Lesson 2

THE SOCIOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

Sociology is a reasoned and rigorous study of human social life, social groups, and societies. At the heart of sociology is a distinctive point of view called “the sociological perspective”. Thus sociology offers a perspective, a view of the world. For example: why do human lives seem to follow certain predictable patterns? The truth is that:

- Our lives do not unfold according to sheer chance,
- Nor do we decide for ourselves how to live, acting on what is called ‘free will’.

We make many important decisions everyday, of course, but always within the larger arena called “society”. The essential wisdom of sociology is that:

**Our social world guides our actions and life choices just as the seasons influence our activities and clothing.**

This is sociological perspective. Perspective means a view or an outlook or an approach or an imagination (of the world). Hence sociological perspective means *an approach to understanding human behavior by placing it within its broader social context.*

People live in a society. Society is a group of people who share a culture and a territory. People’s behavior is influenced by their *society*. To find out why people do what they do, sociologists look at *social location*, where people are located in a particular society.

For human beings the existence of society is essential. It is essential:

- For the survival of human child at birth; and
- For social experience – for purposes of ‘nurturance’.

The human child is helpless at the time of birth and without the help of other members of society (family for example) the mere survival is at stake. Then the other important aspect is to ‘nurture’ this human being into a ‘social being’ i.e. a participating member of the society. For developing the child into a regular participating ‘social being’ the role of society is crucial. The cases of isolated children (Anna, Isabelle, and Genie) provide evidence to the fact that without the interaction with members of society the natural potentials are lost and the child may not become a normal ‘social being’. Each society nurtures the child into a ‘social being’ within its own societal perspective.

**Seeing the general in the particular:**

Peter Burger (1963) described the sociological perspective as *seeing the general in the particular*. It means identifying general patterns in the behavior of particular people. Although every individual is unique, a society shapes the lives of its members. People in the USA are much more likely to expect love to figure in marriage than, say, people living in a traditional village in rural Pakistan. Nevertheless, every society acts differently on various categories of people (children compared to adults; women compared to men, rich compared to poor).

General categories to which we belong shape our experiences. Children are different from adults, more than just biological maturity. Society attaches meaning to age, so that we experience distinct stages in our lives i.e. childhood, adolescence, early adulthood, late adulthood, and old age. In fact all these stages with respect to the lines of demarcation (years as cutting points) are determined by society. What is the position of a particular age category in the society and what are the roles and responsibilities assigned to members of that age group are all determined by that society. Therefore *age is social construction.*

Children are often considered as dependent, whereas adults as responsible. What about the old? What is the cutting age point for this group and what are the society’s expectations about this group in Pakistani rural...
SOCIology as Science

Science is knowledge but every kind of knowledge is not science. Science is a method for the discovery of uniformities in this universe through the process of observation and re-observation; the results are organized, systematized, and made part of the body of knowledge. In this way science is a logical system that bases knowledge on direct, systematic observation. Following this method creates scientific knowledge, which rests on empirical evidence, that is, information that we can verify with our senses.

Goals of Science

The goals of science can be:

- To explain why something happens.
- To make generalizations. Discovery of uniformities/principles/laws.
- Look for patterns in the phenomenon under observation, or recurring characteristics.
- To predict. To specify what will happen in the future in the light of current knowledge.

For the attainment of the stipulated goals the procedure followed is to collect information through sensory experiences. Hence we call it observations and there is repetition of observations.

Researcher would like to be positive about his findings. Therefore he would like to be definite, factual, and positively sure. Hence the researcher would develop clear observational criteria i.e. measuring indicators for adequate explanations. This approach is called Positivism. Auguste Comte coined the term ‘positivism’, which means knowledge based on sensory experience.

Characteristics of Scientific Method

1. Empirical The focus of attention is that phenomenon which is observable by using five senses by the human beings. If one person has observed others can also make that observation which implies that it is repeatable as well as testable.

2. Verifiable Observations made by any one researcher could be open to confirmation or refutation by other observers. Others could also use their sensory experiences for the verification of the previous findings. The replicability of the phenomenon is essential for repeating the observation. In this way the intuitions and revelations are out of this process because these are having been the privileges of special individuals.

3. Cumulative The knowledge created by this method keeps on growing. The researchers try to develop linkages between their findings and the findings of previous researchers. The new findings may support the previous researches, refute them, or may modify but certainly there is an addition to the existing body of knowledge. The new researchers need not start from scratch, rather they have a rich reservoir of knowledge at their disposal and they try to further build on it.

4. Self-Correcting Possibility of error is always there but the good thing is its identification and correction. The research findings are shared with other professionals in seminars, conferences, and by printing these in professional journals. The comments are received and errors, if any, are corrected. Even the scientists are not categorical in their statements. They would usually make a statement as is supported by the evidence available at the time. Hence the statement is open to challenge by the availability of new evidence.

5. Deterministic Through scientific method the scientists try to explain why things happen? There could be number of factors producing a particular effect but the researchers try to find out the contribution of each factor as well as of different combinations of the same factors. In this way he tries to identify the factor or combination of factors that produce the maximum effect. In this
SOCIAL INTERACTION

Social act is the goal directed (oriented) activity of human beings. Social interaction is the reciprocal influencing of the acts of persons and groups. Reciprocal social relationship is that situation in which the actual or expected behavior of one person affects the behavior of others. As a result there is an exchange of acts between or among individuals. In this way social interaction is the process by which people act and react in relation to each other. Through interaction we create the reality.

Understanding what reciprocal social relationships are is vital to understanding human society and what it means to be a participant in it.

Awareness of the people with whom you interact is a necessary component of any social relationship.

People interact in some expected way and try to follow it in their day-to-day activities. In this way the styles of interaction get established, hence we social interaction gets patterned. People tend to behave and act toward one another in pretty much the same way most of the time. Therefore social behavior tends to be repetitious, and to this extent is predictable. For example greetings among people tend to follow a pattern. Assalam o alaakum. Wa Aalaookum u Salam. How are you? Alhamdoo-lilla. And how are you? At some other place greetings may be more elaborate as inquiring about the health of all family members.

Components of Social Interaction

1. Social Status

Social status is a recognized social position that an individual occupies in a social situation. In common usage status might indicate the power, prestige, and privileges associated with one’s position.

Sociological meaning of social status is different from everyday meanings that are usually associated with ‘prestige’.

**STATUS IS WHO WE ARE AND WHAT WE ARE IN RELATION TO OTHERS.**

Status is also a key component of one’s identity and thereby of interaction. Occupation is such a major part of most people’s self-concept that it is often part of a social introduction as well as interaction. Even long after retirement people continue to introduce themselves in terms of their life’s work.

There are some other concepts related with social status. These are:

a. Status Set:

Status set refers to *all the statuses a person holds at a given time*. You might be a son/daughter of your parents, a brother/sister to your siblings, a friend to your social circle, a player in a team. Then in life you occupy other status sets by virtue of your occupation, marital status (husband/wife), and a parent. Over lifetime, individuals gain and lose dozens of statuses.

How do we attain our status? Broadly two ways and thereby these are called two types of statuses.

b. Ascribed and Achieved Status

*A social position that someone receives at birth or someone assumes involuntarily later in life is an ascribed status*. These are those statuses about which one has little or no choice. Examples can be a son, a Pakistani, a teenager.

*Achieved status refers to a social position that someone assumes voluntarily and that reflects personal ability and effort*. Examples include being a student, a player, a spouse, and a singer.
Many statuses are a combination of both an ascription and achievement. People’s ascribed statuses influence the statuses they achieve. A person’s social class influences his/her occupational achievements.

C. Master Status

A master status is a status that has an exceptional importance for social identity, often shaping a person’s entire life. One’s occupation is an example.

2. ROLE

Role is a behavior expected of someone who holds a particular status. Role is the dynamic aspect of one’s status: an individual holds a status and performs a role.

There are a number of other aspects of role like:

a. Role Set

Since we occupy many statuses simultaneously therefore we perform multiple roles. The performance of such multiple roles related to a status is referred to as role set. Role set refers to a number of roles attached to a single status. You have a status of student, think of how many roles do you have to perform.

b. Role Conflict and Role Strain

Role conflict is incompatibility among roles corresponding to two or more statuses. Roles of a woman being a mother and an employee in an office may conflict with each other.

Roles connected with a single status may make competing demands on an individual, therefore may create strain in the performance of those roles simultaneously. Hence role strain refers to incompatibility among roles corresponding to a single status. A teacher being friendly with the students as well as the maintainer of discipline in the class could be an example.

c. Role Exit

A person begins the process of role exit by reflecting on his life and coming to doubt his ability to continue in a certain role. He may imagine alternative role and may go for it. It may be linked status exit, which may be voluntary or involuntary. A person decides to leave a job voluntarily and has a role exit. A person retires and again has a role exit. “Process of becoming ex”, an ex-chairman, an ex-director are the examples.

3. The Social Construction of Reality

Reality of one’s self. We construct our reality. Let me explain. I enter this room and immediately I become what I have to become, what I can become. I construct myself. That is, I present myself to you in a form suitable to the relationship I wish to achieve with you. And, of course, you do the same with me.

The whole of this process of construction of one’s self/reality is based on learning through social interaction.

Social construction of reality is the process by which people creatively shape reality through interaction. Through social interaction we negotiate the reality i.e. some agreement about what is going on, though people may have different perceptions of the event.

Social construction of the life span of people into childhood, adulthood, and old age can be the examples.
Lesson 7

SOCIAL GROUPS

Different meanings of group:

1. Any physical collection of people. Group shares nothing but physical closeness. It is just an aggregation, a collectivity.
2. Number of people who share some common characteristic – which is often called as category.
3. Number of people who share some organized pattern of recurrent interaction. It can be an educational institution where people come and work, study, play.
4. Number of people who share consciousness of membership together and of interaction.

Two essentials of social group ➔ social interaction and consciousness of membership.

A social group is two or more people who identify and interact with each other. Human beings come together in couples, families, circles of friends, neighborhoods, and in work organizations. Whatever it form, a group is made up of people with shared experiences (through social interaction), loyalties, and interests.

Not every collection of individuals can be called a social group. Let us look at some other concepts that are often mixed up with social group. For example:

Category: People with a status in common, such as women, Muslims, Pakistanis, students, teachers, and workers. They may know others who hold the same status; the vast majority may be strangers to each other. So there is no interaction on the whole. Nevertheless, there are always pockets of small groups within any broad category who interact with each other and are conscious of membership.

Crowd: A temporary cluster of individuals who may or may not interact at all. They are too transitory, and are too impersonal. It might be students sitting together in class, or people waiting for a train on the railway platform. Change in circumstances may turn the crowd into a social group.

TYPES OF SOCIAL GROUPS

Primary and Secondary Groups

Primary group is a small social group whose members share personal and enduring relationships. They are bound together by primary relationships. The relationships are informal, intimate, personal and total. These groups are among the first we experience. The examples can be: Family, play group, friends. They provide sense of security to the members. People usually have an emotional attachment, they are loyal, and the relationships are end in itself.

Secondary group is a large and impersonal social group whose members pursue a specific interest or activity. Just the opposite of primary groups their relationships are secondary. Such relationships involve weak emotional ties and little personal knowledge of one another. Most secondary groups are formal, impersonal, segmental, and utilitarian. These groups are goal oriented. The interaction may be impersonal though pleasant. Example can be students taking sociology course in the present semester. They might be together only for the semester and may never see each other. Co-workers at a place of work, members of a political party could be other examples.

In-Groups and Out-Groups

In-group is social group commanding a member’s esteem and loyalty. My pronouns: I feel I belong to them. Others: I am outside them. In-group exists in relation to an out-group.

Out-group is a social group toward which one feels in competition or opposition.
• **Changing:** Culture is continuously changing. The patterns of behavior transmitted by one generation to another are continuously in the process of modification for catering to the changing needs of time and demands of people. New technologies are developed and are borrowed from other groups and societies. With the increase in the contact between different societies the cultures are changing very fast and may be moving toward some kind of global culture.

**Three similar terms:** Culture, Nation, and Society

**Culture:** Shared way of life.

**Nation:** A political entity within designated borders.

**Society:** The organized interaction of people in a nation or within some other boundary.

Pakistan: nation and society, but may have many cultures.
Multicultural: Includes various ways of life that blend together.

**Components of Culture**

**Symbols:** Anything that carries a particular meaning recognized by people who share culture. Whistle, flashing light, thumbs up are all symbols. Human beings have the capacity to create symbols with different meanings associated with each. These symbols are used as means of communication and thereby become part of our language.

Even the buildings, dress, the flag, and a type of color may be taken as symbols indicating some aspect of human behavior as well as society’s outlook. Red, green, white, and pink, each of the colors stands for something in the society. Blue jeans are quite commonly used in Pakistan. Can you find out that these are symbol of what?

**Language:** System of symbols that allows members of a society to communicate with one another. Symbols may be oral or these could be written words. We have oral cultural traditions. Human beings have developed different alphabets as part of written language. *Language is the major means of cultural transmission.* Is language uniquely human?
We generally link adolescence, or teenage years, to emotional and social turmoil, when the youth try to develop their own individual identities. As they try to carve out an identity distinct from both the “younger” world being left behind and the “older” world still be out of their range, adolescents develop a subculture of their own. Again we attribute teenage turbulence to the biological changes of puberty. Adolescence is more a phenomenon of industrial societies. Although these outward patterns are readily visible, we usually fail to realize that adolescence is a social creation; it is contemporary industrial society, not biological age that makes these years a period of turmoil. In these emotional and social spheres the young people appear to be in conflict with their parents.

Establishing some independence and learning specialized skills for adult life.

Adulthood again depends on culture, and accordingly there could be a smooth or difficult change from childhood to adolescence. The 18 years old may have different statuses and roles in Pakistani society. They have the voting rights, they can get an ID card, they can get a driving lenience, and they work in offices.

**ADULTHOOD**

Adulthood, which begins between the late teens and the early thirties, depending on the social background, is a time for accomplishment. They pursue careers and raise families. These youth embark on careers and raise families of their own. They reflect on their own achievements—Did the dreams come true?

**Early Adulthood:** It covers the period from 20 to about 40 years, and during this period personalities are formed. They learn to manage the day-to-day responsibilities personally. They try to make an adjustment with spouse, and bring up their children in their own way. They often have many conflicting priorities: parents, partner, children, schooling, and work.

**Middle Adulthood:** Roughly covers the period from 40 to 60 years. During this period the individuals assess actual achievements in view of their earlier expectations.

Children are grown up.

Growing older means facing physical decline. During the late middle years (50 to 65 years), people attempt to evaluate the past and come to terms with what lies ahead. They compare what they have accomplished with how far they had hoped to get.

During this time of life, many people find themselves caring for their own children and also their aging parents. Health and mortality also begin to loom large. People feel physical changes in their bodies, and they may watch their parents become frail, ill and die.

**OLD AGE**

Old age – the later years of adulthood and the final stage of life itself – begins about the mid sixties. The societies attach different meaning to this stage of life. Pakistani society often gives older people control over most of the land and other wealth. Since the rate of change in Pakistani society is not very fast, older people amass great wisdom during their lifetime, which earns them much respect. On the other hand in industrial societies old are considered as conservative, unimportant, obsolete. In a fast changing society their knowledge appears to be irrelevant.

Old age differs in an important way from earlier stages in life course. Growing up typically means entering new roles and assuming new responsibilities; growing old, by contrast, is the opposite experience – leaving roles that provided both satisfaction and social identity. Like any life transition, retirement from employment or even the handing over of the personal business to one’s heirs, demands learning new, different patterns while at the same time unlearning familiar habits from the past.
Lesson 20

SOCIAL DISTRIBUTION OF CRIME: EXPLANATIONS

Background

There is a growing and widespread perception among the population that, over time, crime has grown more prevalent and serious. During the last half century it has been reported that people are now much more fearful of crime than in earlier times. They are experiencing heightened anxiety about going out after dark, about their homes being burgled, and about becoming the victims of violence.

Statistics about crime and delinquency are probably the least reliable of all officially published figures on social issues. We cannot take official statistics at face value, but must pay attention to the way in which those statistics were generated.

The most basic limitation of official crime statistics is that they only include crimes actually recorded by the police. There is a long chain of problematic decisions between possible crime and its registration by the police. The majority of crimes, especially petty thefts, are never reported to the police at all. Even in the case of violent crimes, more than one third of the victims choose not to contact the police, claiming that it is a private affair or something they have dealt with themselves. As a result of partial reporting and partial recording of crimes, the official crime statistics reflect only a portion of overall offences.

Police forces have been expanded in response to growing crime. When crime rates are on the rise, there is almost inevitably public clamor for putting more police ‘on the street’. But the greater number of police has not translated into lower crime rates. Preventing crime, and reducing fear of crime, are both closely related to rebuilding strong communities. Police should work closely with citizens to improve local community standards and civil behavior, using education, persuasion, and counseling instead of incarceration. ‘Community policing’ implies not only drawing in citizens themselves, but also changing the characteristic outlook of police forces.

Social Distribution of Crime

There is a variation in the distribution of crime by social characteristics i.e. gender, age, social class, ethnicity, locality. Does it mean that some individuals or groups more likely to commit crimes, or to become the victims of crime. Research and statistics show that crime and victimization are not randomly distributed among the population. For example men are more likely than women to commit crimes; the young are more often involved in crime than older people; poor areas generally have higher crime rates than better off areas; the ethnic minorities experience higher rates of victimization; individuals living in inner city run a greater risk of becoming victims than those living in suburban areas.

Gender and Crime

National and international data show that:

- Crimes are highly concentrated among men.
- There is an imbalance in the ratio of men to women in prison.
- There are contrasts between the types of crimes men and women commit. (Women are rarely involved in violence. Petty thefts, prostitutions are typical female offenses).

In reality gender differences in crime rates may be less pronounced. Reasons may be:

- Certain crimes perpetrated by women go unreported. Domestic role provide them the opportunity to commit crimes at home and in private sphere and these go unreported.
- Women regarded as naturally deceitful and highly skilled at covering up their crimes. Supposedly grounded in their biology that they can hide their pain and discomfort.
- Women offenders are treated more leniently because male police officers tend to adopt a ‘chivalrous’ attitude towards them. Questionable. Since women appear to be less dangerous, therefore officers may let them go. Also they are less likely to be imprisoned than male offenders.
be groups possessing effective political power without economic leverage (military, trade union). Therefore inequality could there due to political power.

In Weberian perspective society can be divided in 2+ classes as below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Upper class</th>
<th>UPPER CLASS</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Upper middle class</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-middle class</td>
<td>MIDDLE CLASS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower middle class</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skilled manual workers</td>
<td>WORKING CLASS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-skilled workers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unskilled manual workers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The poor</td>
<td>THE POOR</td>
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Weber’s theory comes closer to explaining the dynamics of stratification in modern societies.

Weber anticipated the proliferation of classes, with a new class of white-collar employees, administrators, technicians and civil servants, who are growing in number and importance.

Property relations are important (Marx) but the market position and marketability is decisive in determining an individual’s class position.

Weber rejected Marx’s view that the workers (or employees) have nothing but their labor to sell to the highest bidder. The reality is that:

- Workers possess skills.
- The distribution of skills can be controlled (keep it scarce).
- Increase skill marketability.

Comparative picture of the earlier approach by Marx and Weber

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marx</th>
<th>Weber</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relationship to means of production is all important.</td>
<td>Focused more on the market position of those in employment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing polarity between classes and revolution.</td>
<td>Growth of white-collar class that would mitigate against the collapse of capitalism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class all embracing fact of life.</td>
<td>Separate political status factors to come into play.</td>
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of lower-class children. Nevertheless, mobility may further depend upon the prevalent policies, laws and other factors that may discriminate between groups and individuals on the basis of factors like race, gender, religion, age, and ethnicity.

**Individual factors:**
While structural factors may determine the proportion of high-status, well-paid positions in a society, individual factors greatly affect which persons get them. It means that one has to look into the procedures of access and entry to the available positions. There could be the possession of the entry based qualifications by the individuals and there could be number of individual factors that influence the possession of necessary qualifications.

The individuals may have differences in their “mobility oriented behaviors”. There is much which persons can do to increase their prospects for upward mobility by improving their educational qualifications. The work habits learned in early childhood are very important for making efforts in improving one’s position. Of course hard work carries no guarantee of upward mobility, but not many achieve upward mobility without it.

Then there is the often referred “principle of deferred gratification.” This consists of postponing immediate satisfaction in order to gain some later goal. Saving one’s money to go for higher studies or to start a business is an example. At the moment you are studying sociology rather than using the same time for having fun somewhere else. You are postponing ‘having fun’ over studying the subject of sociology. In this way you are practicing “deferred-gratification” pattern of behavior. The parents may spend the money on the education of their child and postpone the celebration of his marriage. Mobility oriented people are likely to demonstrate such pattern of behavior. It is usually assumed that the “deferred gratification” principle is followed by the middle class people.

Gender differential may be another factor as part of individual differences. It is generally observed that there are greater opportunities for males than for females. However, if two persons possess the same qualifications but being a male or a female may influence one’s climbing the mobility ladder. Under the law such a discriminatory approach may be prohibited but in reality it may be practiced in an invisible way. Such a barrier is usually referred to as the “glass ceiling”: a concept used to explain how women are prevented from attaining top (managerial and professional) jobs. In UK 50% of daughters of professional and managerial households enter non-manual (intermediate level) jobs with little chance of work-life upward mobility.

**Differential fertility by social class:**
The number of suitable off-springs available to fill the positions from the same class is another factor influencing social mobility. The inadequate number of children available in the middle class to fill jobs will provide an opportunity for the children from the adjacent class to fill the vacancies.

Interaction of all factors: All of the above factors interact and have a cumulative effect on the mobility of a person. Look at a person who is poor, uneducated, and belongs to a minority group is handicapped on all three counts and all these factors may interact and make things worse for him.

**Costs:**
While social mobility permits society to fill its occupational vacancies with the most able people and offers the individual a chance to attain his or her life goal, it also involves certain costs.

A mobile society arouses expectations which are not always fulfilled, thereby creating dissatisfaction and unhappiness. One could come across lot more frustrations in the mobile society than in the traditional society.

The costs could include fear of falling in status, as in downward mobility; the strain of new roles learning in occupational promotions, the disruption of primary group relationships as a person moves upward or downward. Parents and children may become strangers because of changes in social attitudes. Mobility oriented parents may work hard, come home late, and have less interaction with their children. It may lead to bitterness and estrangement.
FUNCTIONS OF FAMILY

Structural-Functionalists suggest that family performs several vital functions. In fact in this perspective family has been considered as “The backbone of society”. At the same time the social conflict paradigm considers the family central to the operations of society, but rather than focusing on societal benefits, conflict theorists investigate how the family perpetuates social inequality. The important functions are:

1. **Regulation of sexual activity.** Every culture regulates sexual activity in the interest of maintaining kinship organization and property rights. One universal regulation is the incest taboo, *a cultural norm forbidding sexual relations or marriage between certain kin*. Precisely which kin fall within the incest taboo varies from one culture to another. Mostly marriage with close relatives like parents, grandparents, aunts, uncles, siblings, is prohibited.

   The incest taboo may have medical explanations as reproduction between close relatives of any species can mentally and physically impair offsprings. Yet it has social reasons. First the incest taboo minimizes sexual competition within families by restricting legitimate sexuality to spouses. Second incest taboo forces people to marry themselves outside their immediate families, which serve the purpose of integrating the larger society. Third, since kinship defines people’s rights and obligations towards each other, reproduction among close relatives would hopelessly confuse kinship ties and threaten social order.

2. **Reproduction.** Perhaps the only function that seems to have been left to a great extent untouched is reproduction. Without reproduction the continuation of society is at stake and the legitimate births take place only within the wedlock. Yet even this inviolable function has not gone unchallenged. A prime example is the number of single women in the Western society who have children (about one third of all births in US).

3. **Socialization of children.** The family is the first and most influential setting for socialization. Ideally the parents teach children to be well-integrated and participating members of society. In fact, family socialization continues throughout life cycle. Adults change within marriage, and, as any parent knows, mothers and fathers learn as much from raising their children as their children learn from them.

   The conflict sociologists try to find fault with the outcome of this socialization through which there is likely to be the transmission of cultural values. There is the continuity of *patriarchy*, which subordinates women to men. Families therefore transform women into the sexual and economic property of men. Most wives’ earnings belong to their husbands.

4. **Social placement.** Parents confer their own social identity – in terms of race, ethnicity, religion, and social class – on children at birth. This fact explains the long-standing preference for birth to married parents. This is more like ascription of social status to the children.

   Nevertheless, racial and ethnic categories shall persist over generations only to the degree that people marry others like themselves. Thus endogamous marriage shores up the racial and ethnic hierarchy of a society. Conflict sociologists traced the origin of the family to the need to identify heirs so that men (especially in the higher classes) could transmit property to their sons. Families thus support the concentration of wealth and reproduce the class structure in each succeeding generation. Therefore family plays an important function in maintaining social inequality; hence it is a part and parcel of capitalism.

5. **Care of the sick and elderly.** Family has been a big insurance against the old age as well as during sickness. As the society moves towards the industrialization this function is likely to be taken over by institutionalized medicine and medical specialists. Care of the aged is likely to change from a family concern to a government obligation. In Pakistani society, by and large, it remains to be an important function of the family.
There is a great diversity in the family and marriage arrangements. The globalization of societies, and with the emerging chances in Pakistani society one could expect further variations in this institution. Pakistani society is certainly experiencing the changing trend toward industrial-urban way of life. Every third person in Pakistan is presently living in a locality, which has been declared as urban; thereby these urbanites are likely to experience diversities around. A variety of social and economic forces become instrumental in the erosion of traditional family and marriage values. We are trying to hold on to the sacred values of this institution, though we cannot ignore the secular inroads that are already taking place. Are these positive developments or are these threatening? Nevertheless, the dramatic changes in the social norms and values have transformed the family life. Though we do not have empirical evidence to support the observed changes yet it may be worth mentioning and it might generate curiosity for future research. Therefore, let us look at some of the changes that are being experienced by the family and marriage nationally and internationally.

1. **Family is losing functions.** Except for procreation of children, for all other functions it appears that other institutions are taken over the traditional functions of the family. In the developed countries families have accepted such a take-over whereas in Pakistan such a change is fast coming. For example educational institutions and mass media of communication are becoming powerful agents of socialization of children. Health care, matrimonial arrangements, maternal services, and many other family responsibilities are being taken over by professionals. We are heading towards a situation where right from the birth till our burial the whole of our life is likely to be handled by the professional functionaries.

2. **Families are exerting less influence over the lives of their members.** Modern society is an “other directed” society where the behavior of a person is not controlled by the peer group (contemporaries) who is found outside of the family. Of course the families try to have a control on the kinds of friends their children are likely to have but the variety of peers the children come across while out in school may be beyond the limit of families. Nevertheless, these very peer groups might become strength in the socialization of children. Such a situation might be well experienced by the families where both the parents are working. Even these parents are likely to pick up many of their styles of life from outside.

3. **Shift toward nuclear/conjugal families.** As an outcome of empirical regularity, there is a postulated universality of nuclear family. As the traditional family systems break down, though with different speed, in industrial society hiring is on the basis of competency; efficiency is measured by individual performance; job market requires mobility; none of these requirements need strong kinship network. Industrializing societies create their other formal agencies to replace help from kinship networks. Individuals have independent careers, and “go their own way” ignoring extended kinship ties. Even in stress nuclear family appears to be quite responsive to provide emotional support.

4. **Kin networking fading and being replaced by friends networking.** People either depend on their own self or on their social capital of friends.

5. **Declining size of families.** With the societies moving towards modernization, there is a decline in the fertility of women. In Pakistan from 6.3 children per woman in the 1970 we have come down to around 4 children per woman in 2004. Some of the reasons could be: the rise in age at first marriage; decline in infant mortality (140/1000 live births in 1970 to around 85/1000 in 2004); increasing number of women especially older women not desiring to get pregnant and younger wanting to space births; decline in desired family size; use of contraceptives. All these reasons may have strong link with the education of families.

6. **The rise of symmetrical families.** There is an increase in dual earner families. One could find a trend in the families where both husband and wife are working and sharing the household work. Or if the wife is busy in the second shift at home, the husband might also be having a second job.

7. **Patriarchy on the decline.** As the proportion of dual earners marriages continues to increase, women’s financial dependence on their husbands declines, leading to a decline in patriarchy. In
Lesson 31

GENDER SOCIALIZATION

Gender socialization is the ways in which society sets children onto different courses in life because they are male or female. Children are born with a biological difference i.e. given by nature, but gender differences are inculcated through nurturance. It is the socialization process that lays the foundation of contrasting orientations to life that carries over from childhood into adulthood.

Children gradually internalize the social norms and expectations corresponding to their being a male or a female. As children become conscious of their self-identity, they also become gender conscious, which usually takes place when they are around 3 years in age.

Internalization of norms and expectations are highly effective, for most men and women act, think, and feel according to the guidelines laid down by their culture as appropriate for their sex. How do people learn that certain activities are “masculine” and others “feminine”, and on that basis proper for them or not? Origins of such gender differences in behavior can be traced back to socialization where individuals learn how to play various roles in accordance to their cultural prescriptions.

Gender ordering generates a variety of masculinities and femininities. Also the same gender order acts as a framework within which gender differences emerge and are reproduced or challenged.

Masculinities refer to various socially constructed collections of assumptions, expectations and ways of behaving that serve as standards for forms of male behavior. Femininities include various socially constructed collections of assumptions, expectations and ways of behaving that serve as standards for female behavior.

Masculinity and femininity are subject to change not only across cultures, but also over time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feminine traits</th>
<th>Masculine traits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Submissive</td>
<td>Dominant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>Independent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unintelligent/incapable</td>
<td>Intelligent/competent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>Rational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptive</td>
<td>Assertive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>Strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timid</td>
<td>Brave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td>Ambitious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive</td>
<td>Competitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperative</td>
<td>Insensitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensitive</td>
<td>Sexually aggressive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex object</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Role of family:
The first question people usually ask about a newborn – Is it a boy or girl? In fact, gender is at work even before the birth of child, since most parents in the world hope to have a boy than a girl. Soon after birth, family members usher infants into the “pink world” of girls or the “blue world” of boys. Parents even convey gender messages unconsciously in the way they handle daughters and sons, and thereby inculcate relevant traits by sex.

Role of peer groups:
Peer groups further socialize their members in accordance with the normative conceptions of gender. Games differ by gender. Male games are usually competitive. Male peer activities reinforce masculine traits of aggression and control. Competitiveness for boys and cooperativeness for girls is the usual motto.

Role of schooling:

Role of Mass Media:
The number of male characters is much higher than female characters. Also women are not featured in prominent roles.
During the pre-industrial stage, high birth rates are balanced by high death rates, and population size remains fairly stable. Today the least industrialized nations of the world are in this demographic stage. During stage 2, the stage of increasing industrialization, the death rate falls primarily because of the improved sanitation, hygiene, and medical conditions. The birth rate, however, remains high because of the continued influence of traditional values favoring large families. Having several children ensures survival of at least some of them when infant mortality is high. During this stage, the imbalance between the falling death rate and the high birth rate leads to high population growth. Pakistan like many other developing nations is in this stage of transition.

At the third stage, traditional values give way to modern values favoring contraception and family planning. Birth rates decline as a result of later ages at marriage, urbanization, industrialization, rising aspirations, and other factors. The mortality rates eventually stabilize at low levels and birth rates follow.

The shift from high to low mortality and fertility is known as the “demographic transition”. This shift occurred throughout Europe, North America, and a number of other areas in the 19th and early 20th centuries, and started in many developing countries in the middle of 20th century. Although the pace and paths of decline varied tremendously among countries, the demographic transition emerged as the dominant model of demographic change.

At the fourth stage the birth rates fall to about the same level as mortality rates. With births and deaths at similar low levels, the equilibrium of slow population growth is regained.

The pace of change in a country varies depending on its culture, level of economic development, and other factors. As countries pass through the various stages of the transition, population growth from natural increase (birth rate - death rate) accelerates or decelerates depending upon the gap between birth rate and the death rate. Many developing countries are in an intermediate stage, in which mortality and fertility are falling at varying rates but are still high relative to the levels of Europe and other more developed areas.

Many low-fertility countries have entered what some describe as a “second demographic transition” in which fertility falls below the two-child replacement level as forces of contemporary life interfere with childbearing. This transition has been linked with greater educational and job opportunities for women, the availability of effective contraception, a shift away from formal marriage, the acceptance of childbearing outside marriage, and the rise of individualism and materialism. Experts disagree about whether all countries will follow the transition experienced in Europe and about whether there are additional stages of transition that we have not identified – long-term population decline, for example. But the demographic transition theory provides a useful framework for assessing demographic trends and projecting future population size.
The population of the country is increasing quite rapidly. Table 5 shows that in 1950 Pakistan with 33 million people was at 14th place in population rank order of the countries. In 2004 with 151 million people, by surpassing China, India, USA, Indonesia, and Brazil, Pakistan was at 6th place in population rank order of the countries. During the last 54 years the population of the country has increased about five times.

Table 5: Pakistan’s population rank order in the world

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Population (Million)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1950</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>6*</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* After China, India, USA, Indonesia, and Brazil having surpassed Japan, Bangladesh, Nigeria, Russia, etc.

Prior to 1961-71 decade the rate of growth has been lower than what it has been found in 2004. One of the important reasons was the high death rate which had been neutralizing the high birth rate. In line with the theory of demographic transition the death rate falls much faster than a decline in the birth rate and also the death rate declines sharply due to creating a bigger gap between the birth rate and the death rate resulting in relatively high growth rate. Pakistan has been certainly passing through demographic transition as one can see a rise in population growth during the census period of 1961-72 (3.66), then tapering of during 1972-81 (3.05), and then further decline (2.69) during 1981-1998 as well as during 2003-04 (1.9) (see table 6).

Table 6: Population growth rate in Pakistan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Growth Rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1951-61</td>
<td>2.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961-71</td>
<td>3.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972-81</td>
<td>3.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981-98</td>
<td>2.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003-04</td>
<td>1.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although there is some visible declining trend in the population growth rate, yet the mere fact that the number of persons being added annually is so huge that the overall impact may not be remarkable. One could look at the number of births that took place during the year 2002. The data presented in table 7 show that in one year 4,366,270 births took place which comes to as 8 births per minute being added to the population of the country.
Sex Composition

According to 1998 Population Census sex composition of the population shows that 52 percent of the total was that of males and 48 percent was of females (see fig. 2). This information shows that there is high sex ratio which means that the number of males per 100 females is much higher than 100 females. This is typical of developing countries which, among other factors, may be reflective of the status of women. In most of the developed countries the situation is quite the opposite indicating a greater proportion of women than men in the population.

Figure 2

According to 1998 population census of Pakistan 43 percent of the population was of children under 15 years, 53 percent was between the ages of 15-64 years, and about 4 percent was 65 years and over. This information shows that a big proportion of the population has been of children implying that they are dependents on the economy of the country. About four percent happened to be old persons, another group of dependents. About one half of the population is that of women, who, with the exception of few, are usually considered as dependents. In this way the age structure of the population of Pakistan shows that majority (nearly two thirds) of them are dependents. Of the dependents, children need special services like health, education, playgrounds, and family care. In this way the young population puts special demand on the resources of the country. Similarly the senior citizens need special services.

Age and Sex Pyramid

Age and sex distribution of the population of Pakistan gives us a specific type of pyramid which is typical of developing countries (see fig 3). This pyramid has a very broad base indicating a large number of children (43%). In this pyramid one could also see that at the lower ages (0-4) that there does not seem to be much difference between the number of males and females. As we move up the pyramid the number of females starts declining due to various reasons like the neglect of female children, poor health due to bearing of large number of children, lack of facilities for maternal care, etc.
Female literacy rates are much lower than the male population. Similarly literacy rates in the rural area are lower than the urban areas. The literacy situation of the rural women appears to be the lowest.

Despite the fact that literacy rate has been increasing in Pakistan, it is interesting to note that the absolute number of illiterates in the country has also been increasing. The information provided in table 2 shows that in 1961 there were 22 million persons who were illiterate and by the year 2004 this number has increased to 69 million, which is a more than three times increase. During the same period, the literacy rate increased from 17 percent to 54 percent, more than three times increase. It might look ironical to have such a scenario but this reality has emerged due to the rapid growth of population. The high growth rate of population has been one of the important factors that neutralize the achievement of increase in literacy.

### Table 2: Absolute number of illiterates (in million)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1990</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Distribution of Population**

The distribution of population may be looked at from different dimensions: rural-urban distribution, provincial distribution, distribution by different city size, etc. Rural-urban distribution, as seen in figure 6, shows that as of 2004 every third person was living in cities. At the time of partition every fifth person was living in cities. An increase in urban population has mostly been due to migration of rural population to the urban areas. Most of such migrants come to cities in search of job.

**Urban Population**

**Implications of Population Program**

Given the scenario of population growth in the country, the government of Pakistan started population program about fifty years back. Over the years a good amount of effort has gone into it for the creation of awareness about family planning, changing the attitudes of couples in its favor, and motivating the couples for the adoption of family planning practices (the use of contraceptives). As an outcome of government investments as well as through the efforts of NGOs some of the parameters of population are given in table 3. The data show that there has been progress on three important parameters of knowledge about family planning, the use of contraceptives, and fertility rate. It has been found that as of 2004 there were 96 percent couples who were in the know-of family planning but only a little over one third were using some family planning method (contraceptive). There appears to be a big gap between the knowledge about family planning and the practicing of family planning. It has been found that the fertility rate (the total number of children born to a woman during her life time) has declined for example from 5.4 children per woman in 1991, to 4.9 in 1997, to 4.1 children in 2004.
An increase in population has a negative impact on the size of farms. Due to the law of inheritance, on the death of the owner the landholding is divided among the heirs as provided in the law of inheritance. The information provided in table 3 shows that the number of farms under 3 acres has increased between 1980 and 1990. The small size farms become smaller and smaller and ultimately become uneconomic for purposes of cultivation. It affects the employment of the owners, agricultural production, and economy of the country.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Farm size</th>
<th>1980</th>
<th>1990</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(acres)</td>
<td>Number (million)</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 3 Acres</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>50.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-5</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>22.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>17.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10+</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>9.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The population projections show that the population of Pakistan is likely to increase rapidly and is expected to reach the figure of 170.1 million by the year 2010, the year when the government of Pakistan expects some stabilization in population growth (see figure 3).

Pakistan has young population, 43 percent being under 15 years of age. Among these children 5-14 year olds are supposed to be in school, therefore they need school facilities. In 1998 the number children aged 5-14 years was 31.7 million. It has been projected that by the year 2010 their number is likely to increase to 40.3 million (see fig. 4).

Of these children there were 11.9 million who were supposed to be in primary school. This number is likely to increase to 20.3 million by the year 2010 (see fig.5). They will certainly be in need of primary school facilities if we want them to be in school. One of the facilities is the availability of teachers. In 1998 there
ENVIRONMENT AND SOCIETY

What is the relationship between environment and society? What kinds of impact do human groups make upon the planet? How have environmental (or ecological) limits shaped human behavior, cultural practices and social institutions? What do developments in science and technology, economic practice and government policy tell us about the changing forms of nature-society relationships? These are some of the questions that germinate discussions about issues pertaining to environment-society relationships.

Environment: Stems from the French world *viron*, meaning a circle, a round, or the country around. Hence environment means the external conditions and influences affecting the life of an organism, or entire societies, or the “physical and biotic infrastructure” supporting populations of all kind. In this way environment is the total physical and material bases of all life, including land, air, water, and the vital material resources and energy in which societies are embedded. It may be called natural environment.

Natural environment: The earth’s surface and atmosphere, including living organisms, air, water, soil, and other resources necessary to sustain life.

Environment serves three distinct functions for societies:

- Provides our home, or the space in which we conduct our activities (living space);
- Supplies us with the resources that are necessary for living (supply depot); and
- Acts as a ‘sink’ for absorbing the waste products of modern industrial societies (waste repository).

These three functions may compete with each other.

Because of increase in population and the related activities:

- There is substantially more conflict between the three functions;
- The total human demand or ‘load’ may be exceeding the long-term carrying capacity of both specific areas and even of the global ecosystem.

Ecology: The study of interaction of living organisms and the natural environment. Like any other species, humans depend on the natural environment. But it is the humans who have the culture. With the development of culture, human beings transform the environment, for better or worse. Where human beings have put nature to its service, the whole process has germinated problems of solid waste, pollution, global warming, biodiversity, etc. Who created all this? Obviously these are the results of human actions. Hence one looks at some of the fundamental social issues like: What “the environment” means to people? How do the meanings (thoughts, hopes, fears) change? How human social patterns put mounting pressure on the environment?

Global Dimension:

Planet is a single ecosytem. *Echo* is ‘house’, which reminds us that this planet is our home and that all living things and their natural environment are interrelated. It is *a system composed of the interaction of all living organisms and their natural environment*. Such inter-connectedness means that changes in any part of the natural environment ripple through the entire global ecosystem. For example, ozone is a layer in the atmosphere that restricts the entry of harmful ultraviolet radiation. As a result of environmental changes it is in the depletion process.

Historical Dimension:

How have people gained the power to threaten the natural environment? Human beings have the capacity to develop culture. Continuously the technology is being improved. Human beings have moved from hunting societies to pastorals, to agriculturists, to industrial society and to post industrial society. In this process of development it has been seen that humans consume natural resources and release pollutants. Can we say that man has been bending nature? In this process the role of rich countries has been crucial. They produce 1000 times more goods than the poor nations. Raise the standard of living → produce more solid waste and pollution.

Where there are material benefits of technology → there are negative effects on the environment like:
Look at women empowerment; for some it could be a sign of progress while others may consider it as a sign of decline.

**Some changes matter more than others.** Some changes (such as clothing fads) have only passing significance, whereas others (like computers) last a long time and may change the entire world. Information technology may revolutionize the whole world just like the industrial revolution.