate burdens. (C) aptly defines environmental racism by highlighting the targeted environmental hazards faced by marginalized communities, while the other options miss this aspect. (See Environmental Racism)

Chapter 20: Social Movements and Change

1. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because members of a crowd don't have clearly defined expectations of behavior. They often exhibit behaviors they wouldn't individually **(A)**, they feel urgency **(B),** they are physically close **(C),** and they may influence each other's behavior **(E)**. (See Crowd Behavior)

2. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **convergence theory** posits that people with similar inclinations gather to form crowds, leading to shared behavior and action. Other options are incorrect because **(A) strain theory** focuses on societal pressures causing deviance. **(B) Social Structure Theory** examines how social structures influence behavior. **(D) Harmonic theory** isn't

a recognized sociological theory. **(E) Emergent Norm Theory** explains crowd behavior due to new norms forming in a group situation. (See Convergence Theory)

3. **D** - The correct answer is **(D) conventional crowds** because they engage in more deliberate planning of action and events. The other options are incorrect because **(A) acting crowds** are characterized by spontaneous and unstructured behavior. **(B) Casual crowds** are relatively unstructured and lack a specific goal or purpose. **(C) Expressive crowd**s are driven by emotional release rather than deliberate planning. **(E) Rioting crowds** are fueled by disorder and violence rather than deliberate planning. (See Crowd Behavior)

4. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because a **social movement** is a group of individuals with shared beliefs and objectives working collectively to accomplish specific goals within society. **(A) The Communist Movement** refers to a specific ideological movement centered around communism. **(B) The Republican Movement** pertains to a political movement associated with republicanism, while the **(C) Democratic Movement** represents a political movement focused on democracy. **(E) The Capitalist movement** refers to a movement advocating capitalism. (See Social Movements)

5. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because people who feel **deprived or unfairly treated** are more likely to mobilize and form social movements to address perceived injustices. Other options are incorrect because **(A)** focuses on the need for attention, and **(B)** focuses on personal validation, not the underlying motivation for social movements. **(C)** doesn't directly relate to the sense of deprivation as a trigger for social movements. **(D)** describes resignation, not the proactive nature of social movements driven by perceived injustices. (See Deprivation Theory)

6. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **reform movements** seek modest changes in society without altering its structure significantly. The other options are wrong because **(A) expressive movements** concentrate on personal or emotional issues rather than societal change. **(C) Revolutionary movements** advocate profound changes in society**. (D) Mob behavior** involves disorganized, temporary actions by small groups, not a social movement. **(E) Radical movements** propose extreme alternatives to existing societal functioning. (See Types of Social Movements)

7. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **transformation framing** involves adapting and changing their goals to remain relevant in the changing social context. Other options are incorrect because **(A) extension** does not involve completely changing goals but expanding upon existing ones. **(B) Amplification** refers to enhancing existing goals without changing them significantly. **(C) Bridging** involves connecting different groups but doesn't necessarily entail changing goals. **(E) Diagnostic** is not a term related to changing goals in this context. (See Framing/Frame Analysis)

8. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because a mass society is a **society in which prosperity and bureaucracy have weakened traditional social ties**. **(A)** contradicts the characteristics of a mass society. **(C)** does not accurately reflect the concept of a mass society, and **(D)** is not a defining characteristic of a mass society. **(E)** is not accurate because only **(B)** correctly describes a mass society. (See Mass-Society Theory)

9. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because **worker exploitation** occurs when a country employs labor from another country to produce goods or services at significantly **lower wages** or under poor working conditions. Other options are incorrect because **(B)** at home refers to production within the country, not exploitation. **(C)** and **(E)** don't directly relate to worker exploitation. **(D)** More expensive contradicts the concept of exploiting workers for cost savings. (See Worker Exploitation)

10. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **technology advanced** during this period, **especially with the evolution of the Internet**. The other options are wrong because **(A) military expansion** characterized the first period of globalization, while **(B) steam and rail power systems** characterized the Second Period of globalization. **(D) Population decline** is not a characteristic of the Third Period of globalization, and **(E) economic isolationism** does not align with technological advancements and increased connectivity. (See Causes of Social Change)

Practice Exam

1. **W.E.B. Du Bois developed this idea which explained what it was like for Black people living in a white world.**

    A. double consciousness
    B. racial consciousness
    C. double impression
    D. dramaturgy
    E. first impression

2. **Which of the following items best fit within the practice of interpretivist sociology?**

    A. The procedure of hypothesis testing
    B. Digital survey design tools
    C. Asking people to provide their views on community relations
    D. Quantitative analysis software programs
    E. Manipulating variables

3. **According to Karl Marx, this was the deciding principle of social life.**

    A. self-identity
    B. social class
    C. government
    D. self-impression
    E. self-image

4. **Select the example that demonstrates the best application of critical sociology by a research sociologist.**

    A. A sociologist engages a group of first-year college students to better explain campus integration patterns.
    B. A sociologist observes elementary students on the playground to better understand group dynamics.
    C. A sociologist employs a simple survey design to collect data on community relations in a particular city.
    D. A sociologist uses existing smoking data in large cities to lessen the number of smokers in the U.S.
    E. A sociologist conducts a survey among college students to learn more about socialization.

5. **What type of correlation is suggested by the following example: As the quantity of hours studied increases, a student's grade point average increases?**

    A. No relationship
    B. Positive correlation
    C. Negative correlation
    D. A causal relationship
    E. Inverse relationship

6. **Which statement best describes why evidence for reliability across time in a research study is important?**

    A. It isn't. You can make more reliable predictions about future findings based on a single study.

    B. It establishes that findings are consistent over a long period, allowing researchers to make accurate conclusions.

    C. It establishes that findings will remain the same when different groups of people conduct the same research.

    D. It uses qualitative research to suggest quantitative research constructs that can predict future events.

    E. It establishes that findings will vary when the study gets replicated at another time.

7. **All of the following are examples of an ascribed status EXCEPT:**

    A. Nobility

    B. Sex

    C. Race

    D. Education

    E. Nationality

8. **_____ culture includes the values and norms that a culture claims to have, whereas culture includes the values and norms that a culture actually follows.**

    A. Real; ideal

    B. Ideal; norm

    C. Ideal; real

    D. Perspective; real

    E. Ideal; material

9. **The process by which ideas and technology move from one culture to another is called**

    A. Invasion.

    B. Acculturation.

    C. Evolution.

    D. Cultural contact.

    E. Diffusion.

10. **In a hunter/gatherer society:**

    A. Members engage in small-scale farming, use simple tools, and are semi-settled.

    B. Members are completely settled, live in societies of large populations, and hunt game or gather vegetation for food.

    C. Members are completely settled and use advanced technology on their farms.

    D. Members are nomadic. Some individuals hunt large game while others gather vegetables or berries.

    E. Members are semi-nomadic, often moving their herds to find grazing lands.

11. **According to Goffman, a professor presenting herself to her students as competent and knowledgeable is involved in**

    A. status inconsistency.
    B. impression management activities.
    C. skilled cooperation.
    D. status performance.
    E. role distance.

12. **A person who is driven by this structure of personality operates on a pleasure principle and does whatever makes them feel good without any thought to the consequences.**

    A. Id
    B. Ego
    C. Superego
    D. Superid
    E. Sub-ego

13. **1-year-old Zack loves to push his toy shopping cart and pull on a stuffed cat's ear to hear it meow. He also loves to open cabinets and bang on pots and pans. Zack is in which stage of Jean Piaget's stages of cognitive development?**

    A. Preoperational thinking stage
    B. Sensorimotor intelligence stage
    C. Oral-sensory stage
    D. Locomotor stage
    E. Concrete operational stage

14. **Which of the following answer choices contains the best example of a primary social group?**

    A. A group of coworkers who have been assigned to a temporary project together
    B. A group of church members who are organizing a potluck
    C. A softball team that plays together for one season
    D. A group of friends who spend every holiday and birthday together
    E. A group of people waiting in line together at a grocery store.

15. **An informal sanction for shoplifting would be**

    A. receiving a fine from the store.
    B. a judge requiring you to perform 20 hours of community service.
    C. your Friday night date canceling because he doesn't want to be seen with a thief.
    D. imprisonment for a week.
    E. fulfilling a requirement to attend 12-step meetings for shoplifters.

16. C. Wright Mills's concept of the "power elite" included all of the following EXCEPT

    A.   the military elite.
    B.   the economic elite.
    C.   the political elite.
    D.   the media elite.
    E.   an overall worldview shared by various elite groups.

17. Which of the following answer choices best describes what corporate crime is?

    A.   It is when the government commits a crime against a private corporation.
    B.   It is a crime committed by a company or someone acting on its behalf.
    C.   It is when someone in a high-power position commits a crime against a company.
    D.   It is a crime committed by someone in a high social position, usually as part of their job.
    E.   It is a crime committed by a low-ranking employee against the company.

18. Four American corporations produce approximately 80 percent of the world's light bulbs. This is an example of

    A.   monopoly.
    B.   conglomerates.
    C.   economic elite.
    D.   oligopoly.
    E.   economic diversification.

19. One of the characteristics of a caste system is that it is based on

    A.   achieved status.
    B.   ascribed status.
    C.   intergenerational mobility.
    D.   intragenerational mobility.
    E.   exogamy.

20. The social class that is characterized by "old money," or substantial inherited wealth, is the

    A.   upper class.
    B.   upper-middle class.
    C.   lower-middle class.
    D.   working class.
    E.   lower class.

21. Louis is a carpenter. Because of automation, machinery will now do the manual work he used to do. His company sends him for retraining. Upon his return, he will receive a promotion to computer specialist. Louis is experiencing

    A. immigrant mobility.
    B. structural mobility.
    C. downward mobility.
    D. individual mobility.
    E. horizontal mobility.

22. Which one of the following statements about capital flight is correct?

    A. Capital flight refers to the tendency of developing countries to overinvest in commercial aircraft.
    B. Capital flight refers to developing countries' citizens accumulating or investing their savings in industrially advanced countries.
    C. Capital flight refers to the high international mobility of speculative funds caused by variations in exchange rates.
    D. Capital flight refers to the tendency of large corporations of industrially advanced countries to build new plants in developing countries because labor is cheaper.
    E. Capital flight refers to the practice of developing countries investing heavily in their own domestic industries.

23. _____ is a system by which society ranks categories of people in a hierarchy.

    A. Social mobility
    B. Social stratification
    C. Caste system
    D. Open system
    E. Meritocracy

24. A group of people who share certain physical and/or cultural characteristics, and who are victims of prejudice and discrimination are called a(n)

    A. ethnic group.
    B. racial group.
    C. majority group.
    D. minority group.
    E. marginal group.

25. **When new groups enter a society and experience high rates of intermarriage with members of the host society, the new group will most likely go through which of the following processes?**

    A. Separatism
    B. Amalgamation
    C. Cultural pluralism
    D. Segregation
    E. Multiculturalism

26. **In Robert Merton's analysis of racial prejudice and discrimination, which "type" holds discriminatory attitudes but does not act on those beliefs?**

    A. Unprejudiced nondiscriminator
    B. Unprejudiced discriminator
    C. Prejudiced nondiscriminator
    D. Prejudiced discriminator
    E. Racist

27. **An ideology that legitimates the subordination of women is called**

    A. Prejudice.
    B. Racism.
    C. Discrimination.
    D. Sexism.
    E. Ethnocentrism.

28. **According to this theory of aging, elderly adults maintain the same internal and external structures as they did in the earlier years of their lives.**

    A. Continuity theory
    B. Symbolic-interaction theory
    C. Activity theory
    D. Social-conflict theory
    E. Disengagement theory

29. **Which theory of aging, developed by Cummings and Henry in the late 1950s, claims that men and women step away from their previous roles in society as they age?**

    A. Gender social-conflict theory
    B. Disengagement theory
    C. Symbolic interaction
    D. Inactivity theory
    E. Continuity theory

30. Which of the following best describes matrilineal descent?

    A. It is a system of family lineage traced only through the male side of the family.
    B. It is when a newly married couple lives near or with the husband's family.
    C. It is when a newly married couple lives near or with the wife's family.
    D. It is a system of family lineage traced only through the female side of the family.
    E. It is when a newly married couple lives far from their original family.

31. Hunter and Madeline are not married but have three children and live together. This is an example of _____ .

    A. single parenthood
    B. a stepfamily
    C. a traditional family
    D. cohabitation
    E. blended family

32. In some cultures, a relationship in which a man has long-term sexual relationships with more than one woman is accepted.

    A. endogamy
    B. polygyny
    C. exogamy
    D. polyandry
    E. homogamy

33. Which researcher believed sexual orientation was flexible?

    A. Sigmund Freud
    B. Alfred Kinsey
    C. John Watson
    D. George Murdock
    E. Carol Gilligan

34. Which of the following best describes liberation theology?

    A. It is the decline in the importance of religion in modern society that liberates people from behavioral constraints.
    B. It is a combination of Christian principles with political activism based on the thought that Christians should help the poor and oppressed.
    C. It is when people attempt to convert others into their religion in an effort to 'save' or help them.
    D. It shows that people who are more religious tend to be happier and more content than those who are not.
    E. It is the increasing separation between the church and state.

35. **Although Miranda does not believe God exists, she thinks that it's impossible for anyone to know for sure. Miranda would be considered a(n):**

   A. Theist
   B. Agnostic Atheist
   C. Atheist
   D. Agnostic
   E. Nontheist

36. **Which of the following best describes creeping credentialism?**

   A. It is when only one gender of children is educated. It typically occurs in preindustrial societies.
   B. It is the overemphasis on the importance of academic qualifications in the job market.
   C. It is when the laws of a country mandate compulsory education for all children, but the state is unable to fulfill that obligation due to poor economic conditions.
   D. They are laws enacted after the Industrial Revolution requiring all children to attend school.
   E. It is when employers hire an employee who lacks credentials simply because they are relatives or friends.

37. **Colleges help prepare students for their future careers. This is an example of a function of the school:**

   A. manifest
   B. cultural
   C. latent
   D. social
   E. hidden

38. **All of the following statements concerning Political Action Committees are true EXCEPT:**

   A. They pay for advertisements that support or oppose the viewpoints of political candidates.
   B. They raise money to support candidates or political parties' election campaigns.
   C. They are special interest groups that influence candidates or political parties through money.
   D. They are hired by big companies and groups to advocate for their causes.
   E. They can donate money directly to political candidates' campaigns.

39. **All of the following characteristics are elements of a totalitarian government EXCEPT**

   A. government control of the media.
   B. government control of the military.
   C. government control of the educational system.
   D. an ideology that legitimates the current state.
   E. several political parties.

40. **The U.S. is considered to be a _____ economy, which is a market-based economy where goods and services that are produced are intended to make a profit.**

    A. Democratic
    B. Socialist
    C. Capitalist
    D. Consumer
    E. Republican

41. **One disadvantage of this type of economy is the elimination of individualism since citizens are not allowed to own any assets, and everything belongs to the state.**

    A. Authoritarianism
    B. Capitalism
    C. Socialism
    D. Totalitarianism
    E. Monarchy

42. **What type of workers make up the quaternary sector of the economy?**

    A. Factory workers and seamstress
    B. Farmers and coal miners
    C. CEOs and media executives
    D. Scholars, researchers, and librarians
    E. Pharmacists, nurses, and doctors

43. **All of the following factors contributed to the American Industrial Revolution EXCEPT:**

    A. The creation of new inventions, which led to new industries
    B. Proper weather conditions for growing textile crops
    C. Migration of skilled workers from Europe
    D. Americans moved from urban areas to rural farmlands to earn more money
    E. Improved transportation

44. **Jose's insurance allows him to go to any specialist without a referral, although it is less costly if he chooses from a specific pool of doctors. He most likely has a _____ insurance plan.**

    A. Preferred Provider Organization
    B. Health Provider Organization
    C. Preferred Maintenance Organization
    D. Health Maintenance Organization
    E. Socialized Medicine

45. Bob wants to move to the suburbs but is unable to do so. Bob is probably

    A. poor and less educated.
    B. educated and elderly.
    C. middle class and less educated.
    D. white and middle class.
    E. working class and elderly.

46. Newpark, an old rundown part of the city, has recently been bought by a wealthy businessman who has repaired the area and is now renting to mainly white, middle-class professionals. This process is referred to as

    A. industrialization.
    B. over-urbanization.
    C. gentrification.
    D. suburbanization.
    E. Centralization.

47. According to the theory of the demographic transition, the final stage in the transition process results in

    A. high birth rates and high death rates.
    B. high birth rates and low death rates.
    C. low birth rates and high death rates.
    D. low birth rates and low death rates.
    E. changes in agricultural output.

48. A population's net increase/decrease depends on which of the following factors?
I. Migration II. Fertility III. Mortality IV. Urbanization

    A. I only.
    B. II only.
    C. III only.
    D. I and IV only.
    E. I, II, and III only.

49. All of the following statements concerning the emergent norm theory of crowd behavior are correct EXCEPT:

    A. It assumes that individuals act irrationally as they come under the influence of a crowd.
    B. It combines aspects of both the contagion and convergence theories of crowd behavior.
    C. It states that crowd behavior is guided by the unique social norms that are set by the crowd members.
    D. It believes that as crowds develop, new expectations and norms can emerge, allowing for behavior that would normally not occur.
    E. It proposes that crowd members adapt to the situation by conforming to emergent norms.

50. Which of the following answer choices best describes a revolutionary social movement?

    A. It is a social movement carried out at an individual level that advocates for minor changes.

    B. It is a social movement to replace an existing social order through radical change.

    C. It is a social movement that seeks to change only some specific aspects of society.

    D. It is a social movement at the individual level that advocates for major changes.

    E. It is a social movement focused on preserving the existing social order and resisting any kind of change.

Practice Exam Answer Key

1. A	2. C	3. B	4. D	5. B
6. B	7. D	8. C	9. E	10. D
11. B	12. A	13. B	14. D	15. C
16. D	17. B	18. D	19. B	20. A
21. B	22. C	23. B	24. D	25. B
26. C	27. D	28. A	29. B	30. D
31. D	32. B	33. B	34. B	35. B
36. B	37. A	38. D	39. E	40. C
41. C	42. D	43. D	44. A	45. A
46. C	47. D	48. E	49. A	50. B

Practice Exam Answer Key and Explanation

1. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because Du Bois introduced the concept of "**double consciousness**," which refers to the experience of black individuals feeling a sense of two identities. **(B)** is incorrect because "**racial consciousness**" is not the term used by Du Bois. The other options are also unrelated to Du Bois' concept, especially **(D)** dramaturgy, which was developed by Erving Goffman. (See [Overview of Influential Sociological Theorists](#))

2. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **interpretive sociology** focuses on understanding and interpreting the meanings and subjective experiences of individuals. The other options are wrong because they are related to quantitative and empirical methods, which are more in line with positivist sociology. (See [Sociology Approaches](#))

3. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **Karl Marx** argued that **social class**, determined by one's relationship to the means of production (e.g., bourgeoisie or proletariat), was the primary factor. **(A)**, **(C)**, **(D)**, and **(E)** do not represent Marx's central focus on social class as the deciding principle of social life. (See [Karl Marx](#))

4. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **critical sociology** aims to address and challenge issues of inequality, injustice, and social change. **(A)**, **(B)**, and **(C)** involve descriptive or exploratory research but do not necessarily address social issues or inequalities. **(E)** focuses on understanding socialization but does not explicitly address a societal issue. (See [Three Major Views on Sociological Research](#))

5. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because a **positive correlation** indicates that as one variable (hours studied) increases, the other variable (grade point average) also increases. This makes **(A)** incorrect. Also, **(C) negative correlation**, where one variable decreases as the other increases, is not the case here. **(D)** mentions a causal relationship, which may not necessarily be inferred from a correlation. **(E) Inverse relationship** is another term used for the negative correlation. (See [Quantitative Analysis](#))

6. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **reliability** across time in research means that the study's findings remain consistent and predictable over an extended period. **(A)** is incorrect because reliability across time is essential for making predictions. **(C)** is incorrect because it confuses reliability across time with inter-rater reliability. **(D)** is unrelated to the concept, and **(E)** is incorrect because reliability implies that findings remain consistent. (See [Validity and Reliability](#))

7. **D** - The correct answer is **(D) education** because an **ascribed status** is a social position assigned to an individual without regard for their efforts or choices. **(A)** Nobility, **(B)** sex, **(C)** race, and **(E)** nationality are typically ascribed statuses because individuals are born into or assigned these categories without control. On the other hand, education is often considered an **achieved** status because it reflects an individual's efforts and choices. (See [Status & Role within Sociology](#))

8. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **ideal culture** refers to the values and norms a culture claims to uphold and aspire to, while **real culture** represents the values and norms practiced in a

culture. **(A)**, **(B)**, **(D)**, and **(E)** do not correctly pair the terms with their definitions. (See Ideal Culture & Real Culture)

9. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because **diffusion** is the migration of ideas, beliefs, and technology from one culture to another. Meanwhile, **(A) invasion** assumes a forced encroachment of one group onto another territory. **(B) Acculturation** is the process by which immigrants absorb the culture of their new society. **(C) Evolution** is the slow process of adaptation that occurs in nature. **(D) Cultural contact** is the first experience of two cultures coming into contact. It may lead to diffusion but does not refer to the diffusion of things itself. (See Diffusion and Globalization)

10. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **hunter-gatherer societies** are typically nomadic, meaning they move from place to place in search of food sources. **(A)** is incorrect because it describes a different type of society (small-scale farming). **(B)** and **(C)** are incorrect because they describe a settled agricultural society and a settled society with advanced technology, respectively. **(E)** is also incorrect because it describes a semi-nomadic society often linked to a pastoral society. (See Types of Societies)

11. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **impression management** consciously manipulates role performance to make an impression, as the professor does here. **(A) Status inconsistency** involves different stratification dimensions, not role manipulation. **(C)** and **(D)** have no sociological meaning. Lastly, **(E) role distance** describes the gap between our true selves and our portrayal, but it isn't the process at play here. (See Presentation of Self)

12. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because **Sigmund Freud**'s structural model of personality includes the "**id**," which seeks immediate gratification of desires and instincts without considering the consequences. The other options are wrong because the **(B) ego** balances the demands of the id, superego, and reality. The **(C) superego** represents the internalized moral standards and values. **(D)** "**Superid**" and **(E) Sub-ego** are not recognized components of Freud's model. (See Freud's Theory of the Id, Ego & Superego)

13. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because, according to Jean Piaget, the **sensorimotor stage** (birth to around two years old) is when children explore the world through sensory experiences. Zack's behavior and age align with the characteristics of this stage. The other options are wrong because **(A)** and **(E)** usually occur *after* two years old. **(C)** and **(D)** are not recognized stages in Piaget's theory. (See Jean Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development)

14. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **primary social groups** are characterized by close, enduring relationships, often based on personal connections and emotional ties. **(A)** represents a temporary work group. **(B)** involves members of a shared organization but does not necessarily imply close personal relationships. **(C)** describes a temporary, task-oriented group. **(E)** is a situationally formed group with no inherent long-term relationships. (See Types of Groups)

15. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because an **informal sanction** is a non-official, social response to behavior that conveys approval or disapproval. **(A)**, **(B)**, and **(D)** are considered legal sanctions,

while **(E)** involves a structured intervention program, not necessarily a sanction. (See [Deviance and Control](#))

16. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because Mills argued that the **power elite** consisted of the **(A)** military, **(B)** economic, and **(C)** political elites who **(E)** tend to share an overall worldview. Hence, **(D)** is the exception. (See [Power Elite](#))

17. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because the best description of **corporate crime** is a crime committed by a company or someone acting on its behalf. **(A)** describes a different scenario where the government commits a crime against a private corporation. **(C)** shows a crime committed by someone in a high-power position *against* a company, which is not the primary definition of corporate crime. **(D)** reflects a crime committed by someone in a high social position, which may or may not involve a corporation. **(E)** illustrates a crime committed by a low-ranking employee *against* a company, which does not define corporate crime. (See [Applications of Conflict Theory of Crime](#))

18. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because an **oligopoly** is where a small number of firms dominate the market. The other options are wrong because **(A) monopoly** is when a single firm dominates the market; **(B) conglomerates** refer to large corporations with diversified holdings, not necessarily dominating a single industry. Likewise, **(C) economic elite** is a broader concept that is not directly related, and **(E) economic diversification** refers to a variety of industries within an economy. (See [Media Globalization](#))

19. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **ascribed status** is determined at birth. It is usually associated with rigid systems of stratification, such as **castes**. The other options are wrong because **(A) achieved status** is a characteristic of a mobile society. Both **(C) inter-generational** and **(D) intragenerational mobility** rarely occur in a caste-like society. **(E) Exogamy** refers to marriage outside of one's group. Typically, marriage in a caste-based society occurs within one's group, or caste, which is known as endogamy. (See [Types of Systems](#))

20. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because the **upper class** typically includes individuals who have inherited significant financial resources. Meanwhile, **(B)** the **upper-middle class** is generally characterized by higher income and education but may not necessarily have substantial inherited wealth. **(C)** The **lower-middle class** typically consists of individuals with moderate income and education. **(D)** The **working class** includes individuals who rely on employment for income, often without significant inherited wealth. **(E)** The **lower class** typically refers to individuals with lower income and limited access to resources. (See [Upper Class](#))

21. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because Louis's change in occupation is due to **structural** changes in the workforce (automation), leading to his promotion. The other options are wrong because **(A) immigrant mobility** refers to changes in an individual's status or class upon moving to a new country, whereas **(C) downward mobility** implies a decline in one's social or economic status. **(D) Individual mobility** is a general term that doesn't specify the type of mobility Louis is experiencing. **(E) Horizontal mobility** typically involves changing jobs or positions within the same social or economic class without a significant change in status. (See [Social Mobility](#))

22. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **capital flight** refers to the rapid movement of large sums of money (capital) out of a country due to concerns about economic or political instability, often caused by **fluctuations in exchange rates**. The other options are wrong because capital flight does not refer to **(A)** developing countries overinvesting in commercial aircraft or **(B)** citizens investing their savings in industrially advanced countries. It is also not about **(D)** large corporations from industrially advanced countries building new plants in developing countries or **(E)** developing countries investing heavily in their domestic industries. (See Issues Faced by Different Types of Nations)

23. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **social stratification** is the broader concept that encompasses the ranking of people in society based on various factors, including class, wealth, race, and more. It is not limited to **(C) caste system** or **(E) meritocracy**. Likewise, **(A) social mobility** and **(D) open systems** are related but distinct concepts. (See What is Social Stratification?)

24. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because, in sociology, a **minority group** is defined as a group that experiences unequal treatment or discrimination based on characteristics such as race, ethnicity, religion, or gender. It is a broader term than **(B) racial group** or **(A) ethnic group** because it encompasses various forms of discrimination. **(C) Majority group** refers to the dominant or privileged group in a society; **(E) marginal group** isn't a standard sociological term. (See Social Minority vs. Social Majority)

25. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **amalgamation** is a sociological concept describing the blending or mixing of different cultures through intermarriage or other forms of interaction. It is distinct from **(A) separatism**, which involves groups remaining distinct and separate, and **(C) cultural pluralism**, where different cultures coexist without merging. **(D) Segregation** involves the enforced separation of different racial or ethnic groups, and **(E) multiculturalism** emphasizes maintaining distinct cultural identities within a society. (See Intergroup Relations)

26. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **prejudiced non-discriminators** hold discriminatory attitudes but do *not* act on them due to societal norms or legal constraints. The other options are wrong because **(A) unprejudiced non-discriminators** do not hold discriminatory attitudes, and **(B) unprejudiced discriminators** do not hold discriminatory attitudes, but they may still engage in discriminatory *behaviors*. **(D) Prejudiced discriminators** both hold discriminatory attitudes and act on them. Lastly, **(E) Racist** is a type of discriminator specific only to race. (See Discrimination)

27. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **sexism** is an ideology that offers justification for a belief in male dominance. The other options are wrong because **(A) prejudice** is the general term used to describe the prejudgment of others and is not limited to gender. **(B) Racism** is the ideology that legitimates the belief in *racial* superiority. **(C) Discrimination** refers to unequal treatment of persons because of the group they belong to, but it's not specific to gender. **(E) Ethnocentrism** is judging others based on the values and beliefs of your group. (See Sexism)

28. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because **continuity theory** posits that elderly adults maintain the same internal and external structures, including their personality, values, and social roles, as they did in their earlier years of life. The other options are incorrect because **(B) symbolic-interaction theory** examines how individuals construct symbolic meanings but doesn't discuss maintaining internal and external structures in aging. **(C) Activity theory** advocates active engagement in later life for happiness but doesn't emphasize maintaining structures. **(D) Social-conflict theory** focuses on societal inequalities and conflicts, and **(E) disengagement theory** suggests that the elderly withdraw from roles. This contrasts with continuity theory, which emphasizes structural continuity. (See Theoretical Perspectives on Aging)

29. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **disengagement theory**, developed by Cummings and Henry, proposes that individuals step away from their previous societal roles as they age. This includes withdrawing from work and other social roles. **(A) Gender social-conflict theory** and **(C) Symbolic interactionism** are broader theories that don't just focus on age. **(D)** is the opposite of **(E)** activity theory, which advocates for the active engagement of elders. (See Theoretical Perspectives on Aging)

30. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **matrilineal descent** is a system of family lineage where ancestry and inheritance are traced through the female line, typically through the mother's side. **(A)** is incorrect because it describes **patrilineal descent**, where family lineage is traced through the male side. **(B), (C),** and **(E)** are incorrect as they describe **residence patterns** and not the system of lineage. (See Residency and Lines of Descent)

31. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because Hunter and Madeline are not married but live together, which is the definition of **cohabitation**. **(A) Single parenthood** would not apply because there are two parents involved. **(B)** is incorrect because a **stepfamily** refers to a family in which one or both partners have children from previous relationships. **(C)** A **traditional family** typically refers to a nuclear family, involving *married* parents and their biological children. **(E)** A **blended family** consists of a couple and their children from this and all previous relationships. (See Cohabitation)

32. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **polygyny** is a marital arrangement where a man has *multiple wives* simultaneously. The other options are wrong because **(A) endogamy** is marriage within a specific social, cultural, or ethnic group; **(C) exogamy** is marriage outside of a specific social, cultural, or ethnic group. **(D) Polyandry** is when a woman has *multiple husbands* simultaneously. **(E) Homogamy** refers to the tendency of people to marry others with similar characteristics. (See Types of Marriages)

33. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **Alfred Kinsey** conducted pioneering research on human sexuality and argued that sexual orientation could be flexible and not solely binary. The other options are wrong because **(A) Sigmund Freud** is known for psychosexual stages but didn't focus extensively on sexual orientation. **(C) John Watson** was a behaviorist psychologist not primarily associated with sexual orientation research. **(D) George Murdock** was an

anthropologist not known for studying sexual orientation. **(E) Carol Gilligan** is a psychologist known for her work on gender and moral development, not sexual orientation. (See <u>Sexual Orientation</u>)

34. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **liberation theology** is a movement within Christianity that emphasizes social justice, helping the marginalized, and addressing economic and political inequalities. The other options are wrong because they describe **(A) secularization**, **(C) proselytism or evangelism**, **(D) potential correlation** between religiosity and happiness, and **(E) separation between church and state**, not liberation theology. (See <u>Max Weber's Protestant Ethic and Liberation Theology</u>)

35. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because Miranda is an **atheist**, in that she does not believe God exists, but she is *also* an **agnostic** in that she thinks it is impossible to have enough knowledge to know for sure. The other options are wrong because **(A) theists** believe in the existence of God or gods, whereas **(C) atheists** deny the existence of God or gods. **(E) Nontheist** is a broad term that can encompass various positions related to belief or lack thereof in deities. (See <u>Types of Religious Views</u>)

36. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because **creeping credentialism** refers to the trend where employers increasingly require higher formal education and specific credentials for jobs that previously did not demand such qualifications. The other options are incorrect because **(A)** describes a different concept related to gender and education. **(C)** is a situation related to compulsory education. **(D)** refers to compulsory education laws but does not directly address creeping credentialism. **(E)** describes nepotism. (See <u>Education Around the World</u>)

37. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because preparing students for future careers is one of the explicit and intended (**manifest**) functions of educational institutions. The other options are wrong because **(B) cultural functions** relate to transmitting culture and values. **(C) Latent functions** refer to unintended or hidden functions. **(D) Social functions** are a broad category and not specific to education. **(E) Hidden functions** are related to latent functions, not manifest functions. (See <u>Functions of School</u>)

38. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because **PACs** are independent organizations that engage in political advocacy and fundraising to support candidates or causes aligned with their interests. They are **not** usually hired by external entities to advocate for specific causes. Hence, the other options correctly describe PACs, and **(D)** is the exception. (See <u>Interest Groups</u>)

39. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because **totalitarian** governments typically do not allow multiple political parties or opposition, maintaining strict control over political power. **(A), (B), (C),** and **(D)** are characteristics commonly associated with totalitarian governments, such as control of media, military, ideology, and education. (See <u>Dictatorship</u>)

40. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because the U.S. is characterized as a **capitalist economy**, where goods and services are produced for profit in a market-based system. The other options are

wrong because **(A) democratic** describes a political system, not an economic system, and **(B) socialist** describes a different economic system. **(D) Consumer** and **(E) republican** are not terms used to describe economic systems. (See [Capitalism](#))

41. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because the statement refers to **socialism**, where assets are often collectively owned by the state or community. **(A), (D),** and **(E)** are political systems or types of government, and they do not fully capture the meaning of socialism. Meanwhile, **(B) capitalism** is an economic system that, in contrast to socialism, emphasizes private ownership and individualism. (See [Socialism](#))

42. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because the **quaternary sector** of the economy deals with knowledge-based activities. **(A) Factory workers and seamstresses** refer to the primary and secondary sectors, which involve manual labor and manufacturing. **(B) Farmers and coal miners** belong to the primary sector involving agriculture and mining. **(C) CEOs and media executives** are often associated with management and the tertiary sector. **(E) Pharmacists, nurses, and doctors** mainly work in the healthcare sector, part of the quinary sector. (See [Quaternary](#))

43. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because the **American Industrial Revolution** was characterized by the shift from agrarian and rural-based economies to industrial and urban ones. Factors that contributed to this revolution included the creation of **(A)** new inventions, **(B)** favorable weather conditions for growing textile crops, **(C)** the migration of skilled workers from Europe, and **(E)** improved transportation. (See [Industrial Revolution](#))

44. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because **PPOs** allow individuals to seek medical care from any healthcare provider, including specialists, *without* the need for a primary care physician's referral. The other options are wrong because **(B)** and **(C)** are not commonly recognized terms in the context of healthcare plans. **(D) Health Maintenance Organization** is another type of healthcare plan that typically requires individuals to select a primary care physician and get specialist referrals. **(E) Socialized Medicine** refers to a healthcare system in which the government owns or controls healthcare facilities and provides medical services to citizens, which is different from the described insurance plan. (See [Preferred Provider Organizations](#))

45. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because, although the first suburbanites were predominately white and wealthy, in the last four decades, moving to the **suburbs** has come within the reach of middle- and working-class people. Bob is probably poor since he has been unable to move to the suburbs. Only **(A)** includes the status of being poor. **(B), (C), (D),** and **(E)** state that Bob is either middle or working class, which implies he should be able to move to the suburbs if he so chooses. (See [Urbanization within the United States](#))

46. **C** - The correct answer is **(C)** because **gentrification** revitalizes a run-down city section, attracting the middle class. The other options are wrong because **(A) industrialization** refers to a nation's technological development, not urban renewal. **(B) Over-urbanization** is rapid urban growth exceeding infrastructure capacity. **(D) Suburbanization** is people moving to suburbs, and **(E) centralization** lacks sociological relevance. (See [Growth of Cities](#))

47. **D** - The correct answer is **(D)** because the final stage of the demographic transition theory is characterized by **both low birth rates and low death rates** as populations tend to stabilize while countries undergo economic and social development. **(A)** describes an earlier stage in the demographic transition. **(B)** describes a transitional stage when birth rates remain high, but death rates decrease. **(C)** is not part of the demographic transition theory as it contradicts the final stage. **(E)** is unrelated to the demographic transition theory. (See Demographic Theories)

48. **E** - The correct answer is **(E)** because **fertility, mortality,** and **migration** affect a society's population. Only these three factors affect the net increase/decrease of a population. **(A), (B),** and **(C),** which only include *one* of the three correct responses, are incorrect. **(D)** is incorrect because **urbanization** refers to the concentration of people in cities and is unrelated to the net increase/ decrease of population. (See Varying Fertility and Mortality Rates by Country)

49. **A** - The correct answer is **(A)** because one of the key points of **emergent norm theory** is that individuals within a crowd adapt to the situation by conforming to emergent norms, and this behavior is seen as a **rational** response to the circumstances. The other options are correct descriptions of emergent norm theory. Hence, **(A)** is the exception. (See Emergent Norm Theory)

50. **B** - The correct answer is **(B)** because a **revolutionary social movement** seeks to bring about significant and radical changes in the existing social order, often to replace the current system. **(A)** describes individual-level social movements advocating minor changes. **(C)** refers to **reformist social movements** targeting specific aspects of society. **(D)** Similar to **(A)**, this suggests individual-level efforts but with major changes. **(E)** depicts conservative or reactionary movements preserving the status quo. (See Types of Social Movements)