

Sociology

1. Theoretical perspectives in sociology
2. Social interaction and Social structure
3. Social Stratification
4. Deviance and Social Control
5. Social change
6. Research Methodology
7. Family and Marriage

To lessen the burden on all of you, i have excluded the handouts.

Technical difficulties

communities ↘ institute

Social changes history

1. Industrial revolution

- ↳ shift in social order
- ↳ industries develop
- ↳ people started to go to cities

2. American/French Revolution

- ↳ wadera system ↴

3. Imperialism

- ↳ democracy brought
- ↳ more individual importance
- ↳ peak of science
- ↳ founder of SOCIOLOGY (French guy)
 - ↳ questioned social orders
 - ↳ why wars
 - ↳ why praise queen
 - ↳ Positivism
 - ↳ scientifically reasons
 - ↳ if found would be able to control the world

Karl Marx (communist manifesto)

- ↳ against class system
- ↳ against capitalism

♡ Suicide rate ♡

- ↳ male → financial pressure
- ↳ unmarried → no one connected
no one to share

Emile Durkheim (French philosopher)

- ↳ social integration
- ↳ what social forces
- ↳

Rationalism

logical
factorial

Empirical

experiences
observe/sense

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES OF SOCIOLOGY

Ms. Shahtaj and Ms Aqsa
Fayaz
Lecture-2
Sociology
FAST NUCES

1. FUNCTIONALISM

1. The central idea of **functional analysis** is that society is a whole unit, made up of **interrelated parts that work together**.

2. Very important for any society to stay stable and continue

. Emile Durkheim also viewed society as being composed of many parts, each with its own function. He said that when all the parts of society fulfill their functions, society is in a "normal" state. If they do not fulfill their functions, society is in an "abnormal" or "pathological" state. To understand society, then, functionalists say that we need to look at both **structure** (how the parts of a society fit together to make the whole) and **function** (what each part does, how it contributes to society).

3. The main concept in functionalism is **solidarity**, indicating how well the different elements of the society can work together to attain the main goal of continuity of the society

Example: Family and the divorce rate

2. CONFLICT THEORY



1. Conflict theory provides a second perspective on social life. Unlike the **functionalists**, who view society as a harmonious whole with its parts working together, conflict theorists stress that society is composed of groups that **compete** with one another for scarce resources.

2. **Karl Marx and Conflict Theory** Karl Marx, the founder of conflict theory, witnessed the Industrial Revolution that transformed Europe. He saw that peasants who had left the land to work in cities earned barely enough to eat. Things were so bad that the average worker died at age 30, the average wealthy person at age 50. As he did so, he developed **conflict theory**. He concluded that the key to human history is **class conflict**.

Many sociologists extend conflict theory beyond the relationship of capitalists and workers. They examine how opposing interests run through every layer of society—whether in a small group, an organization, a community, or an entire society.

For example, when teachers, parents, or the police try to enforce conformity, this creates resentment and resistance. It is the same when a teenager tries to "change the rules" to gain more independence. Throughout society, then, there is a constant struggle to determine who has authority or influence and how far that dominance goes (Turner 1978; Piven 2008; Manza and McCarthy 2011).

3. SYMBOLIC INTERACTIONISM

1. Symbolic interaction theory analyzes society by addressing the subjective meanings that people impose on objects, events, and behaviors.

2. Although symbolic interactionism traces its origins to **Max Weber's** assertion that individuals act according to their interpretation of the meaning of their world, the American philosopher George Herbert introduced this perspective to American sociology in the 1920s.

Example: Why would young people smoke cigarettes even when all objective medical evidence points to the dangers of doing so?

Example:

4. FEMINIST PERSPECTIVE

□ First coined in 1837 by French philosopher, Charles Fourier (as féminisme).

□ **Movement of women**

□ The philosophy that men and women should be politically, economically, and socially equal; organized activities on behalf of this principle.

□ *It works for equality, not for female's superiority.*

□ It focuses on social, economical, political rights of female.

□ Historically, women were not treated well, were treated as slaves etc.

□ The view that biology is not destiny, that stratification by gender is wrong and should be resisted, and that men and women should be equal—met with strong opposition, both by men who had privilege to lose and by women who accepted their status as morally correct.

3 WAVES OF FEMINISM:

1. First wave of feminism: (mid 19th to early 20th century 1850's to 1910)

Based on *political rights mostly*

2. Second wave of feminism: (1960's)

The second wave feminism movement took place in the 1960s and 1970s and focused on issues of equality and discrimination.

The Second Wave focused more on both public and private injustices.

Movement against domestic violence (heavily criticized because it was only for upper class white women)

3. Third wave of feminism (a big Hit)

It was a big hit as it addressed the limitations of second wave of feminism.

a) It also focused on the rights of non-white women as well.

4. Fourth wave of feminism (2005)

Based on use of social media (it was highlighted)

- a) Justice for women
- b) oppose sexual harassment
- c) against body shaming (objectifying her in media)

DEVALUATION OF FEMININE IN TODAY'S WORLD

:

1. People are often unaware that they make these evaluations, but if you listen carefully, you can hear them pop up in everyday speech
2. In general, with masculinity symbolizing strength and success, a higher value is placed on things considered masculine.
3. Femininity, in contrast, is often perceived as weakness and lack of accomplishment.

SOCIAL INTERACTION AND SOCIAL STRUCTURE

SOCIAL INTERACTION

- Social interactions occur every single day. They involve some form of the communication of information or the expression of some culturally accepted idea between two or more individuals or groups.
- The two main methods of communication that are used in social interactions are **verbal interactions** and **non-verbal interactions**.
- Through symbols, language, gestures or expression of ideas



5 TYPES OF SOCIAL INTERACTIONS

According to Nisbet, there are five key types of social interaction:

1. **Exchange** receive reward / employer–employee
2. **Competition** fight for common goal that can't be shared
3. **Cooperation** promote common interests / achieve same goal
4. **Conflict**
5. **Coercion**. force or threaten to compel to do something by other

Conformity if a political party believe this so do I

EXCHANGE

- Exchange is a type of social interaction where an individual or a group acts in a certain way toward another individual or group to receive a reward.
- The most common type of exchange relationship is between an employer and an employee. The employee has to behave according to the wishes of the employer if they want to receive a reward.
- The reward doesn't need to be monetary or even material. This reward could be as simple as an expression of love, gratitude, or recognition (Nisbet, 1970, p. 56).

4 CONFORMITY

- Conformity is all behavior that is in accord with the social norms and values of a given social group.
- The most common example of conformity might be in politics. It is common to see an individual stop believing in something only because the political party they are affiliated with does not approve of that belief.
- A similar process takes place in friend groups, romantic relationships, family relationships, and so on.

2. COOPERATION

- Cooperation is interaction in which individuals or groups act together to promote common interests or achieve common goals.

COERCION

- Compelling an individual or group—either intellectually, morally, or physically—to do something; using force or threatening to use force.
- Boycott is the withholding of social or economic interaction with others to express disapproval and to force acceptance of demands.

3. COMPETITION

- Competition is a rivalry where two or more parties strive for a common goal which cannot be shared: where one's gain is the other's loss.
- People can compete over tangible resources like land, food, and mates, but also over intangible resources, such as social capital. Competition is the opposite of cooperation and arises whenever two parties strive for a goal that cannot be shared.
- competition can have both beneficial and detrimental effects. Positively, competition if it follows rules of conduct may serve as a form of recreation or it helps to motivate people to perform the roles society asks of them. On the negative side, competition can cause injury, psychological stress, inequality, lack of cooperation and even

SOCIAL STRUCTURE

- Humans are social beings, we live and work in groups and interact in predictable ways.
- Every society has a structure that guides human interaction.
- This structure helps people know what is expected of them in most social situations and what they can expect from others.

- is the very foundation in which human beings organize themselves into both simple and complex groups whose goal is to provide common understanding, community, purpose and security for all of their members.
- These groups include but are not limited to: families, schools, religious organizations, social clubs, etc
- Allow people the opportunity to be closer to one another and share their mutual thoughts, experiences, and perspectives in order to gain a more complete grasp of the world around them.
- The major components of social structure include culture, social class, social status, roles, groups, and social institutions.
- Social structure guides people's behaviors.**
- A person's location in the social structure (his or her social class, social status, the roles he or she plays, and the culture, groups, and social institutions to which he or she belongs) underlies his or her perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors.
- Also used in relation to social change.

ELEMENTS OF SOCIAL STRUCTURE

- Social structure can be broken down into following elements:
- Status
- Roles
- Social networks
- Groups
- Organizations



ROLES OF SOCIAL STRUCTURE

- Role are sets of norms that specify the rights and obligations of each status/ the behaviors, obligations, and privileges attached to a status.
- Example: I have the status of 'Teacher'; My role is to teach.

STATUS

- Each individual in society occupies several statuses.
- An individual can be a father, a teacher, a husband, brother an African American all at the same time.
- A **status set** is all of the statuses that a person occupies at any particular time.
- Statuses are ways of defining where individuals fit in society and how they relate to others in society.

- A status is a socially defined position/rank in society characterized by certain expectations, rights and duties.
- Types of status:**
- Ascribed Status:** given to individual generally at birth and from which they cannot escape; these statuses are fixed.
- Examples: Things like ethnicity, birth order, height, and eye color

- Achieved Status:** Positions that are achieved by individuals for themselves ; these status can change.
- For example, the statuses of husband, mother, lawyer, doctor, professor, or student are all achieved statuses.
- Master status:** the most important status that a person occupies. The dominant one or a status which they view as the most important part of their identity. It often determines people's perceptions of you and your choices in life.
- Example: Age, religion, sexual orientation, race, ethnicity, occupation, and socioeconomic status.



PROBLEMS OF SOCIAL STRUCTURE

1. **Role conflict:** A role conflict is when a person is expected to fulfill the duties of **two contradictory positions**. Faces tension in different roles of different statuses.

■ Example: In case if a person is both dad and coach. As a father, he wants to see his son participating in the baseball game no matter how good or bad his skills are. As a coach, he has to do what's best for the team. This means he must put in players that are talented and will help the team ^{win} the game.

- **2. Role Strain:** occurs when **incompatible role demands develop within a single status.**

■ Example: role strain occurs when a person has difficulty meeting the responsibilities of a particular role in his or her life.

■ Student example: submission of thesis and exams simultaneously

■ Domestic mother (preparation of breakfast, has to iron uniform)

SOCIAL INSTITUTION

- **A place where group of people who come together for common purpose.**

■ the organized, usual, or standard ways by which society meets its basic needs

■ These are the structure of society which fulfills the needs of society.

■ The family, religion, law, politics, economics, education, science, medicine, and the military all are social institutions.

■ Social institution operates, maintain and regulate the society.

■ **It is necessary for the survival of society.**

■ **It has its rules and roles (example: education system/ school institution)**

■ Exists in every society

■ The family, religion, law, politics, economics, education, science, medicine, and the military all are social institutions.

■ In industrialized societies, social institutions tend to be more formal and in nonliterate societies, more informal.

■ Each institution has its own groups, status, values, and norms.

5 MAJOR SOCIAL INSTITUTION

1. FAMILY

- Primary and universal social institution
- The institution of family is a basic unit in the society, and the multifaceted functions performed by it makes it a much-needed institution in a society.
- It is considered a "building block" of society because it is the primary unit through which socialization occurs.
- **Basic unit: marriage**
- **To provide for the rearing of children.**
- **To provide a sense of identity or belonging among its members.**
- **To transmit culture between generations.**



2. EDUCATION



- It is the social institution through which society provides its members with knowledge, including basic facts, job skills, and cultural norms and values.
- Responsible for the systematic transmission of knowledge, skills and cultural values within a formally organized structure.
- **Examples** of educational institutes include elementary schools, junior schools, open universities, and vocational training institutes.

3. ECONOMY



- **Production, distribution and consumption of good and services**
- It regulates the economic needs of society.
- It is also responsible for the exchange of money and other resources

4. POLITICS/ GOVERNMENT



- **Policy makers**
- **Implement Laws**
- It is responsible for **maintaining order, protecting citizens from harm, and providing for the common good.**
- The government does this through its various sub-institutions and agencies, such as the police, the military, and the courts.
- These legal institutions regulate society and prevent crime by enforcing law and policy

5. RELIGION

- It is an organized system of beliefs and practices designed to fill the human need for meaning and purpose (Durkheim, 1915).
- **Satisfy the spiritual needs of human needs.**
- It promotes social solidarity, social cohesion and social control.
- Religion can be used to **instill moral values** and socialize individuals into a community. Religion plays a significant role in **shaping the way people view themselves and the world around them**.
- It can **provide comfort and security to those in need.** Large religions may also provide a basis for community support, establishing institutions of its own such as hospitals and schools.



SOCIAL GROUP

- People who interact with one another and who believe that what they have in common is significant; also called a social group.
- Any number of individuals that share common values, goals and interact on a regular basis.
- Our families
- our different friendship groups
- the sociology class and other courses we attend
- our workplaces, the clubs and organizations to which we belong



TYPES OF SOCIAL GROUPS

| Primary Group | Secondary Group |
|--|--|
| 1. Primary group is small of people. | 1. Secondary group is relatively large in size. |
| 2. It is characterized by intimate, face to face, and emotional relationships. | 2. It is marked by formal, and impersonal relationships. |
| 3. For example, family and peer group | 3. For example, Club, Residents Welfare Association |

THE SOCIAL CONSTRUCTION OF REALITY

(THOMAS LUCKMAN AND PETER L. BERGER)

- Sociologists generally accept that reality is different for each individual. The term social construction of reality refers to the theory that the way we present ourselves to other people is shaped partly by our interactions with others, as well as by our life experiences.
- Pink is for girls, blue is for boys



TYPES OF SOCIETIES

- Preindustrial Societies
- Industrial Society
- Postindustrial Society

DRAMATURGY

- Dramaturgy is a sociological concept developed by Erving Goffman that uses the metaphor of theater to explain human behavior.
- Impression Management: the sum total of actions we take — both consciously and unconsciously — to influence how others perceive us.
- Front stage self and back stage self
 - The front stage self encompasses the behavior a player (person) performs in front of an audience (usually society, or some subset of society). A person performs her front stage self when she knows she is being watched and that her behaviors is subject to judgment by an audience.
 - Example: Working in an institute
- Back stage Self: In contrast, we may only let our guard down and fully relax when we're by ourselves or familiar people — here we're back stage.
- A useful, and everyday way of understanding dramaturgy (specifically front stage and back stage) is to think of a waiter or waitress at a restaurant. Their main avenue of concern for him or her is "customer service." Even if a customer is rude, waiters and/or waitresses are expected to be polite ("the customer is always right") as part of their job responsibilities. That same waiter or waitress speaks differently when going out to her/his break room. s/he may complain, mimic and discuss with their fellow peers how irritating and rude the customer is. In this example, the waiter/waitress acts a certain way when dealing with customers and acts a completely different way when with her/his fellow employees.

SOCIAL INEQUALITY

- ↳ different access to
 - ↳ resources
 - ↳ education
 - ↳ income
 - ↳ wealth
 - ↳ judicial treatment

1. Social Stratification
2. Global Stratification
3. Understanding Social Mobility
4. Sociological perspective on stratification

I. SOCIAL STRATIFICATION

- ↳ describes the system of social standing
- ↳ people are divided into groups according to
 - ↳ relative property
 - ↳ power
 - ↳ prestige

4 major systems of social stratification

1. SLAVERY
2. CASTE
3. ESTATE
4. CLASS

Slavery

I. SLAVERY

- ↳ individuals owned by other people

CAUSES

- ↳ Debt: creditors would enslave people who could not pay their debts
- ↳ Crime: a murderer/mugger would be enslaved by victim's family as compensation for their loss
- ↳ War: when group of people conquered the other, they would be enslaved

CONDITIONS

- ↳ Slavery was temporary in some places
- ↳ Roman slaves could buy themselves out
- ↳ Slavery was not necessarily inheritable
- ↳ Slaves of rich were adopted by family
- ↳ Slaves were not necessarily powerless and poor

findings from the literature review, this has been marked with a (**).

Focal Forms of modern slavery in Pakistan

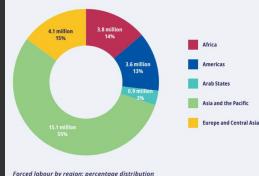
| Type | Forms of control | Physical movement | Exploitation | Victims | Perpetrators | Location/s |
|---------------------------------|---|--|--|--|--|---|
| Bonded labour | Debt bondage; generational debt bondage; lack of alternative livelihoods. | No movement for agriculture; movement from less cultivated to more cultivated areas, especially during droughts; migration to brick kilns from rural to urban outskirts; rural to urban movement for domestic servitude. | Withheld wages; unfair labour relations; confinement; physical and psychological control. | Poor, landless families; women in debt bondage; poor and illiterate women and children. | Middlemen/brokers; owners and landowners. | Lower Sindh; Southern Punjab; Punjab and KP. |
| Forced marriage | Family and community pressure; harmful religious and cultural traditions; lack of personal/physical security especially of single /young women and adolescent girls; trafficking. | No movement; rural to outside of Pakistan; from natural disaster-prone areas; as internal trafficking. | Forced marriage; physical, sexual and psychological abuse; commercial sexual exploitation; domestic servitude; bonded labour; further trafficking. | Widespread, women; young women and adolescent girls. | Families (that sell and buy); communities. | Widespread. |
| Child labour and trafficking | Bonded labour; lack of alternative opportunities; sale by family; lure of income; kidnapping and abduction; psychological control; separation from parents. | No movement in rural or in urban areas; rural to urban. | Forced and bonded labour; sexual exploitation; commercial sexual exploitation; | Victims of domestic violence; families in debt bondage; children of poor families; runaways; victims of forced marriages. | Traffickers and agents; trusted community figures; families | Widespread but happening more in rural settings more closely linked to debt bondage and cultural practices. Still commonplace in urban areas too. |
| Commercial sexual exploitation | Lack of alternative opportunities; deception; fake marriage or relationships/lure of a better life; kidnapping and abduction; forced marriage. | No movement; rural to urban; trafficking inside and outside of Pakistan. | Commercial sexual exploitation; forced prostitution; confiscation of earnings from prostitution; physical and psychological abuse; confinement. | Victims of domestic violence; women in forced marriages; victims of fake marriages; transwomen. Street children, nomadic and LGBTQI+ boys.** | Husbands and families; traffickers, agents and pimps; clients. | Widespread. Red-light district; brothels; gurucha system; transport hubs; domestic work. |
| Human trafficking | Deception; lure of jobs and higher income; fake documentation; fake marriage; kidnapping and abduction; lack of alternative opportunities. | Rural to urban/semi-urban locations; external trafficking via land, air and sea. | For purpose of labour exploitation, sex trafficking and sexual exploitation; physical and sexual abuse, psychological coercion, isolation and document confiscation. | Victims of other forms of modern slavery that employ trafficking; men and women going for overseas employment. Poor and illiterate women and children from large families.** | Middlemen; owners and employers; family or relatives. | Widespread but concentrated in poor areas; Punjab (Gujranwala, Gujarat, Sialkot and Mandi Bahauddin); interior Sindh KP (Chitral); border and coastal areas of Balochistan.** |
| Organ harvesting** ⁴ | Lack of alternative opportunities; existing debt bondage; deception by middlemen. | From rural to urban areas for removal of organs; return to place of residence following surgery. | Deception concerning process and after care; hidden expenses/smaller payments then promised. | Largely affecting poor, illiterate males; families in debt bondage (esp. agriculture). | Middlemen; actors associated with private hospitals (doctors, nurses, etc.). | Widespread in Punjab, particularly Sargodha. |

⁴ Organ harvesting was not a selected focal form to be researched during the fieldwork and as such these are findings from the literature review.

INDENTURED SERVITUDE/BONDED LABOUR

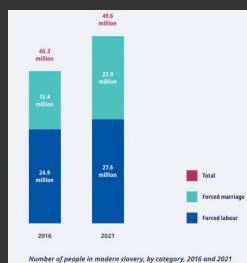
- ↳ form of labour where
- ↳ person contracted to work without salary for specific no. of years
- ↳ may be voluntary → compensation
→ debt
- ↳ designed to exploit workers
- ↳ common in India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Nepal

The Asia and the Pacific region has the highest number of people in forced labour and the Arab States the highest prevalence



SLAVERY IN THE NEW WORLD

1. Some believe slavery led to racism instead of racism led to slavery
2. To defend slavery, US slave owners developed beliefs to justify slavery
 - ↳ slaves were inferior
 - ↳ slaves were not fully human
3. Passed laws that made slavery inheritable → slave's babies became property of the slave owner



SLAVERY IN MODERN WORLD

comprises of 2 elements

FORCED LABOUR

FORCED MARRIAGES

(Child sex trafficking, Human Trafficking)

SLAVERY IN PAKISTAN

1. Bonded Labour – Victims: Poor, landless families; women in debt bondage; poor and illiterate women and children.
2. Child labour and trafficking: Victims Widespread, women; young women and adolescent girls.
3. Forced marriage: Victims of domestic violence; families in debt bondage; Poor families; runaways; victims of forced marriages.
4. Human trafficking: Men and women going for overseas employment. Poor and illiterate women and children from large families
5. Commercial sexual exploitation: Victims of domestic violence; women in forced marriages; victims of fake marriages; transwomen. Street children, nomadic and LGBTQI+ boys.

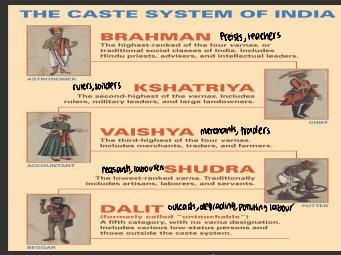
2. Caste

Endogamy: same cast marriages → most common in India

Apartheid: government enforced separation of racial/ethnic groups

Racial classifications

1. Europeans (white)
2. Africans (black)
3. Coloured (mixed races)
4. Asians



Dalit → outcast
 ↳ no police rights
 ↳ no water
 ↳ untouchable

3. ESTATE STRATIFICATION

1. Nobility

- ↳ wealthy families
- ↳ ruled country
- ↳ owned land
- ↳ administered lands
- ↳ defend the king
- ↳ did no work themselves
- ↳ work was considered beneath them

2. Clergy

- ↳ Religious People
- ↳ Roman Catholic church
- ↳ collected tax
- ↳ owned vast lands

3. Commoners

- ↳ all work they do
- ↳ they were taxed
- ↳ wealthy merchants
- ↳ skilled artisans
- ↳ educated bourgeoisie
- ↳ illiterate

4. CLASS SYSTEM

- ↳ based on money or material possessions
- ↳ income
- ↳ education
- ↳ prestige of education
- ↳ allows social mobility, move up and down a social ladder

lower middle upper

rare person to make out of 3 state
 ↳ a man knighted to bravery in battle
 ↳ someone called into religious vocation

SOCIAL MOBILITY

↳ move up and down the social ladder

TYPES OF SOCIAL MOBILITY

- ▢ Intergenerational mobility: the change that family members make in social class from one generation to the next
- ▢ Upward social mobility: movement up the social class ladder
- ▢ Downward social mobility: movement down the social class ladder
- ▢ Structural mobility :movement up or down the social class ladder that is due more to changes in the *structure* of society than to the actions of individuals

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON SOCIAL STRATIFICATION

Karl Marx says 1 factor determines social class

↳ if you own the means of production → ^{you belong to} bourgeoisie
if you don't then ^{belong to} proletariat

False class consciousness

workers mistakenly think themselves as capitalists

Workers mistakenly thinking of themselves as capitalists.
For example, workers with a few dollars in the bank may forget that they are workers and instead see themselves as investors, or as capitalists who are about to launch a successful business.

INEQUALITY IS UNIVERSAL

Wilbert Moore concluded

1. For society to function, its positions must be filled
2. Some positions more imp than others
3. imp positions must be filled by qualified people
4. To motivate qualified people to fill positions, they must offer greater rewards

Max Weber said
social class has 3 components

1. Property/wealth
significant in determining a person's standing in society
2. Power
ability to control others, even over their objections
3. Prestige
→ derived from Property and Power



THE CONFLICT PERSPECTIVE

Mosca's Argument → society will be stratified by power

this is inevitable because

1. no society can exist unless it's organised
this requires leadership to coordinate

2. leadership requires inequality of power
as some people will lead others will follow

3. As human nature is self-centered
people in power will use their positions to
bestow greater rewards for themselves

CURRENT APPLICATIONS OF CONFLICT THEORY

They examine how groups *within the same class* compete with one another for a larger slice of the pie (Collins 1999; King et al. 2010).



Even within the same industry, for example, union will fight against union for higher salaries, shorter hours, and more power. Another focus of conflict theorists is conflict between racial-ethnic groups as they compete for education, housing, and even prestige—whatever rewards society has to offer.

They also study the relations between women and men, which conflict theorists say are best understood as a conflict over power—over who controls society's resource

ELITE

- ↳ more access to power/resources → hence more power!)
- ↳ strong connections
 - ↳ Policies → control
 - ↳ Media → what info given and to what extent
 - ↳ Economy

HOW ELITE STAY IN POWER

- ↳ CONTROL PEOPLES IDEAS
 - ↳ e.g. King was considered God and not following him leads to sin and punishment
- ↳ CONTROLLING INFORMATION
 - ↳ in China fb banned
 - ↳ news channels blocked
 - ↳ done indirectly
 - ↳ Wikipedia banned
- ↳ STIFFLING CRITICISM
 - ↳ induce fear
 - ↳ can't talk against army
 - ↳ if journalists writes a book they were beaten
 - ↳
- ↳ BIG BROTHER TECHNOLOGY
 - ↳ person doesn't know they are being watched
 - ↳

FAMILY AND MARRIAGE

WHAT IS FAMILY most important human group

- ↳ Burgess and Locke defined it as a group of people united by ties of
 1. marriage
 2. blood
 3. adoption

HOW is marriage diff than family

- ↳ commitment
- ↳ legal and social contract

TYPES OF FAMILIES

ON THE BASIS OF STRUCTURE

1. NUCLEAR FAMILY

- ↳ husband
- ↳ wife
- ↳ children

↳ INCEST

3. JOINT FAMILY

- ↳ TWO OR MORE families live in one house

2. EXTENDED FAMILY

- in which relatives
- ↳ older generation OR unmarried aunts/uncles
 - ↳ live with the parents and their children

4. BLENDED FAMILY

- ↳ STEP family
- when 2 people come together and bring a child from previous

ON THE BASIS OF AUTHORITY

1. PATRIARCAL

- ↳ male dominant
- ↳ female subordinate

2. MATRIARCHAL

- ↳ female dominant
- ↳ male subordinate

ON THE BASIS OF MARRIAGE

1. MONOGAMOUS

- 1 man marry 1 woman

2. POLYGAMOUS

- 1 man marry 2 or more women

3. POLYANDROUS

- 1 woman marry 2 or more men

WHAT IS MARRIAGE

- ↳ universal social institution
- ↳ established by the society to control and regulate the sex life of human

MALINOWSKI
contract for production/maintenance of children

ROBERT H. LOWIE
Permanent bond b/w permissible mates

ALFRED MCCLUNG LEFF

the public joining together under socially specified regulations of a man and woman as husband and wife

MATE SELECTION

Endogamy

marry within their group

↳ carry forward illness

Exogamy
marry outside their group

↳ more variations

INHERITANCE

PATRILINEAL
SYSTEM
only to males

MATRILINEAL
SYSTEM
only to females

MISS CANT
ANSWER
BILINEAL
QUESTION

BILINEAL SYSTEM

male and female
both

WHY FAMILY IS UNIVERSAL

according to functionalists, family fulfills 5 NEEDS that are basic to survival of every society

1. ECONOMIC PRODUCTION

big family
↓
more members
make money

2. SOCIALIZATION OF
CHILDREN

provide shelter
give support

3. CARE OF SICK
AND AGED

4. SEXUAL CONTROL
norms of society to be followed
norms told by family

5. REPRODUCTION

FAIL ANY OF THESE
DYSFUNCTIONAL

Isolation and Emotional Overload

- The relative isolation of today's nuclear family creates one of those dysfunctions. Because the members of extended families are embedded in a larger kinship network, they can count on many people for material and emotional support. In nuclear families, in contrast, the stresses that come with crises—the loss of a job, a death, or even family quarrels—are spread among fewer people. This places greater strain on each family member, creating *emotional overload*.

CONFLICT IS A PART OF MARRIAGE

at some point their desires and approaches to life clash

POWER is the source
of much conflict

DIVORCE

- ↳ end of family
- ↳ court involved

SEPARATION

- ↳ not legally
- ↳ still belong

→ IN A PATRIARCAL SOCIETY, such as Paki
Men dominate women in multiple ways

as our society perceives women as mannequins that must
bear and adhere social constraints

this leads to

- ↳ domestic abuse
- ↳ verbal
- ↳ physical
- ↳ mental
- ↳ torture

leading reason for high divorce
rates in PAKISTAN

- ↳ long lasting domestic abuse
- ↳ forced marriages

NEGATIVE EFFECTS OF DIVORCE

- takes toll on children's well-being
- ↳ behavioral problems
- ↳ poor grades
- ↳ drop out of high school
- ↳ get in trouble with law
- ↳ insecure
- ↳ depressed

HOW TO HELP CHILDREN ADJUST TO DIVORCE

- ↳ children close to both parents
make best adjustment
- ↳ children who don't feel close to either
make the worst adjustment

- Children adjust well if they experience little conflict, feel loved, live with a parent who is making a good adjustment, and have consistent routines.
- Children also adjust better if a second adult can be counted on for support

THE DARK SIDE OF FAMILY

1. Domestic Violence

2. Incest

3. Child Abuse

THE BRIGHT SIDE OF FAMILY

SOCIOLOGISTS

Jeanette and Robert Laver

Interviewed 391 couples

Married 152

300 HAPPY

51 UNHAPPY
Stayed together for
↳ children
↳ religious reasons

SOCIOLOGISTS

NICHOLAS STINNETT

Studied 600 families from US

- 1. Consider their spouse to be their best friend, like their spouse as a person
- 2. Think of marriage as a long-term commitment. Believe that marriage is sacred
- 3. Agree on aims and goals
- 4. Believe that their spouse has grown more interesting over the years
- 5. Strongly want the relationship to succeed. Laugh together

- 1. Spends time together
- 2. South America. He found that the happy families
- 3. Spend a lot of time together
- 4. Are quick to express appreciation
- 5. Promote one another's welfare
- 6. Do a lot of talking and listen to one another
- 7. Are religious
- 8. Deal with crises in a positive manner

FUTURE OF FAMILY AND MARRIAGE

- Its universal so it will not collapse as an institute
- More decision making power will be owned by the females in coming times.

DEVIANCE AND SOCIAL CONTROL



- ↳ NO culture or society has complete behavioral conformity
- ↳ process where people change their
 - ↳ beliefs
 - ↳ attitudes
 - ↳ actions
 - ↳ perceptionto match those held by groups to which
 - ↳ they belong
 - ↳ they want to belong
 - ↳ or approval they desire
- ↳ when we deviate from norms
- ↳ Deviance exist in all societies
- ↳ Violation of social norms is censured or punished
- ↳ Sociologically no act, belief, characteristic is inherently deviant as deviance is socially defined
- ↳ Deviance varies across society and groups within society

EXAMPLES

- ↳ wearing certain types of clothes to fit in
- ↳ change your political beliefs to fit in
- ↳ going along with crowd even if you don't agree with their actions

EXAMPLES

- ↳ behavior that violates
 - ↳ expectations of a group/society
 - ↳ norms which may or may not be formalized into law

WHY

- ↳ to be liked/accepted
- ↳ maybe majority is right
- ↳ validation from another group

e.g.

- ↳ low
 - ↳ eating with left hand
 - ↳ driving over speed limit
- ↳ high
 - ↳ killing someone

HOW NORMS MAKE SOCIAL LIFE POSSIBLE

- ↳ no human group can exist without norms
- ↳ w/o norms, there would be social chaos
- ↳ norms make behavior predictable
- ↳ it lays out guidelines on how to interact and play roles

WHY HAVE NORMS

- ↳ maintain norm
- ↳ minimise conflicts
- ↳ need stability etc deviance behavior
- ↳ bring social order

→ IDENTIFY NORM
odd one out

Shifting Definitions Of Deviance

↳ what is thought to be deviant varies from time to time

Example

↳ obesity wasn't seen as deviant, but now is

↳ premarital sex was seen as deviant but now isn't

BIOLOGICAL EXPLANATIONS

↳ sociobiologists look for answers within individuals

↳ genetics

↳ Lombroso, Wilson, Herrnstein

↳ muscular people were more likely to commit street crimes

↳ Research doesn't support theory

PSYCHOLOGICAL EXPLANATIONS

↳ psychologists focus on abnormalities within individuals

↳ personality disorders

↳ Mayers, Lui

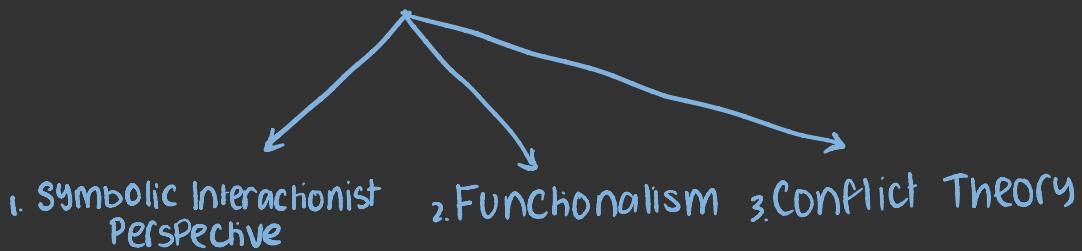
↳ deviating individuals have deviating personalities

↳ subconscious motives drive people to deviance

SOCIOLOGICAL EXPLANATIONS

↳ sociologists look for factors outside the individual

↳ they look for social influencers to 'recruit' people to break norms



I. Symbolic Interactionist Perspective

- ↳ we are thinking beings who act accordingly to how we interpret situations
- ↳ consider how our membership in groups influences how we view life

EDWIN SUTHERLAND

DIFFERENTIAL ASSOCIATION Theory

- ↳ stress our experiences in a group
- ↳ we learn to deviate from/conform to society's norm based on the diff groups we associate with
 - e.g. Family/Friends/Neighborhoods
 - ↳ family is a huge factor on whether people learn deviance or conformity
 - ↳ children of families involved in crime tend to go down the same crime path



LABELING Theory

- ↳ the view that labels people are given affect their own and others perception of them
- ↳ thus channeling their behavior into deviance or conformity

WALTER RECKLESS

CONTROL Theory

- ↳ we have 2 control systems that work against our motivations to motivate

INNER CONTROL

- ↳ internalised morality/conscience
- ↳ religious principles
- ↳ ideas of right/wrong
- ↳ fears of punishment
- ↳ desire to be a good person

OUTER CONTROL

- ↳ consists of people
 - ↳ families/friends
- ↳ police → who influence us to not deviate

EMILE DURKHEIM

2. FUNCTIONALIST PERSPECTIVE → strain theory?

- ↳ functionalists say that deviance also has functions
- ↳ Deviance contributes to social order in 3 ways

1. Deviance clarifies moral boundaries and affirms norms

- ↳ moral boundaries → a group's ideas on how to think/act
- ↳ Deviance challenges these boundaries
- ↳ Punishing deviance affirms the group's norms

2. Deviance encourages social unity

- ↳ creates a "we feeling"
- ↳ when the group unites against a deviance

3. Deviance promotes social change

- ↳ Boundary violations that gain enough support become new/accepted behaviors
- ↳ Deviance may force a group to rethink/redefine their moral boundaries

3. The Conflict Perspective

- ↳ sees society as a competition for power and resources
- ↳ It claims that deviance is the result of inequality in society
- ↳ It also argues that deviance is punished more strictly for people with less power while elite more likely get away with it
 - ↳ they make laws hence they choose deviance

- Deviance and the Poor
 - Deviance is created by the capitalist economic system.
 - Definitions of deviance serve the interest of the capitalists while adversely affecting the poor.
- Deviance and the Elite
 - Great efforts are made by the capitalists to legitimize elite acts of deviance.
 - The higher-ups in society have greater ability to commit deviant acts, to escape sanction for those acts, and to create scapegoats to blame for those acts.

SOCIAL CONTROL LEADING TO SANCTIONS

↳ SOCIAL CONTROL GOAL

- ↳ maintain order in society
- ↳ ensure conformity in those deemed deviant/undesirable which results in sanctions

• A sanction is any reaction from others to the behavior of an individual or group.

- Social sanctions encourage behaviors that are considered to be appropriate and deter behaviors that are not.
- These representative or typical patterns and rules of behavior are called social norms.

TWO TYPES OF SANCTIONS

POSITIVE

↳ an expression of approval for following a norm

↳ ranges from a smile/good grade to a material reward

e.g. getting a raise
getting an A

↳ prize

NEGATIVE

↳ an expression of disapproval for breaking a norm

↳ ranges from mild/informal reaction to a formal reaction

e.g. being fired
getting an F

↳ a frown

↳ fine
↳ prison

INFORMAL SANCTIONS

Informal sanctions refer to all the tacit, informal, subtle, and unofficial ways social norms and values are enforced in society.

DEFINITION

Informal sanctions are social and psychological penalties and sometimes rewards used to regulate the behaviors of a group or society.

Formal sanctions include all the formal penalties imposed by society in order to uphold social norms.

EXAMPLES

- Peer pressure
- Shaming
- Body language
- Social ostracism
- Humor
- Gossip
- Bullying

FORMAL SANCTIONS

Formal sanctions are official punishments or penalties imposed by a social group via its authority figures to enforce social norms and values.

FORMAL VS INFORMAL

- **Formal Sanctions** - Sanctions that are officially recognized and enforced by an authority to enforce social norms and values.
- **Informal Sanctions** - Sanctions that are not legally binding and tend to occur in face-to-face interactions to encourage social norms and values.

KEY EXAMPLES

Examples of formal sanctions include legal penalties, fines, imprisonment, suspension, detention, expulsion, forced community service, and other punishments codified in law or instituted by a recognized authority.

SOCIAL CHANGE

MEANING AND NATURE OF SOCIAL CHANGE

- The concepts of social control, deviance and conflict. All these concepts help us to understand the universal process of change in society.
- From its inception, sociology has been closely linked with the study of the rapid changes in societies.
- "Social change refers to fundamental alterations in the patterns of culture, structure, social institutions, and social behavior over time."**
- In sociology, we look at social change as alterations that occur in the social structure and social relationships.
- Alterations may occur in norms, values, cultural products and symbols in a society.
- The social change is also known as social progress or sociocultural evolution.
- Example:
- 1. A significant social change occurred in the form of drastic shift from an agricultural society to industrialized and post-modern society.
- 2. Change in family system.
- 3. Change in education system.
- 4. Globalization (media exchange, cultural variations)

NATURE OF SOCIAL CHANGE



From Gemeinschaft to Gesellschaft

- Introduced by German sociologist **Ferdinand Tönnies**, Gemeinschaft and Gesellschaft are two conceptual models for types of human association.
- Gemeinschaft, often translated as "community", is a concept referring to individuals bound together by common norms, often because of shared physical space and shared beliefs.



Contrasting Societies:

Simple v. Complex Societies (Ferdinand Tönnies)

Gemeinschaft

- “community”
- members of society are close
- activities center on the family & community
- strong group solidarity
- examples: preindustrial societies or rural villages

Gesellschaft

- “society”
- social relationships:
 - based on need rather than emotion
 - impersonal
 - often temporary
- traditional values weak
- Individual goals more important than group's

Main theories about social change:

1. Evolutionary Theories

- During the 19th century the evolutionary perspective became dominant to understand the process of social change.
- Auguste Comte, Morgan, and Spencer** were the major proponents of this theory.
- They believed that **society is the outcome of the constant process of evolution**.
- It starts with a simple beginning to a more complex form.
- Evolutionary theorists consider social change in a positive sense. According to them, **social change** meant "progress" towards something better.
- The theory was highly influenced by Darwin's theory of organic evolution. The Darwinian model of biological evolution was applied by the evolutionary theorists who considered society as an organism to understand social evolution.

2. Cyclical theories

- The cyclical theory of social change focuses on the rise and fall of civilizations and attempts to discover the patterns of growth and decay.
- It focuses on the fact that civilization have always risen and fallen. Like an organism, all civilizations have a life-like birth, maturity, old age and death.
- Sorokin, Tawney, Spengler** are the major theorists of this school of thought of social change.
- They hold that all civilizations go through the cycles of growth and decay.
- Spengler has criticized the evolutionary theories of social change and said that change never happens in a straight line. In view of Spengler, social change occurs in a cycle, from where we start after roaming, we again reach the same place.
- Example: The Roman Empire rose to power and then gradually collapsed.
- The British empire grew strong, and then deteriorated.
- Spengler believed that social change may take the form of progress or of decay, but that no society lives for ever.

3. Conflict theories

- Conflict theory views social conflict as the constant, and change as the result of this conflict.
- Since conflict is continuous, change is continuous.
- Change produces new interest groupings and classes, and conflict between these produces further change.
- Any particular change represents the success of victorious groups or classes in imposing their preferences upon others.
- A number of social theorists have espoused this approach such as Karl Marx, Lewis Coser, and Ralf Dahrendorf.

- Marx and other conflict theorists deem society as basically dynamic and not static. They consider conflict as a normal, not an abnormal process.
- According to the conflict perspective, society is constantly in conflict over resources, and that conflict drives social change.

4. functional theories

- In the middle decades of the 20th century a number of American sociologists shifted their attention from social dynamics to social statics or from social change to social stability.
- Functionalist accept change as a constant which does not need to be explained.
- Changes disrupt the equilibrium of a society, until the change has been integrated into the culture.
- Changes which prove to be useful (functional) are accepted and those which are useless or dysfunctional are rejected.
- The functionalist theory of social change teaches that **society is like a human body**.
- Each part is like an organ. Individual parts can't survive on their own.
- Emile Durkheim, a major leader in the social sciences, believed that all parts of a society must be harmonious.
- Example: the government provides education for the children of the family, which in turn pays taxes on which the state depends to keep itself running.

FACTORS INFLUENCING SOCIAL CHANGE

Geographic factor Biological factor Demographic factor

1. Natural Factors:

A storm, earthquake, flood, drought, disease and similar natural events even today can disrupt the social system. Natural calamities like floods, earthquakes, draughts, famines and other natural disasters always force changes in the social conditions and life of the affected people.



2. Cultural Factors:

- The cultural factors also play a role in bringing about social change.
- Our social life depends upon our beliefs, ideas, values, customs, conventions, institutions and the like. When there is a change in these, it influences the social life.
- For example, let us consider the system of marriage. The relations between the parents and children have undergone a big change. The new love and need for working couples has acted as a source of big change in family relations and culture. Thus, socio-economic and cultural factors always act as big and formidable factors of social change.



3. Science and Technology factors:

- In contemporary times science and technology happens to be the most important factor of social change. New scientific inventions and technologies always greatly influence the social life.
- Technology brings about changes in the physical environment and the material culture of each society which in turn gives birth to social change.



4. Biological Factors:

Biological factors also affect social change. Biological factors are those factors which determine the structure, selection and hereditary qualities of generations. The human element is ever changing. Each new generation is different from previous generation. It is different in form, ideas and in many other ways from the one gone before.

5. Demographic Factors:

- The Demographic factors always influence the process and nature of Social Change. The population increase or decrease always brings social problems. When the birth-rate in a society exceeds death-rate, population begins to rise.
- A constantly rising population gives birth to poverty, unemployment, disease and several other related problems.
- On the other hand, a low birth-rate means leads to decrease in the size of the population. When population is low, there are fewer skilled hands available and the country cannot make full use of the natural resources.
- The social conditions deteriorate the size of families shrink and it affects the social relations



NATURE OF SOCIAL CHANGE

change is always constant

influenced by time

↳ we need tech to survive

MAIN THEORIES

EVOLUTIONARY THEORY

DARWIN → THEORY OF EVOLUTION
↳ we were apes
↳ evolved became humans

CYCLICAL THEORY

↳ social change on basis of growth and decay

Ottoman



CONFLICT THEORY

↳ Social change is power struggle
on basis of inequality, Power struggle

FUNCTIONALIST Theory

↳ change will be constant
so we won't ask if its for power struggle
↳ its constant so no need to argue on it
↳ change is dependent on everything



china 1 child Policy

↳ germinal sociologist

↳ soci

Gemeinschaft to Gesellschaft

community

society

↳ groups imp

↳ self interest

↳ feelings

↳ no feelings

→ PAK moving

FACTORS INFLUENCING SOCIAL CHANGE

NATURAL

earthquake

come through inflation when flood happened

Cultural

↳ rs of Parents and children
↳ now female education pushed

Sciences and Technology

↳ TikTok in covid
↳ ChatGPT

BIOLOGICAL Factors

↳ men have become angrier → hormonal change

Demographic Factors

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY IN SOCIOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

Sociologists are scientists who study human social behaviors. They contribute important knowledge about how people interact at varying social levels, from small groups like family units to major institutions like the government or even entire cultures. However, it's important for sociologists to understand the different research methods used in the social sciences so they can be sure their research produces accurate and meaningful conclusions

STATE WHAT TOPICS ARE VALID FOR SOCIOLOGISTS TO STUDY

Sociologists do research on just about every area of human behavior.

1) **Macro level:** looks at large-scale social processes, such as **social stability** and change, the **laws**, the **military** and the **global economic crisis** (Fligstein and Habinek 2014).

2) **Micro-level sociology** looks at small-scale interactions between individuals, such as **conversation** or **group dynamics**, how people interact on street corners and even shyness (Scott 2006).

Micro- and macro-level studies each have their own benefits and drawbacks. Sociologists study nuns and prostitutes, cops and criminals, as well as all kinds of people in between.

MICROSOCIOLOGY

"Research that deals with "small" social units such as family and couple relationships, small social groups, or the individual." (Mawali & Sueng, 2019)

COMPARISON

Macro-level sociology

Addresses large-scale, national, or global issues

Micro-level sociology

Explores local, interpersonal issues on a smaller scale.

STRENGTHS

Humans live and interact in small groups (family, community, ethnic group, ideological group etc.).

Microsociology helps us analyze these subsets of the population in greater detail.

Understanding the local, personal, and small-scale level affords us a more nuanced understanding of the "big picture".

MACROSOCIOLOGY

Macrosociology is a sub-field of sociology. "Macro" means "large"; thus, the term describes the analysis of large-scale social phenomena.

DEFINITION

"Macrosociology deals with large-scale, long-term social processes, phenomena, and structures, such as **social change**, **stratification**, or the capitalist world economy" (Boatca, 2007).

COMMON CONCERN

- ① Economies
- ② Social change
- ③ Globalized cultures
- ④ Multinational groups
- ⑤ Political organizations
- ⑥ Religions

EXPLAIN WHY COMMON SENSE CAN'T REPLACE SOCIOLOGICAL RESEARCH

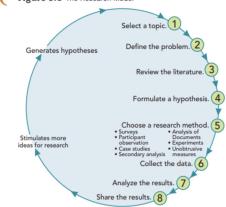
- Common Sense promotes **stereotypical beliefs** but **sociology uses reason and logic**.
- Common sense is based upon **assumptions** while **sociology is based upon evidences**.
- **Empirical testing has no place in common sense knowledge** whereas Sociology pursue research with an empirical orientation.

KNOW THE EIGHT STEPS OF THE RESEARCH MODEL

Scientific research follows eight basic steps.

In the real world of research, some of these steps may run together. Some may even be omitted.

Figure 5.1. The Research Model



1. SELECTING A TOPIC

The first step is to select a topic.

What do you want to know more about?

Many sociologists simply **follow their curiosity**, their drive to learn more about social life.

They become interested in a particular topic, and they pursue it eg: studying the homeless, spouse abuse

Some sociologists choose a topic because **funding is available**, others because they want to **help people better understand** a social problem and perhaps to **help solve it**.

2. DEFINE THE PROBLEM

The second step is to define the problem, to **specify what you want to learn about the topic**.

Example: they examine some **specific aspect of a topic**, such as how homeless people survive on the streets.

In the case of spouse abuse, sociologists may want to know whether violent and nonviolent husbands have different work experiences.

Or they may want to learn what can be done to reduce spouse abuse.

3. REVIEWING THE LITERATURE

You must read what has been published on your topic.

This helps you to narrow the problem, identify areas that are already known, and learn what areas need to be researched.

Reviewing the literature may also help you to pinpoint the questions that you will ask.

You might even find out that what you are interested in **learning has been answered already**.

You don't want to waste your time rediscovering what is already known

4. FORMULATING A HYPOTHESIS

A research hypothesis is a **statement of expectation or prediction that will be tested by research**

A statement of what you expect to find according to predictions from a theory.

A hypothesis predicts a relationship between or among variables, factors that change, or vary, from one person or situation to another.

For example, the statement "Men who are more socially isolated are likelier to abuse their wives than men who are more socially integrated" is a hypothesis.

Your hypothesis will need operational definitions that is, precise ways to measure the variables. In this example, you would need operational definitions for three variables: social isolation, social integration, and spouse abuse.

5. CHOOSING A RESEARCH METHOD

You then need to decide how you are going to collect your data.

Sociologists use **seven basic research methods** (or research designs), which are outlined in the next section. You will want to choose the research method that will best answer your particular questions.

6. COLLECTING THE DATA

When you gather your data, you have to take care to assure their **validity**; that is, your operational definitions must measure what they are intended to measure.

In this case, you must be certain that you really are measuring social isolation, social integration, and spouse abuse and not something else.

Spouse abuse, for example, seems to be obvious. Yet what some people consider abusive is not regarded as abuse by others.

You must also be sure that your data are reliable

Reliability means that if other researchers use your operational definitions, their findings will be consistent with yours.

If your operational definitions are sloppy, husbands who have committed the same act of violence might be included in some research but excluded from other studies.

TWO KEY ELEMENTS TO RESEARCH:

1. Validity addresses whether or not the research measures what it is intended to measure.
2. Reliability is the extent to which research produces consistent or dependable results.

TYPES OF DATA IN SOCIOLOGY RESEARCH

In sociology, researchers often categorize their data into the following four categories:

Primary data: Primary data refers to information collected directly by the researcher themselves. This type of data often comes from surveys, interviews and observational studies.

Secondary data: Secondary data is information gleaned from previous researchers in sociology. This might include data from books, government data or scholarly journals.



Quantitative data: Quantitative data is information in numerical form. Researchers often collect this type of data through **statistical methods, especially surveys**.

Qualitative data: Qualitative data refers to information that is challenging to quantify in numerical terms.

Researchers often derive numerical data from visual and auditory observation such as transcripts of interviews, newspapers and web sites

7. ANALYZING THE RESULTS

You will have been trained in a variety of techniques to analyze your data from those that apply to observations of people in small settings to the analysis of large-scale surveys.

If a hypothesis has been part of your research, now is when you will test it. (Some research, especially participant observation and case studies, has no hypothesis.)

You may know so little about the setting you are going to research that you cannot even specify the variables in advance.

8. SHARING THE RESULTS

To wrap up your research, you will write a report to share your findings with the scientific community.

You will review how you did your research and specify your operational definitions.

You will also compare your findings with published reports on the topic and examine how they support or disagree with theories that others have applied

RESEARCH METHODS

1. **Surveys** are typically **structured questionnaires** designed to collect information from large numbers of people in standardized form.

Eg: A **census** is an example of a survey used by social science researchers. The census requires participants to **self-report** their demographic information, which the government uses to determine government representation and how to distribute federal funds to local communities.

2. In **participant observation**, a type of field research, it's a research method in which the **sociologist** actively participates in the research group and records their observations

Eg: a researcher interested in learning about the study habits of college students might visit a campus coffee shop or library to observe their behavior. They might note the number of students who study in these locations, the time of day most students prefer to study, whether the students prefer to study in groups or alone and how long their study sessions tend to last. To participate more directly, the researcher may ask to join a weekly study group and assess how the students interact in each meeting during the semester.



3. **Secondary analysis**, which is the analysis of data already collected by other researchers, is used when resources are limited and/or existing data may provide excellent sources of information.

However, because the researcher did not directly carry out the research, he or she cannot be sure that the data were systematically gathered, accurately recorded, and biases avoided.

E.g: An example of a secondary analysis may be a researcher conducting a meta-analysis that analyzes every study on the academic achievement of third-grade students in New York City within the last 10 years.

4. **Experiments** are especially useful in determining causal relationships.

An experimental study typically takes place in a controlled environment, such as a laboratory. Since researchers minimize the influence of outside forces within the environment, this research method may help them identify causal relationships between the experimental groups.

Eg: An example of a research experiment in sociology may be a scientist studying how individuals subconsciously change their speech patterns when talking to someone they perceive as an authority figure.

5. **Unobtrusive measures** involve observing social behavior of people who do not know they are being studied. It is simply the methods of studying social behavior without affecting it. a measure obtained without disturbing the participant or alerting him or her that a measurement is being made.

Eg: analyze a painting a written document, photos, films, and things like face book Or a researcher may observe passersby in a public park from a nearby café and document their activities.

SIGNIFICANT OF GENDER IN SOCIOLOGICAL RESEARCH

Gender is in your own life. How it affects our orientations and attitudes. Because gender is so influential, researchers take steps to prevent it from biasing their findings.

For example:

Gender certainly can be an impediment in research. In our imagined research on spouse abuse, for example, could a man even do participant observation of women who have been beaten by their husbands? Technically, the answer is yes. But because the women have been victimized by men, they might be less likely to share their experiences and feelings with men. If so, women would be better suited to conduct this research, more likely to achieve valid results. The supposition that these victims will be more open with women than with men, however, is just that—a supposition. Research alone would verify or refute this assumption.



ETHICS IN SOCIOLOGICAL RESEARCH

In addition to choosing an appropriate research method, Sociologists follow the ethics of sociology.

Research ethics require honesty, truth, and openness, (sharing findings with the scientific community). Ethics clearly forbid the falsification of results, as well as plagiarism (stealing someone else's work)

Another ethical guideline states that, generally, people should be informed that they are being studied and that they never should be harmed by the research.

Sociologists are also required to protect the anonymity of those who provide information. Sometimes people reveal things that are intimate, potentially embarrassing, or otherwise harmful to themselves or others.

Finally, it generally is considered unethical for researchers to misrepresent themselves.

CASE -PROTECTING THE SUBJECTS- MARIO BRAJUHA

Research **Mario Brajuha**, a graduate student at the State University of New York at StonyBrook, was doing participant observation of restaurant workers.

He lost his job as a waiter when the restaurant where he was working burned down—a fire of “suspicious origin,” as the police said.

When detectives learned that Brajuha had taken field notes they asked to see them.

Because he had promised to keep the information confidential, Brajuha refused to hand the mover.

The district attorney then threatened to put Brajuha in jail. By this time, Brajuha’s notes had become rather famous, and unsavory characters—perhaps those who had set the fire—also wanted to know what was in them.



HOW RESEARCH AND THEORY WORK TOGETHER

Research and theory, then, are both essential for sociology. Every theory must be tested, which requires research.

And as sociologists do research, often coming up with surprising findings, those results must be explained; for that, we need theory. As sociologists study social life, then, they combine research and theory.

ishma hafeez
notes
repsheet
hafiz