

01 THE ORIGINS OF SOCIOLOGY

SOC101 Short Conceptual Lecture by Qasim Umar(QasimBDG)

The Origins of Sociology

Lesson Overview: Sociology, the scientific study of human social life, groups, and societies, emerged as a distinct discipline in the 19th century. European social observers began applying scientific methods to understand social phenomena. This development was spurred by three main factors: the Industrial Revolution, imperialism, and the success of natural sciences.

1. The Industrial Revolution:

- In the mid-19th century, Europe underwent a transition from agrarian to industrial economies.
- Urbanization accelerated as masses moved to cities in search of employment, leading to profound societal changes.
- Urban life brought challenges such as poor working conditions, overcrowding, and poverty, prompting discussions about democracy and individual rights.

2. Imperialism:

- European colonial conquests exposed them to diverse cultures, sparking curiosity about cultural differences and societal structures.

3. Success of Natural Sciences:

- The scientific method gained prominence as a tool for understanding human behavior, fostering systematic observation and objectivity in the study of society.

Key Figures:

1. Auguste Comte (1798-1857):

- Widely regarded as the "father of sociology."
- Introduced **positivism**, advocating for the use of scientific methods to study society.
- Emphasized systematic observation and analysis of social phenomena.

2. Herbert Spencer (1820-1903):

- Developed theories of **social evolution** and **Social Darwinism**, applying Darwin's ideas to society.
- Believed societies evolve from simple to complex forms, advocating for the survival of the fittest without reform.

3. Karl Marx (1818-1883):

- A critical theorist and economist.
- Developed the theory of **historical materialism** and focused on class conflict, capitalism, and economic forces' role in society.

4. Emile Durkheim (1858-1917):

- Pioneered **functionalism** and studied social facts and collective consciousness.
- Explored the role of religion, suicide rates, and social integration in maintaining societal stability.

5. Max Weber (1864-1920):

- Known for **verstehen** (understanding) and **ideal types**.
- Explored the impact of religion on economic development and introduced the concept of the **Protestant work ethic**.

Fields of Sociology:

- Sociology encompasses various fields, including:
 - **Macro-level sociology**: Analyzing large-scale social structures and institutions.
 - **Micro-level sociology**: Studying individual interactions and small groups.
 - **Applied sociology**: Using sociological knowledge to address practical issues.
 - **Specialized areas**: Such as sociology of education, criminology, and medical sociology.

02 THE SOCIOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

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THE SOCIOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

Lesson Overview: Sociology offers a reasoned and rigorous study of human social life, groups, and societies. At its core lies a unique viewpoint known as "the sociological perspective." This perspective enables us to understand human behavior within its broader social context, acknowledging the influence of society on individual actions and life choices. Through this lens, we explore the general patterns within specific behaviors, recognize society's impact on gender roles, and understand how societal forces shape individual decisions.

1. Seeing the General in the Particular:

- Sociology, as described by Peter Berger, involves seeing the general patterns within specific behaviors.
- While each individual is unique, society shapes the lives of its members, influencing behaviors and choices.
- Societal norms define various life stages, such as childhood, adolescence, and adulthood, and assign roles and responsibilities accordingly.

2. Gender as a Social Construction:

- While biological differences distinguish between male and female, societal expectations and roles associated with gender vary across cultures.
- Societies assign different work and family responsibilities based on gender, leading to disparities in opportunities and advantages.
- Gender differences can also intersect with social class, resulting in varying experiences within the same society.

3. Society Affects What We Do:

- Societal influences extend to even the most personal choices, such as the number of children women have or decisions regarding suicide.
- Emile Durkheim's study on suicide revealed that social forces play a significant role in individual decisions.
- Understanding individual choices requires examining them within their social contexts.

4. Applying the Sociological Perspective:

- Developing sociological imagination, as proposed by C. Wright Mills, enables individuals to understand their lives in terms of larger social forces.
- Sociological perspective encourages critical thinking and challenges commonly held assumptions or "common sense."
- It empowers individuals to assess both the opportunities and constraints in their lives and actively participate in shaping society.
- Recognizing human diversity and confronting the challenges of living in a diverse world are facilitated by the sociological perspective.

Benefits of Sociological Perspective:

1. Assessing Truth of Commonly Held Assumptions:

- Encourages questioning commonly held beliefs and understanding the origins of social differences.

2. Assessing Opportunities and Constraints:

- Enables evaluation of personal goals and effective pursuit of opportunities.

3. Empowering Active Participation in Society:

- Enhances understanding of social forces and encourages active engagement in shaping social life.

4. Recognizing Human Variety and Confronting Challenges:

- Promotes critical thinking about different ways of life, fostering acceptance and understanding in a diverse world.

Certainly! Let's delve into the theoretical paradigms in sociology. These paradigms provide different lenses through which sociologists view and analyze society. I'll break down the salient paradigms for you:

1. Structural-Functional Paradigm:

- This paradigm sees society as a complex system where various parts work together to promote solidarity and stability.
- Key points:
 - **Social Structure:** Our lives are guided by social structures, which are relatively stable patterns of social behavior. These structures shape our experiences in various contexts, such as families, workplaces, or classrooms.
 - **Social Functions:** Social structures serve specific functions or consequences for the overall operation of society. From simple handshakes to complex religious rituals, all social structures contribute to maintaining societal functioning.
- Notable thinker: **Herbert Spencer (1820-1903)** compared society to a human body, where each part plays a vital role in maintaining overall health and stability¹.

2. Social-Conflict Paradigm:

- This paradigm emphasizes social inequality, power struggles, and conflicts within society.
- Key points:
 - **Inequality:** It focuses on disparities in wealth, resources, and opportunities among different social groups.
 - **Power Dynamics:** Social conflicts arise due to competing interests and power imbalances. These conflicts shape social change.
 - **Critical Perspective:** Advocates for challenging existing power structures and promoting social justice.
- Notable thinker: **Karl Marx** analyzed class struggle and the capitalist system, highlighting the exploitation of the working class by the bourgeoisie.

3. Symbolic-Interaction Paradigm:

- This paradigm zooms in on individual interactions, symbols, and meanings.
- Key points:
 - **Micro-Level Analysis:** It examines how individuals create and interpret symbols (such as language, gestures, and signs) during everyday interactions.
 - **Subjective Reality:** Focuses on the subjective experiences and meanings people attach to their actions.
 - **Social Construction:** Reality is socially constructed through shared meanings and interactions.
- Notable thinker: **George Herbert Mead** contributed to symbolic interactionism by emphasizing the role of symbols and social interactions in shaping our understanding of self and society.

03 THEORETICAL PARADIGMS

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THEORETICAL PARADIGMS

Lesson Overview: Sociology employs theoretical paradigms to analyze and understand social phenomena. These paradigms offer distinct perspectives on society, guiding sociologists in examining various aspects of human behavior and societal dynamics. The salient paradigms include the Structural-Functional Paradigm, the Social-Conflict Paradigm, and the Symbolic-Interaction Paradigm.

1. Structural-Functional Paradigm:

- Views society as a complex system where different parts work together to maintain solidarity and stability.
- Highlights the role of social structures in shaping individuals' lives and emphasizes the functions of these structures for societal operation.
- Notable thinkers like Herbert Spencer and Talcott Parsons contributed to this paradigm, comparing society to a functioning organism with interdependent parts.

2. Social-Conflict Paradigm:

- Emphasizes social inequality, power struggles, and conflicts within society.

- Focuses on disparities in wealth, resources, and opportunities among social groups, as well as power imbalances that lead to social conflicts.
- Advocates for challenging existing power structures and promoting social justice.
- Karl Marx's analysis of class struggle and the capitalist system laid the foundation for this paradigm.

3. Symbolic-Interaction Paradigm:

- Zooms in on individual interactions, symbols, and meanings in everyday life.
- Examines how individuals create and interpret symbols during social interactions, contributing to the construction of shared realities.
- Emphasizes the subjective nature of reality and the role of symbols in shaping social interactions and understanding the self.
- George Herbert Mead's work on symbolic interactionism highlighted the significance of symbols and social interactions in shaping human behavior.

04 SOCIOLOGY AS SCIENCE

Science: A Quest for Understanding

Science is more than just a collection of facts; it's a systematic approach to understanding the natural world. Let's break down some key aspects:

1. Definition of Science:

- Science is a methodical process for discovering patterns and uniformities in the universe.
- It relies on **observation** and **re-observation** to gather empirical evidence.
- This evidence is then organized, systematized, and integrated into our body of knowledge.

2. Scientific Goals:

- **Explanation:** Scientists seek to understand why things happen. They explore the underlying mechanisms and causes behind natural phenomena.
- **Generalization:** Science aims to discover uniformities, principles, and laws. These generalizations help us make sense of the world.
- **Pattern Recognition:** Scientists look for recurring patterns in observed phenomena. Recognizing these patterns allows us to predict future occurrences.
- **Prediction:** By using current knowledge, science predicts what will happen in the future.

3. Observation and Repetition:

- Scientists collect information through sensory experiences (i.e., observations).
- Repetition ensures reliability and consistency in our findings.

4. Positivism:

- Researchers strive for certainty and factual accuracy.
- **Positivism**, coined by Auguste Comte, emphasizes knowledge based on sensory experience.

Characteristics of Scientific Method

1. **Empirical:**

- The scientific method focuses on phenomena that are **observable** using our five senses (sight, hearing, touch, taste, and smell).
- If one person observes something, others can replicate that observation, making it **repeatable** and **testable**.
- Intuitions and revelations are not part of this process; it relies on systematic observation.

2. **Verifiable:**

- Observations made by one researcher can be confirmed or refuted by other observers.
- Sensory experiences are used to verify previous findings.
- Replicability is essential for ensuring the reliability of observations.

3. **Cumulative:**

- Scientific knowledge grows over time.
- Researchers build **linkages** between their findings and those of previous researchers.
- New findings may support, refute, or modify existing knowledge.
- Scientists don't start from scratch; they build upon the existing reservoir of knowledge.

4. **Self-Correcting:**

- Errors are possible, but the scientific community actively identifies and corrects them.
- Research findings are shared through seminars, conferences, and professional journals.
- Scientists make statements based on available evidence, but these statements remain open to challenge as new evidence emerges.
- Certainly! Let's explore the remaining characteristics of the scientific method:

5. **Deterministic:**

- Scientists seek to explain why things happen.
- Multiple factors may contribute to a particular effect.
- Researchers analyze the contribution of each factor and different combinations of these factors.
- The goal is to identify the factor or combination that produces the maximum effect.
- The principle of **parsimony** guides this process—finding the minimum number of causal factors that explain variation in the effect.

6. **Ethical and Ideological Neutrality:**

- Researchers are human beings with values, beliefs, and ideologies.
- Efforts are made to prevent personal biases from contaminating research findings.
- Unbiased, objective scientific work ensures the purity of information.
- Despite our inherent subjectivity, scientists strive for neutrality.

7. **Statistical Generalization:**

- Statistics allow us to compare observed data with logically expected outcomes.
- Researchers subject information to statistical analysis.
- Statistical methods help us draw meaningful conclusions from data.

8. Rationalism:

- Collected facts must be interpreted logically.
- Scientists employ rigorous rules of logic in their research.
- Rational analysis ensures robust conclusions.

05_STEPS_IN_SOCIOLOGICAL_INVESTIGATION

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1. Broad Area of Interest Identified:

- The initial step in sociological research involves identifying a broad problem area. For instance, consider the issue of mass student failure at the graduate level. This broad area of interest could encompass various aspects of education, such as the examination system, student-teacher relations, course content, and extracurricular activities.

2. Exploration/Consultation:

- After identifying the broad area, conduct preliminary information gathering. Consult with relevant stakeholders, including teachers, examiners, administrators, students, and parents.
- Explore existing literature by reviewing professional journals, research reports, and student research work in libraries. This exploration helps clarify the research problem.

3. Problem Definition:

- Formulate a clear and succinct problem statement. In our example, the focus is on understanding the reasons behind mass student failure at the graduate level.

4. Theoretical Framework:

- Develop a theoretical framework that integrates critical factors logically. This framework helps conceptualize and test the variables contributing to the problem.
- Justify why certain factors might influence the issue under study.

5. Hypotheses or Research Questions:

- Formulate testable hypotheses based on the theorized network of associations among variables.
- For instance, hypothesize whether the existing examination system or study patterns contribute to mass student failure.

6. Research Design:

- Specify the data collection procedure. Will you set up an experiment, conduct a survey, or use another technique?
- Define the tools for data collection and describe how data will be analyzed.

7. Data Collection:

- Collect actual data in the field using the chosen method (e.g., surveys, interviews, observations).

8. Testing the Hypotheses / Answering Research Questions:

- Process and analyze the collected data. Test the formulated hypotheses or answer the research questions.
- In our example, the data will help identify factors related to mass student failure.

9. Report Writing:

- Compile a research report documenting each step of the process.
- Based on the study's results, diagnose the underlying forces contributing to the students' mass failure and propose recommendations for improvement.

06 Social Interaction

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1. Social Interaction:

- Social act: Goal-directed activity of human beings.
- Social interaction: Reciprocal influencing of acts between individuals and groups, creating an exchange of behavior.
- Importance: Understanding reciprocal social relationships is vital for understanding human society and participation in it.

2. Components of Social Interaction:

- **Social Status:**
 - Recognized position an individual occupies in a social situation.
 - Different from everyday meanings associated with prestige.
 - Status sets, ascribed and achieved statuses, and master status are key concepts.
- **Role:**
 - Behavior expected of someone holding a particular status.
 - Role set, role conflict, role strain, and role exit are important aspects.
- **The Social Construction of Reality:**
 - People construct their reality through social interaction.
 - Social construction of reality is the process by which people shape reality through interaction, negotiating agreements about what is real.
- **Communication:**
 - Verbal and non-verbal communication are essential components of interaction.
 - Symbols, signs, and codes are developed to represent realities, with meanings attached to them.

3. Significance and Examples:

- Understanding social status helps in recognizing identity and interaction patterns.
- Roles guide behavior within social contexts, with role conflict and strain affecting individual experiences.

- Social construction of reality highlights the negotiated nature of reality through interaction.
- Communication facilitates the exchange of meanings and understanding in social interactions.

4. Key Concepts for Examination:

- Differentiate between social status and role, understanding their dynamic nature in social interaction.
- Discuss the significance of role conflict, role strain, and role exit in shaping individual experiences.
- Explain the concept of social construction of reality and provide examples to illustrate its application.
- Highlight the importance of communication in facilitating social interaction and understanding.

07 SOCIAL GROUPS

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1. Different Meanings of Group:

- Group can refer to any physical collection of people, but its essence lies in shared interaction and consciousness of membership.
- It's more than just a category or a crowd; it involves recurrent interaction and a sense of belonging.

2. Two Essentials of Social Group:

- Social interaction and consciousness of membership are the two key elements of a social group.
- Members of a group identify and interact with each other, sharing experiences, loyalties, and interests.

3. Types of Social Groups:

- **Primary and Secondary Groups:**
 - Primary groups are small, intimate, and enduring, characterized by strong emotional ties and personal relationships.
 - Secondary groups are larger and impersonal, formed around specific interests or activities, with weaker emotional ties.
- **In-Groups and Out-Groups:**
 - In-groups command esteem and loyalty, while out-groups are perceived as competition or opposition.
 - Membership in these groups affects behavior and attitudes.
- **Group Size:**
 - Group size influences stability and interaction intensity, with smaller groups having more intense relationships but less stability.
- **Reference Group:**
 - A reference group serves as a point of comparison for evaluating attitudes and behavior.
- **Stereotypes:**

- Stereotypes are exaggerated descriptions applied to entire categories of people, often leading to prejudice.
- **Social Distance:**
 - Social distance measures the closeness or acceptance individuals feel toward other groups.
- **Networks:**
 - Networks are web-like connections of weak social ties, extending beyond close relationships to include acquaintances.
- **Emergence of Electronic Communities:**
 - Internet technology has given rise to electronic communities, where people interact and form relationships online, blurring physical boundaries.

4. Significance and Examples:

- Understanding the types and dynamics of social groups helps explain social behavior and relationships.
- Group membership influences attitudes, behaviors, and perceptions.
- The emergence of electronic communities expands the concept of social groups beyond physical boundaries.

08 ORGANIZATIONS

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1. Types of Formal Organizations:

- **Utilitarian Organizations:** Members join for income and are typically employed by businesses.
- **Normative Organizations:** Members join for morally worthwhile goals, such as community service or social action.
- **Coercive Organizations:** Membership is involuntary, and strict control is exercised over members, as seen in prisons or military units.

2. Bureaucracy:

- Bureaucracy is an organizational model designed for efficiency in performing complex tasks.
- It operates on several key characteristics:
 - **Specialization:** Division of labor with each member having a specific task.
 - **Hierarchy of Offices:** Vertical ranking with accountability flowing upward.
 - **Written Rules and Regulations:** Enacted rules control organization's functioning and environment.
 - **Technical Competence:** Expectation of staff to have the required skills for their duties.
 - **Impersonality:** Allegiance to the office rather than individuals, ensuring uniform treatment.
 - **Formal, Written Communication:** Reliance on paperwork for communication rather than verbal means.

3. Problems of Bureaucracy:

- **Bureaucratic Alienation:** Impersonal nature may dehumanize individuals and hinder responsiveness to personal needs.
 - **Bureaucratic Inefficiency and Ritualism:** Red tape and excessive focus on rules may hinder organizational goals.
 - **Bureaucratic Inertia:** Tendency to perpetuate the organization even when its purpose is fulfilled, driven by job security concerns.
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09 CULTURE

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1. Definition of Culture:

- Culture encompasses both tangible (material objects) and intangible (values, beliefs, norms, language) aspects of people's way of life.
- It is learned, shared, transmitted, and constantly changing.

2. Specific Features of Culture:

- **Universality:** Culture is found in all societies, and certain aspects, like marriage and family, are universal.
- **Variability:** Despite universality, there is significant variation in cultural practices within and across societies.
- **Learned:** Culture is acquired through interaction with others and is not inherited biologically.
- **Shared:** Culture is not owned by individuals but is shared among members of a society.
- **Transmitted:** Culture is passed on from one generation to another, contributing to its continuity and growth.
- **Changing:** Culture evolves over time to adapt to changing needs and circumstances, influenced by factors like technology and globalization.

3. Three Similar Terms: Culture, Nation, and Society:

- **Culture:** Shared way of life, encompassing both material and non-material aspects.
- **Nation:** A political entity with designated borders, may have diverse cultures within it.
- **Society:** Organized interaction of people within a nation or other boundary, characterized by shared cultural norms.

4. Components of Culture:

- **Symbols:** Objects or behaviors that carry specific meanings recognized by people who share a culture.
 - **Language:** System of symbols enabling communication among members of a society, including oral and written forms.
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10 CULTURE (continued)

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1. Components of Culture (continued):

- **Values:** Culturally defined standards of desirability, goodness, and beauty that guide social living. Examples include equality, achievement, science, freedom, and justice.
- **Beliefs:** Specific statements that individuals hold to be true, underlying values. Beliefs can vary widely among individuals within a culture.
- **Norms:** Rules and expectations governing behavior within a society, including proscriptive norms (forbidding certain actions) and prescriptive norms (mandating certain actions). Norms are further categorized into mores (moral standards) and folkways (customs for routine interaction).

2. Ideal Culture and Real Culture:

- **Ideal Culture:** Social patterns mandated by cultural values and norms, representing the idealized version of a society's cultural expectations.
- **Real Culture:** Actual social patterns that approximate cultural expectations, representing what people actually do or follow in a society.

3. Material and Non-Material Culture:

- **Material Culture:** Tangible aspects of culture, including physical objects created by a society.
- **Non-Material Culture:** Intangible aspects of culture, such as values, beliefs, norms, and language, which shape social behavior.

4. Cultural Diversity:

- Cultural diversity arises from the existence of various ways of life within and across societies.
- Differences in cultural patterns can be observed in areas such as marriage and family, education, worship, and livelihood strategies.
- Immigration contributes significantly to cultural diversity, as seen in countries like Canada, where immigrants bring diverse cultural backgrounds and practices with them.

11 CULTURE(continued)

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1. Culture by Social Class:

- Cultural patterns are often associated with particular social classes, leading to differences in norms, values, beliefs, and attitudes.
- Culture can be divided into high culture (elite), popular culture (widespread), and culture of poverty (shared by the poor).

2. Subculture:

- Subcultures are segments of a society with distinctive cultural patterns that set them apart from the general culture. Examples include student subculture and business subculture.

3. **Multiculturalism:**

- A policy that recognizes and promotes cultural diversity within a society, aiming for equality among all cultural traditions.

4. **Counter-Culture:**

- Subcultures that actively oppose dominant cultural patterns within a society, such as the hippie movement and drug user subcultures.

5. **Cultural Change:**

- The process of altering cultural elements over time, which can include changes in family patterns, social norms, and technological advancements.

6. **Cultural Lag:**

- The concept that different aspects of culture change at different rates, leading to disruptions in the system. For example, material culture may change faster than non-material culture.

7. **Causes of Cultural Change:**

- Inventions: Creating new cultural elements.
- Discoveries: Finding existing cultural elements.
- Diffusion: Spreading cultural traits from one society to another.

8. **Ethnocentrism, Xeno-centrism, and Cultural Relativism:**

- Ethnocentrism: Judging other cultures by the standards of one's own culture.
- Xeno-centrism: Considering other cultures as superior to one's own.
- Cultural Relativism: Judging a culture by its own standards, recognizing that practices may differ but serve functional purposes within each society.

9. **A Global Culture:**

- The increasing similarity of cultural practices worldwide due to globalization, including the global economy, communication, and migration.
- Limitations to the global culture thesis include uneven global flows, economic disparities, and differing interpretations of cultural practices.

10. **Culture and Human Freedom:**

- Culture can both constrain and provide freedom to individuals, as it shapes behavior while also offering opportunities for creativity and self-expression.

12 SOCIALIZATION: HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

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1. **Nature and Nurture:**

- Human development is based on the interaction between inherent capacities (nature) and social experiences (nurture).
- Nature provides the potential for human development, while nurture involves the social experiences necessary for realizing this potential.

2. **Social Isolation:**

- Cases of social isolation, such as Anna, Isabelle, and Genie, highlight the crucial role of social experience in human development.
- Lack of social interaction during infancy can lead to permanent developmental damage.

3. **Provision of Learning Situations:**

- Human groups, especially the family, provide learning opportunities crucial for human development.
- Learning situations are integral to everyday activities, where children observe and imitate behaviors of others.
- Guidance and control from the group (family) help shape behavior according to cultural norms through rewards and punishments.
- Children actively engage in imitation, experimentation, and adjustment to develop their self-concept and social identity.

4. **Socialization:**

- Socialization is a lifelong learning process through which individuals develop their human potentials and learn cultural patterns.
- It involves the integration of nature (innate capacities) and nurture (social experiences) to shape individual behavior and identity.

13 UNDERSTANDING THE SOCIALIZATION PROCESS

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1. **Freud's Model of Personality:**

- Freud proposed that human development is influenced by biology and societal forces, leading to a model of personality consisting of id, ego, and superego.
- The id represents basic drives and operates on the pleasure principle.
- The ego balances innate drives with societal demands, while the superego internalizes cultural norms and values, serving as the conscience.

2. **George Herbert Mead: The Social Self:**

- Mead's theory of social behaviorism explains how social experience shapes individual personality.
- The self, composed of self-awareness and self-image, develops through social interaction.
- Social experience involves the exchange of symbols, leading to the development of self through language and role-taking.

- The self consists of "I" (active, spontaneous) and "me" (objective, based on how others perceive us), and develops through stages: play stage, game stage, and the stage of the generalized other.

3. **Charles H. Cooley: The Looking Glass Self:**

- Cooley introduced the concept of the looking glass self, where our self-concept is based on how we perceive others perceive us.
 - The looking glass self involves three steps: imagining how we appear to others, interpreting others' reactions, and developing a self-concept based on these interpretations.
 - Our self-concept develops from childhood and is continuously shaped by social interactions throughout life.
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14 AGENTS OF SOCIALIZATION

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1. **The Family:**

- The family has the greatest impact on socialization, shaping gender roles, self-concept, and class expectations.
- Parents' class positions affect child-rearing practices and expectations, influencing values and behaviors.

2. **The School:**

- Schools teach a wide range of knowledge and skills, including values such as patriotism, democracy, and justice.
- They also convey a hidden curriculum, instilling attitudes about economic and political systems.

3. **Peer Groups:**

- Peer groups provide opportunities for children to form relationships and discuss interests not shared with adults.
- They become increasingly influential during adolescence, shaping attitudes and behaviors as individuals seek autonomy.

4. **The Mass Media:**

- Mass media, including television, radio, films, and the internet, reach vast audiences and influence attitudes and behaviors.
- They shape perceptions of gender roles, values, and societal norms through entertainment and advertising.

5. **Religion:**

- Religion plays a significant role in socialization, influencing morality, beliefs about the afterlife, and behavior in formal settings.
- Religious ceremonies and practices teach values, dress codes, and appropriate behavior.

15 SOCIALIZATION AND THE LIFE COURSE

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1. Life Course Overview:

- Life course is a biological process involving personal change from infancy through old age, shaped by interactions between biographical and social events.
- The life course consists of four distinct stages: childhood, adolescence, adulthood, and old age, marked by major events and transitions.

2. Childhood:

- Childhood typically covers the first 12 years of life and varies in concept across cultures.
- In industrial societies, childhood emerged as a distinct stage, characterized by learning and carefree play.
- In Pakistani society, childhood has been affected by issues like child labor, particularly prevalent in lower-class families due to economic circumstances.

3. Adolescence:

- Adolescence is a transitional stage between childhood and adulthood, characterized by emotional and social turmoil.
- It is a social construction more prevalent in industrial societies, marked by the development of individual identities and subcultures.

4. Adulthood:

- Adulthood begins between the late teens and early thirties and is a time for accomplishment, career pursuits, and family-raising.
- Early adulthood involves forming personalities and managing responsibilities, while middle adulthood involves reflection on achievements and evaluation of future prospects.

5. Old Age:

- Old age, starting around mid-sixties, varies in meaning across societies.
- In Pakistani society, older people may hold significant roles and accumulate wisdom, contrasting with perceptions in industrial societies where they may be seen as conservative or obsolete.
- Growing old involves transitioning out of roles and identities, such as retirement, and learning new patterns while unlearning familiar routines.

6. Conclusion:

- The life course is largely a social construction, shaped by societal norms and values.
- Social forces such as social class, ethnicity, and gender also influence individuals' experiences across life stages.

16 SOCIAL CONTROL AND DEVIANCE

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1. **Social Control:**

- Social control refers to the mechanisms through which society regulates people's thoughts and behaviors, both formally and informally, to enforce its norms and maintain social order.

2. **Deviance:**

- Deviance is the violation of social norms. It is not the act itself but the reactions to the act that make something deviant.
- Deviance is a social construct, meaning it is defined by society and varies across cultures and time periods.

3. **Crime:**

- Crime refers to the violation of norms that are codified into law. It is culturally relative, meaning what constitutes a crime can vary between societies.
- Deviance is broader than crime as it encompasses all norm violations, including those not codified into law.

4. **Stigma:**

- Stigma refers to attributes that discredit individuals, leading to social isolation and labeling as deviant.
- Stigmatized individuals may acquire a master status, defining them primarily in terms of their deviance.

5. **Juvenile Delinquency:**

- Juvenile delinquency involves the violation of legal standards by young people. It is defined under the laws of a country and is influenced by social constructions of youth.

6. **Labeling:**

- Labeling theory suggests that deviance and conformity result from how others respond to actions, rather than the actions themselves.
- Individuals may be tagged with negative labels that affect their self-concept and social identity, leading to further deviance.

7. **Primary and Secondary Deviation:**

- Primary deviance refers to initial norm violations that provoke slight reactions and have little effect on self-concept.
- Secondary deviance occurs when repeated norm violations lead to the adoption of a deviant identity, often as a reaction to being labeled by others.

17 THE SOCIAL FOUNDATIONS OF DEVIANCE

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1. Cultural Relativity of Deviance:

- Deviance is not inherent in actions but is defined by society's reactions to those actions.
- Different groups and cultures have different norms, so what is considered deviant in one context may not be in another.
- Sociologists use the term deviance non-judgmentally, focusing on how people respond to behavior within their own cultural framework.

2. Who Defines Deviance?:

- Deviance is defined by society; individuals become deviant as others label them as such.
- Social norms, determined by trial and error processes, guide behavior and maintain social order within a society.

3. Social Power and Rule Making/Breaking:

- Rule making and rule breaking involve social power; decisions about norms and laws are made by elite groups within society.
- Social control mechanisms often serve the interests of those in power, protecting their interests and maintaining the status quo.

4. Functionality of Deviance:

- Deviance serves several functions within society according to Durkheim:
 - Affirms cultural values and norms by highlighting moral choices and boundaries.
 - Clarifies moral boundaries by challenging norms and prompting reactions that reaffirm those norms.
 - Promotes social unity by collectively reacting to deviance and affirming group values.
 - Promotes social change by pushing boundaries, suggesting alternatives, and prompting societies to rethink their norms.

18 EXPLANATIONS OF CRIME

SOC101 Short Conceptual Lecture by Qasim Umar(QasimBDG)

1. Biological Explanations:

- Biological theories focus on genetic predispositions toward deviance.
- Theories include body type, 'XYY' chromosome theory, and intelligence.
- Cesare Lombroso proposed that criminals have distinctive physical features resembling apelike ancestors.
- Sheldon suggested body type may predict criminality, but research lacks conclusive evidence.
- Chromosome theories and intelligence theories have flaws and limited explanatory power.

2. **Psychological Explanations:**

- Psychological theories focus on abnormalities within the individual, particularly personality disorders.
- Some serious criminals may exhibit psychopathic traits, but not all criminals have personality disorders.
- Psychological profiles of many serious criminals are normal.

3. **Sociological Explanations:**

- Sociological theories look for explanatory factors for crime outside the individual.
- Deviance is relative and varies across different groups and cultures.
- Behavior is influenced by external factors such as socialization patterns, subcultures, and social class.
- E. Sutherland's Theory of Differential Association emphasizes that people learn deviance from the groups they associate with.
- Learning deviance is similar to learning anything else, and it contradicts biological and personality-based explanations.
- Groups such as families, friends, neighborhoods, and subcultures socialize individuals according to their cultural norms, influencing their behavior.

19 EXPLANATIONS OF CRIME – CONTINUED

SOC101 Short Conceptual Lecture by Qasim Umar(QasimBDG)

1. **Control Theory by W. Reckless:**

- Control theory explains why individuals restrain themselves from deviant behavior.
- It identifies two systems: inner control (internalized morality, fear of punishment) and outer control (influence of social groups).

2. **Control Theory by T. Hirschi:**

- Social control depends on individuals imagining the consequences of their behavior.
- Conformity is linked to four types of social control: attachment, opportunity, involvement, and belief.

3. **Strain Theory:**

- Strain theory explains how social values can lead to crime when individuals experience a gap between culturally approved goals and the means to achieve them.
- Anomie, a sense of normlessness, arises when individuals cannot attain their goals through legitimate means.
- R.K. Merton identified modes of adaptation, such as innovation, ritualism, retreatism, and rebellion, in response to strain.

4. **Labeling Theory by Howard S. Becker:**

- Deviance and conformity result from how others respond to actions, rather than the actions themselves.
- Deviance is a relative concept determined by society's reactions.
- Labeling affects an individual's self-identity and behavior, leading to deviancy amplification.

5. **Illegitimate Opportunity:**

- Lower-class individuals may turn to crime due to lack of legitimate opportunities for success.
- Illegitimate opportunity structures refer to alternative avenues for meeting needs, such as robbery or drug dealing.

6. **White-Collar Crime:**

- White-collar crime refers to crimes committed by people of high social status in the course of their occupations.
- Examples include income tax cheating, bribery, and embezzlement.

7. **Conflict Theory:**

- Conflict theorists view deviance as a deliberate political choice in response to inequalities in the capitalist system.
- Deviant acts may challenge the social order and manifest as forms of protest against injustice and power imbalances.

8. **Conclusions:**

- Crime is only one aspect of deviant behavior, ranging from minor offenses to serious crimes.
- Sociological theories emphasize the continuity between criminal and respectable behavior.
- Context, social learning, and social surroundings influence criminal activities and perceptions of criminality.

20 SOCIAL DISTRIBUTION OF CRIME: EXPLANATIONS

SOC101 Short Conceptual Lecture by Qasim Umar(QasimBDG)

1. **Background:**

- Crime perception has grown, leading to increased fear.
- Official crime statistics have limitations, including underreporting and partial recording.
- Simply increasing police presence does not necessarily reduce crime rates; building strong communities is crucial.

2. **Social Distribution of Crime:**

- Crime distribution varies across social characteristics such as gender, age, social class, ethnicity, and locality.
- Research shows crime and victimization are not randomly distributed; certain groups are more likely to commit or experience crime.

3. **Gender and Crime:**

- Men are more likely than women to commit crimes, with differences in the types of crimes committed.
- Women's crimes may be underreported due to domestic roles and perceived biological abilities to hide crimes.
- Leniency or harshness in justice system treatment of women depends on societal perceptions of gender norms.

4. **Age and Crime:**

- Crime rates peak during adolescence and decline with age.
- Youth are increasingly responsible for serious crimes, raising questions about moral breakdown or increasing permissiveness.

5. **Social Class and Crime:**

- There's a common belief that criminality is more prevalent among lower social classes, but this is not always accurate.
- White-collar crimes, committed by affluent individuals, can have far-reaching consequences.

6. **White-Collar Crime:**

- White-collar crime involves crimes by individuals in affluent sectors during their occupations.
- Types of white-collar crimes include tax fraud, securities fraud, embezzlement, and environmental violations.

7. **Corporate Crime:**

- Corporations commit offenses that affect large populations, such as pollution, mislabeling, and violations of health and safety regulations.
- Victims of corporate crimes may not identify themselves as such, making redress challenging.

8. **Organized Crime:**

- Organized crime includes illegal activities disguised as legitimate businesses, such as drug trade, smuggling, and prostitution.
- Technological advances have facilitated international organized crime networks.

9. **Ethnicity and Crime:**

- Race and ethnicity are correlated with crime rates.
- Blacks are disproportionately arrested and imprisoned due to prejudice, social standing, and family patterns.
- Asians have lower crime rates due to educational achievements, good jobs, and cultural factors.

21 SOCIAL STRATIFICATION: INTRODUCTION AND SIGNIFICANCE

SOC101 Short Conceptual Lecture by Qasim Umar(QasimBDG)

1. **Basic Principles of Stratification:**

- Social stratification ranks categories of people in a hierarchy based on wealth, power, and privileges.
- It's a characteristic of society, persists over generations, varies across societies, and involves beliefs about inequality.

2. **Closed vs. Open Social Systems:**

- Closed systems (like traditional Indian caste systems) determine status by birth with little mobility.
- Open systems allow mobility based on individual achievement and are characterized by social classes.

3. **Measuring Social Class:**

- Subjective method relies on self-assessment, but it can be influenced by denial or aspiration.
- Reputational method asks informants to classify others, while the objective method uses criteria like income, education, and occupation.

4. **Significance of Social Class:**

- Social class influences life chances, including health, education, family life, employment, and crime.
- It affects physical and mental health, with disparities in access to medical care and stress levels.
- Family life, mate selection, child-rearing patterns, and educational aspirations are all influenced by social class.
- Education and employment opportunities vary based on social class, with better prospects for those from affluent families.
- Crime styles and treatment by the criminal justice system differ across social classes.
- Lifestyles are structured by social class, influencing cultural tastes, consumption patterns, and leisure pursuits.