

# **Chapter 4**

# **Socialization**

# Socialization

- In comparison with other species, we enter the world as amazingly “unfinished” beings. We are not born human, but become human only in the course of interaction with other people.
- Our humanness is a social product that arises in the course of socialization—a process of social interaction by which people acquire the knowledge, attitudes, values, and behaviors essential for effective participation in society.
- By virtue of socialization, a mere biological organism becomes transformed into a person—a genuine social being.

# The self

- The formation of self is a central part of the socialization process. It is not a biological given, but emerges in the course of interaction with other people. The self represents the ideas we have regarding our attributes, capacities, and behavior.
- Charles H. Cooley (1902) contended that our consciousness arises in a social context and coined the term looking-glass self—a process by which we imaginatively assume the stance of other people and view ourselves as we believe they see us.

- George H. Mead (1863-1931) contended that we gain a sense of selfhood by acting toward ourselves in much the same fashion that we act toward others. In doing so, we “take the role of the other toward ourselves.” We mentally assume a dual perspective: We are simultaneously the subject doing the viewing and the object being viewed. In our imagination, we take the position of another person and look back on ourself from this standpoint.
- Mead designates the subject aspect of the self-process the *I* and the object aspect of self the *me*.

- According to Mead, children typically pass through three stages in developing a full sense of selfhood:
  - The play stage: children take the role of only one other person at a time and “try on” the person’s behavior.
  - The game stage: children assume many roles.
  - The generalized other stage: children recognize that they are immersed within a larger community of people and that this community of people has very definite attitudes regarding what constitutes appropriate behavior. The social unit that gives individuals their unity of self is called the **generalized other**.

# Groups and Organizations

- The nature of social groups
  - A social group can be defined as two or more people who have a common identity and some feeling of unity, and who share certain goals and expectations about each other's behavior.
    - People are bound by within two types of bonds: expressive ties and instrumental ties. **Expressive ties** are social links formed when we emotionally invest ourselves to other people. Through association with people who are meaningful to us, we achieve a sense of security, love, acceptance, companionship, and personal worth. **Instrumental ties** are social links formed when we cooperate with other people to achieve some goal.

# Primary group and secondary group

- **A primary group** is a relatively small, multipurpose group in which the interaction is intimate and there is a strong sense of group identity. In primary group, people are bound by **primary relationship**—a personal, emotional, and not easily transferable relationship that includes a variety of roles and interests of each individual.
- A secondary group is a specialized group designed to achieve practical goals; its members are linked mainly by secondary relationships. In contrast to a primary relationship, a secondary relationship is specialized, lacks emotional intensity, and involves only a limited aspect of one's personality.

# Characteristics of primary and secondary relationships

Primary relationship	Secondary relationship
1. Includes a variety of roles and interests of each of the participants. It is general and diffuse in character.	1. Usually includes only one role and interest of each participant. It is specialized in character.
2. Involves the total personality of each participant.	2. Involves only those aspects of the personalities of the participants that are specifically relevant to the situation.
3. Involves communication that is free and extensive.	3. Limits communication to the specific subject of the relationship.
4. Is personal and emotion laden.	4. Is relatively impersonal and unemotional.
4. Is not easily transferable to another person.	5. Is transferable to others; that is , the participants are interchangeable.



# Other groups

- An **in-group** is a group with which we identify and to which we belong. An **out-group** is a group with which we do not identify and to which we do not belong.
- Reference groups —— social units we use for appraising and shaping attitudes, feelings, and actions.

# Groups dynamics

- Group size
  - The smallest possible group, a **dyad** , is a group of two members. The bond formed by two people is unique: they can develop a sense of unity and intimacy not found in most larger groups.
  - According to Simmel, the **triad** , or group of three members, is in some ways the least stable of small groups.
  - As group gets larger, it grows dramatically more complex and formal. With each additional member there is a geometric increase in the number of possible social relationships within the group.

- Leadership
  - Two types of leadership roles tend to evolve in small groups (Bales, 1970). One, a **task specialist**, is devoted to appraising the problem at hand and organizing people's activity to deal with it. The other, a social-emotional specialist, focuses on overcoming interpersonal problems in the group, defusing tensions, and promoting solidarity. The former type of leadership is ***instrumental***, directed toward the achievement of group goals; the latter is ***expressive***, oriented toward the creation of harmony and unity.

- Classical experiments in leadership by Kurt Levin and his associates (1939)
  - In these pioneering investigations, adult leaders working with groups of 11-year-old boys followed one of three leadership styles. In the ***authoritarian*** style, the leader determined the group's policies, gave step-by-step directions so that the boys were certain about their future tasks, assigned work partners, provided subjective praise and criticism, and remained aloof from group participation. In contrast, in the ***democratic*** style, the leader allowed the boys to participate in decision-making processes, outlined only general goals, suggested alternative procedures, permitted the members to work with whomever they wished, evaluated the boys objectively, and participated in group activities. Finally, in the ***laissez-fair*** style, the leader adopted a passive, uninvolved stance; provided materials, suggestions, and refrained from commenting on the boy's work.

- The researchers found that authoritarian leadership produces high level of frustration and hostile feelings toward the leader. Productivity remains high so long as the leader is present, but it slackens appreciably in the leader's absence.
- Under democratic leadership members are happier, feel more group-minded and friendlier, display independence, and exhibit low levels of interpersonal aggression.
- Laissez-faire leadership resulted in low group productivity and high levels of interpersonal aggression.

- Group think
  - A decision-making process found in highly cohesive groups in which the members become so preoccupied with maintaining consensus that their critical faculties are impaired.
- Conformity
  - Groupthink research testifies to the powerful social pressures that operate in group settings and produce conformity. Although such pressures influence our behavior, we often are unaware of them. In a pioneering study, Muzafer Sherif (1936) demonstrated this point with an optical illusion.

# Formal organizations

- A group people deliberately form for the achievement of specific objectives.
- Types of formal organizations
  - Amitai Etzioni (1964) classifies organizations into three types: voluntary, coercive, and utilitarian. **Voluntary organizations** are associations that members enter and leave freely. People also become members of some organizations—**coercive organizations**—against their will. They may be committed to a mental hospital, sentenced to prison, or drafted into the armed forces. Individuals also enter formal organizations formed for practical reasons—**utilitarian organizations**. Universities, corporations, farm organizations and government bureaus and agencies are among the organizations people form to accomplish vital everyday tasks.

# Bureaucracy

- A social structure made up of a hierarchy of statuses and roles that is prescribed by explicit rules and procedures and based on a division of function and authority.
- Weber's analysis of bureaucracy
  - 1. Each office or position has clearly defined duties and responsibilities. In this manner, the regular activities of the organization are arranged within a clear-cut division of labor.
  - 2. All offices are organized in a hierarchy of authority that takes the shape of a pyramid. Officials are held accountable to their superiors for subordinates' actions and decisions in addition to their own.



- 3. All activities are governed by a consistent system of abstract rules and regulations.
- 4. All offices carry with them qualifications and are filled on the basis of technical competence, not personal considerations.
- 5. Incumbent do not “own” their offices. Positions remain the property of the organization, and officeholders are supplied with the items they require to perform their work.
- 6. Employment by the organization is defined as a career. Promotion is based on seniority or merit, or both.
- 7. Administrative decisions, rules, procedures, and activities are recorded in written documents preserved in permanent files.

# Disadvantages of bureaucracy

- Trained Incapacity
  - Social critic Thorstein Veblen (1921) pointed out that bureaucracies encourage their members to rely on established rules and regulations and to apply them in an unimaginative and mechanical fashion—a pattern he called trained incapacity. As a result of the socialization provided by organizations, individuals often develop a tunnel vision that limits their ability to respond in new ways when situations change.

- Parkinson's Law

- Northcote Parkinson (1962) contends that bureaucracy expands not because of an increasing workload, but because officials seek to have additional subordinates hired in order to multiply the number of people under them in the hierarchy. These subordinates in turn create work for one another, while the coordination of their work required still more officials.

- Oligarchy

- Robert Michels (1911/1966), a sociologist and friend of Weber, argued that bureaucracies contain a fundamental flaw that makes them undemocratic social arrangements: They invariably lead to oligarchy—the concentration of power in the hands of a few individuals, who use their offices to advance their own fortunes and self-interests. He called this tendency the **iron law of oligarchy**.