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Ch. 1: The Sociological Imagination

- Premise of sociology - “who we are” is a result of the social context we live in
 - We cannot understand a person without understanding the society they live in
 - Anti-individualist
 - **Social contexts** - the people/groups around us that influence us
 - Family, neighborhood, community, schools, jobs, orgs, etc.
 - Institutions - very high-level social groups
 - Includes economic systems, political systems, educational systems, healthcare systems, etc.
- **Society** - a group of people who live in the same area and participate in a common culture
 - We learn **social norms** from others throughout our lives through social interactions
 - **Social structure** - stable, enduring patterns of social norms within society that govern social interactions
 - *Social hierarchy* - when power is not distributed equally across members of society (e.g. parents > children, teachers > students)
 - Many forms of social hierarchy are *self-perpetuating*.
- **Sociology** - study of societies and the “social worlds” of individuals
 - Looks for patterns in individual lives to look at the bigger picture
 - Study of how people live *together*, not the study of individuals
- Social network analysis - understanding how people fit into broader social networks
 - **Social network** - who we share social ties with (friends, family, etc.)
 - Social media sites (e.g. Facebook) make previously hidden social networks, explicit and visible
 - The same job-recruiting networking that LinkedIn accomplishes was already taking place before it, through less obvious networks
 - Affects transmission of information, behavior, etc.
- **Sociological imagination** - capacity to think systematically about things we’ve experienced as personal problems

- Ability to understand personal problems as widely shared social issues within our society, rather than merely our “own” problems
 - Requires recognizing that even our own individual lives have been/are being shaped by the society we live in
- Challenges our view of certain things as “normal” or “natural” (e.g. marriage being lifelong between man and woman has not always been the norm)
 - Everyone has a sociological imagination - e.g. it is triggered when we see a widely shared assumption we take for granted as incorrect
 - We can actively engage sociological imagination by thinking critically about “common sense” views
- **Fundamental attribution error** - we overemphasize the role of internal characteristics of others (e.g. personality) in shaping their behavior, rather than considering external factors
 - *Stereotypes* - faulty generalizations about individuals based on what we think we know about the groups they are members of
 - Results from ascribing differences across groups (e.g. races) as inherent characteristics across all members

Ch. 2: Social Theory

- **Social theories** - systematic ideas about the relationship between individuals and societies
 - Used to provide analytical frameworks for understanding the social world (explain how certain aspects of our society came to be)
 - Vary in scope - some are universal about all societies, others more specific
 - Competing theories often exist for the same phenomena
 - Provide guiding methods/approaches to studying societies
- **Three early sociological questions:**
 - ***Individual (Weber)***: What is the nature of an individual? How do they act in the context of society?
 - ***Social order (Durkheim)***: What is the basis for social order? What holds societies together? [e.g. Durkheim]
 - ***Social change (Marx)***: Under what circumstances do societies change?
- Social theory/sociology was first conceived during a period of great change in the 19th/early 20th centuries
 - Industrial Revolution/industrialization, democratization, urbanization, international immigration, secularization, etc.
- Essentialism vs constructivism
 - Essentialism (e.g. studying biological differences) - not sociology
 - Constructivist view - sociology
 - Ex: race is biological (*essentialist*) vs race is a perceived grouping of individuals (*constructivist*)

Karl Marx

- **Karl Marx** (1818 - 1883) proposed a **materialist** explanation
- Society is, at a fundamental level, founded on people coming together to produce the things that people need to live
 - Human relationships resulting from *the economic system* are the defining features of society, determines politics and culture
- All societies produce an **economic surplus** - produce more than needed for the minimum physical needs of its population (hence the accumulation of wealth)
 - Unequal distribution of the economic surplus (wealth) is what results in tensions and conflict between groups
 - **Social classes** - groups of people with a similar set of economic interests
- History divided into three eras based on *modes of production* (economic systems), each with their own class conflict (eventually resulting in revolution)
 - Ancient societies - slavery
 - Feudalism - largely agrarian societies, with a small landowning class
 - Capitalism - economies organized around market-based exchange
 - Individuals now able to buy and sell goods/labor in the market
- Society's modes of production composed of two parts: **forces of production** (technological/productive capacity, increases over time) and **social relations of production** (how people form relationships for the purposes of producing goods)
 - Over time, tension between the two builds, inevitably leading to revolution by the lower class
 - Ancient societies - owners vs slaves
 - Feudalism - nobles vs peasants
- Key class division under capitalism is **bourgeoisie** (capitalists - own/control capital) and **proletariat** (forced to work for them)
 - Capitalism polarizes society into a very small bourgeoisie and a very large working class, eliminating craftsmen/small producers

- Will eventually be overthrown by revolution
- Proletariat revolution will overthrow capitalism and establish **communism** - a system where the workers own the means of production
 - Will occur because capitalists oppressed workers too far, brought them together and made them conscious of themselves as a class
 - Similar to how capitalism resulted from the capitalist class overthrowing feudalism
- **Socialism vs communism:**
 - ***Socialism*** - a precursor to communism, where workers control the government, but capitalism and private property exist (albeit in a limited form)
 - ***Communism*** - a system where workers own the means of production and there are no class divisions, no private property, no government
- Theorized about ***globalization*** - the capitalist system would gradually spread to the rest of the world
- Eventual outcome - a gradual transition to more mixed economics and other factors (e.g. the emergence of the welfare states) may have offset the chance of/forestalled revolution
 - Classes today broadly stratified (e.g. middle class), rather than Marx's binary
 - Failure of socialist countries such as the USSR/China reflect their skipping of the accumulation phase of capitalism
 - Socialism only results at a point when a tremendous amount of productive capacity (and wealth) has already accumulated under capitalism

Emile Durkheim

- **Emile Durkheim** (1858 - 1917) argued for sociology as a science - examining an *objective force* in the world independent of human control
- Believed in the existence of **social facts** - universal rules of everyday life in every society, transcending and exercising control over the individual
 - Arose from human action in the past (e.g. marriage was established at some point, and shaped to its current form as a social fact)
 - Individuals forced to obey social facts to fit into their community
 - e.g. familial/parental obligations
- Human behavior is **learned**, not natural - we are trained from birth to act in accordance with *social norms* via **socialization**
 - Even private/individual events and choices are ultimately influenced by social factors (e.g. religious beliefs, educational level, etc.)
 - Explained suicide, then-unexplained, as a result of social factors (*Suicide*)
- Was interested in **social solidarity** - what holds societies together
 - Argued for two kinds of social solidarity - **mechanical** and **organic**
 - **Mechanical solidarity** - individuals are tied to one another by kinship/tribe membership
 - Practiced by traditional/early societies
 - Had a very simple division of labor (specialization of tasks)
 - Very limited exchange of goods/services
 - **Organic solidarity** - individuals are tied to one another by a complex web of specializations and mutual dependence
 - Practiced by modern societies - generally larger, more diverse
 - Highly complex division of labor, very minute specializations
 - Premodern societies held together by shared worldviews and activities between individuals; modern societies composed of specialized organs/parts that come together to form a whole, a la a living organism

- “Normlessness” - during the transition from traditional to modern societies, there was a transition period where neither form of solidarity existed (no norms)
- Came from a religious background and wrote about religion
 - More interested about the idea of “being sacred” (objects/places/etc. treated with exceptional deference) rather than specific deities
 - Viewed religion as a human creation to bring societies/groups together
 - Provides common set of beliefs + shared activities - social solidarity

Max Weber

- **Max Weber** (1864 - 1920) emphasized the importance of understanding human behavior, particularly how people interpret and give meaning to the world around them
 - Argued for *interpretive sociology* - sociology as an attempt to interpret **social actions**
- **Four types of social action:**
 - **Instrumental rationality** - behavior oriented toward gaining/achieving a specific reward
 - **Value rationality** - behavior guided by a belief in some ultimate value (e.g. being “virtuous”), regardless of reward
 - **Traditional motives** - action guided by a belief in following established traditions
 - **Affectual motives** - action guided by positive/negative emotions
- Believed *capitalistic behavior* was born out of strict Protestantism
 - Protestants believed earthly success was a sign of God’s favor, and thus encouraged working + an ascetic lifestyle
 - Led to accumulation of wealth
 - Created the spirit of capitalism, which eventually secularized and spread
 - Later clarified Protestantism was only one aspect of the cause
 - Protestantism provided the initial motivation (“Protestant ethic”)
 - Capitalism also required a rational state and predictable law
 - Provided assurance that rules would be followed
- Considered how/why people respect hierarchy, follow orders
 - Distinguished between **power** and **authority**
 - **Power** - ability to achieve an objective (e.g. by force), even if someone else wants to prevent it
 - **Authority** - capacity to get people to perform a specific action because they think they should follow the commands of someone “above” them
 - Three forms of *legitimacy* for an authority:
 - **Traditional** - legitimacy stemming from tradition

- **Charismatic** - legitimacy from the perception that a leader has special powers/properties/gifts
 - **Legal-rational** - legitimacy based on explicit rules, e.g. laws/bureaucracy
 - Saw bureaucracy positively - officials were bound by rules
- Defined a broad definition of **status groups**, as people with similar attributes/identities (e.g. religion, ethnicity, race, etc.)
 - Went beyond Marx's solely economic grouping, also noted other causes of conflict (e.g. interracial conflict)
 - Stratification system - inequalities between status groups persist over time, resulting in status group struggles
 - Social closure - when status groups seek to close off others' access to opportunities (overtly a la Jim Crow or subtly, e.g. via discrimination)
- **Georg Simmel** (1858 – 1918) introduced the concept of social networks ("**social circles**")
 - Individuals exist at the intersection of overlapping social circles
 - Societies built upon social circles
 - Creation of modern societies resulted in widening of social circles
 - Social distance – how close individuals within groups are with each other
 - Non-reciprocal [social] ties – self-explanatory
 - Can map social networks, individual "centrality", etc. mathematically
 - Provided foundation for [social] network analysis – study of how individuals are connected + consequences of those connections
- **W. E. B. Du Bois** (1868 – 1963) studied the problem of race/racial inequality in US society
 - Cofounder of NAACP, "unacknowledged founder" of US sociology
 - Argued that racial inequality was manufactured in/by US society
 - Not a result of any inherent biological inequality between the races, as commonly held
 - Theorized that racism prevented blacks from achieving the same things as whites, particularly through lack of access to education

- Conducted interviews with African Americans
- Created theory of “*double consciousness*” – blacks lived two lives: one as a black person and the other as American
 - Resulted from racism, structural constraints, marginalization
 - In their lives as Americans, they saw themselves through whites’ eyes and had to view themselves negatively, resulting in damaged self-images

Ch. 3: Studying the Social World

- **The sociological imagination** – the way we take into account how our own individual lives are affected by social contexts
- Sociological research:
 - Sociology often involves first asking a question, and then finding ways to answer it
 - Operationalize - specifying the techniques used in a study to examine a specific concept/idea/hypothesis
 - Challenge of research – turning a general interest in a topic to a researchable question (sufficiently narrow/focused, feasible, and relevant/new)
 - Need to lead to testable hypotheses
 - Sociological models are often less predictive than hard science models due to the unpredictability of human beings
- Three influences on social research:
 - Values - beliefs shaping a sociologist's views of the world
 - Often influence what research questions a sociologist finds interesting - questions are of personal significance (although some degree of objectivity must still be maintained)
 - Theoretical traditions - past social theories that provide frameworks for studying the social world, e.g. Marx's focus on economic classes
 - Ethics - a sociologist's sense of what's considered moral and acceptable behavior
- Sociological experiments:
 - Independent (i.e. influencing) variables vs dependent (i.e. influenced) variables
 - Quantitative (numbers) vs qualitative (interviews/text/opinions) vs mixed-method (combination) research
 - Cross-sectional (information gathered at a single point in time) vs longitudinal studies (information gathered over a long period of time)
- **Methods of research:**
 - Surveys/polls - provide information about a broader population

- (In-depth) interviews - allow for a deeper dive into how individuals think
- Ethnography - conducting research via direct observation (becoming involved with/close to the subjects)
 - Thick descriptions - rich and detailed descriptions of people's lives, from their own perspectives
 - Also allows for contrasting self-descriptions and actual actions
 - May lack analytical focus, theoretical relevance, or generalizability
- Comparative-historical research: examining a social phenomenon across different times or places to test hypotheses about social/culture/political change
 - Cross-national comparisons - drawing comparisons between countries
- **Sample** - the subjects a researcher has identified and wishes to study
 - **Representative sample** - a sample selected such as to equally sample (or have an equal chance of sampling) all subsets of society
 - **Random sampling** - everyone/everything has an equal chance of being selected for study, and each subject is selected entirely at random
 - **Weighting** - using statistical adjustments to ensure a sample's characteristics truly reflect that of the total population
 - Access - a researcher's ability to obtain the information needed for their study
- Experimental considerations:
 - **Reliability** - whether an additional study with the same measurement technique as the original study, will obtain the same result (is replicable)
 - **Validity** - true accuracy of a researcher's measurement
 - **Social desirability bias** - people tend not to give answers perceived to be undesirable or inappropriate by the interviewer
 - Ex: when asking about racial prejudice, people who are racist may give answers they perceive to be non-racist
 - Applies to both surveys and interviews
- Causation (causal inference) vs correlation

- Causation is extremely difficult to establish in sociology
- **Spurious relationship** - when two factors appear to be moving in the same direction (be correlated), but are instead both influenced by the same external/third factor
- **Data analysis** - looking for patterns within gathered information
 - Data coding - organizing gathered information according to key categories/concepts
 - Data displays - representing numerical data via a more visual representation
 - Research memos - researcher records of the analytical steps taken in an analysis
- **Generalization** - making general claims based off of empirical patterns
 - Empirical generalizability - applying conclusions from a sufficiently representative sample to a comparatively larger population
 - Theoretical generalizability - applying conclusions from a study to sociological theory specifically
- **Standard surveys:**
 - American Community Survey (ACS): administered ongoing, contacts households, fairly broad
 - Current Population Survey (CPS): primary source of employment information (e.g. unemployment data), administered on ongoing basis
 - General Social Survey (GSS): Gathers info on variety of social topics

Ch. 11: Race and Ethnicity

- **Ethnic groups** (per Weber) - human groups that entertain a subjective belief in their common descent
 - Does not require an objective blood relationship - ethnicity is subjective
- Racial identification (i.e. the boundaries between racial groups) is arguably also subjective, based on public perception
 - Different societies have different means of classifying race
 - Social rules differentiating races may have little to do with biological descent
- **Ethnicity vs race:** ethnicity classifies people as being of common descent based on perceived cultural similarities, where race classifies based on innate physical similarities
- Race seen as a **social construct** - a social phenomenon invented by human beings, shaped by social forces present in its creation
 - Evidence - conception of race varies over time and place
 - Whether ethnic minorities (e.g. Italians/the Irish/Jews) are classified as racially “white” has changed over time (historically excluded)
 - Racial classification systems also vary across countries/regions today
 - Brazil - “money whitens”
 - ***Constructivist view of race*** - racial categories are social creations and, as a social creation, can change over time
 - Essentialist view - race is an inherent biological property
 - Race is not, not “real”, but it is not an objective biological property
 - We can spot phenotypic differences between people, but the ways we use them to assign racial groups is purely due to socialization
 - Norwegians and Italians can be physically different, but classified the same
 - Even DNA classification is, to a certain extent, arbitrary
- Two components of racism - **prejudice** vs **discrimination**
 - **Prejudices** - negative beliefs or attitudes held about entire groups

- Involve stereotypes/simplified generalizations about an entire group, applied to individuals
 - Stereotypes will often filter information in ways that preserve expectations/the stereotype (SOCIOLOGY 89)
- **Discrimination** involves actions to harm/disadvantage individuals on the basis of their group membership
- Two types of discrimination - **individual** vs **institutional/structural**
 - **Individual discrimination** - an intentional act of discrimination carried out by an individual or small group
 - **Institutional/structural discrimination** - occurs when the actions/policies of organizations/social institutions exclude/disadvantage/harm members of particular groups (ex: Jim Crow, Apartheid)
 - May or may not be explicitly targeted or even intentional
 - Ex: changes to sentencing guidelines, seemingly independent of race, may disproportionately affect certain demographics due to external demographic factors
- Race and power are related - race-based hierarchies are the deliberate product of human efforts to acquire and preserve social privileges
 - Evidence of racial prejudice - in mass media portrayals of racial groups, minority groups are also presented in negative/demeaning roles
- Studying racial discrimination
 - Residual method - accounting for every possible difference between two groups to conclude discrimination (less rigorous)
 - More rigorous: controlling for race via experimental design (e.g. changing names/indicated on otherwise identical resumes)
- Examples of racial disparities
 - Whites disproportionately believe that African Americans are not discriminated against and that any racial disparities are a result of differences in individual effort

- Whites, historically, were majority against mixed-race neighborhoods, desegregated schools, mixed-race marriages
- African Americans and Hispanics statistically have significantly lower median incomes than Whites
 - The difference is especially large when looking at net worth
- African Americans and especially Hispanics have significantly lower high school and college graduation rates
- African Americans are jailed at higher rates, and for longer sentences, than Whites
 - The difference cannot be explained solely by differences in crime rate, and thus racial disparities are likely involved
- African Americans and Hispanics are more likely to not have health insurance and have worse health outcomes (e.g. HIV rates, rates of infant mortality, heart disease death rates) than Whites
- **Affirmative action** developed as a tool to combat racial inequality
 - Initially used to ensure minority-owned businesses would have an opportunity to compete for government contracts
 - Refers to policies that require organizations/institutions to “actively” consider race, in contrast to the Civil Rights-era ideal of “colorblindness”
- **Changes in race & ethnicity in the 20th/21st centuries**
 - Multiracial identifications & marriages more broadly accepted
 - Multiracial marriage & identification rates increased significantly
 - Census form changed to accommodate multiracial identifications
 - Immigration has significantly reshaped the racial/ethnic makeup of the US
 - Significant increases in Hispanic & Asian proportions, decrease in proportion of whites
- **Hispanic status and race identification currently separate questions on the census form**
 - Hispanic status generally seen as a question of ethnicity, not race

Ch. 12: Gender and Sexuality

- **Gender vs sex:**
 - **Gender** - (refers to) the way social forces structure how individual men and women are treated by society
 - Includes societal expectations, available opportunities, general social treatment, etc.
 - Gender differences in behavior and preferences are not natural - are not caused by any biological differences in hormones, brain structure, etc.
 - Role of hormones in shaping behavior is unclear
 - **Sex** - biological differences
- **Social construction of gender** - the system of social processes that create and sustain gender differences, gender inequality
 - Expectations and behavior toward a person vary depending on their gender
 - **Patriarchy** - gender system where men have more power than women
 - Gender stereotypes may influence/reinforce social expectations
 - Can become self-fulfilling prophecies, i.e. an initially false stereotype can create a social expectation that then causes the stereotype to become true
- Gender is constructed through **socialization** - the means by which members of a society are taught its norms and practices
 - Parents dress boys and girls differently, have different aspirations, give them different toys, decorate their environments differently, etc.
 - Peer groups may also treat non-gender-conforming individuals negatively
 - Mass media portrays men and women in very narrow/rigid gender roles
- Evidence of gender being a social construction:
 - Gender differences vary between different social settings
 - Gender arrangements have changed over time

- **“Gender revolution”** - women’s lives have changed drastically in the past 50 years internationally, e.g. women now work much more than in the past, attain more college degrees than men, etc.
 - **Occupational sex segregation** - the extent to which men and women are employed in different occupations
 - **Index of dissimilarity** - a statistical measure of occupational sex segregation across the labor force (segregation vs integration)
 - More women, especially college-graduated women, have been entering traditionally male occupations in the past 50 years
 - Possible causes for the gender pay gap remaining
 - Employers pay women less for the same job
 - Women may negotiate less strongly due to different social/cultural expectations and norms
 - Women are more likely to have dropped out of the workforce, due to traditionally being expected to take on more childcare responsibilities
 - May have less experience on average
 - Women are concentrated in lower-paying occupations/lower positions
 - Gender typing - certain jobs are associated with certain genders
 - Employers set lower pay rates in largely-female jobs (fields becoming feminized, devalues them)
 - Gender revolution also affected men’s life, albeit minorly
 - Spent more time with children and marginally increased time spent on housework
- Sexual attraction and behavior are also shaped by social forces, not just biological
 - Social norms regulate what is seen as appealing vs unappealing
- **Sexual orientation** - whether individuals are attracted to members of the other sex, the same sex, or both
 - Likely originates from both biological and social factors

- e.g. the children of gay men are disproportionately also gay relative to both fraternal and adoptive siblings (social factors), twins do not necessarily share sexual orientations despite similar genetics
- **Sexual minority** - anyone who is not heterosexual/who is transgender
 - **Heteronormativity** - situation where culture and institutions send the message that everyone is heterosexual/being “normal” means being heterosexual
 - Sexual minorities are disproportionately discriminated against and more likely to commit suicide

Ch. 15: Education

- **Education** serves other purposes beyond simply teaching academics
 - Incorporates individuals into society (teaches appropriate behavior, conflict resolution), sorts people into occupations, increases economic development
 - Formative period of socialization
 - Education has become more and more universal in recent years
 - Has increased significantly in the past 150 years
- **Socialization** - transmitting of a community's culture, habits, attitudes, and social norms between generations via social interaction
 - **Hidden curriculum** - informal/unwritten knowledge or rules taught by education (as opposed to a formal/written curriculum)
 - Moral education - schools teach children ethics and cultural values, be it directly or indirectly
 - Ex: email etiquette
 - Individuals may be socialized differently by different social classes
- Education also prepares students for the job market/future work opportunities
 - **Human capital** - the stock of knowledge, skills, and habits that people can use to do productive labor later in life
 - *Social capital* - the social connections a person has and can leverage to find new opportunities
 - *Cultural capital* - the way a person's cultural background affects their position in society
 - In addition to providing skill/knowledge, education also selects + allocates people to positions on the occupational ladder
 - **Allocation theory** - education also sorts people into certain occupations, based on their credentials
 - Jobs may require certain credentials (e.g. specific degrees or certificates)

- **Credentialism** - credentials are more important than actual knowledge
 - **Soft skills** (non-cognitive traits) - non-academic skills + knowledge that may affect job prospects
 - Students with more interaction with adults (e.g. in smaller private schools) may learn more + place more importance on soft skills
- Education and economic development both propagate the other
 - More education (a more educated workforce) increases productivity level
 - Allows for more efficient + more advanced national industries
 - Greater human capital in a society may make it more attractive for investment
 - Returns on investment for education are lower for higher levels of schooling, more developed countries
- Well-distributed quality education can act as an equalizing force in society
- Children in the US may not have access to the same type, quality of education
 - Children of different social classes have different educational experiences
 - Children at the best schools may be grades ahead of children at the worst schools academically
 - Students from higher social classes get better grades, stay in school for longer, take more advanced classes, attend more private schools
 - More affluent families may have “better” childbearing practices, results in better opportunities for children (concerted cultivation)
 - Family income is more influential than race on educational attainment
 - Aggravates inequality
 - Rich vs poor achievement gap has grown
 - <https://www.nytimes.com/interactive/2016/04/29/upshot/money-race-and-success-how-your-school-district-compares.html>
- Education and life outcomes

- People with more education are more likely to work full-time, less likely to be unemployed, more likely to work higher-status jobs, have a higher income
 - Pay gap between high school and college grads has been increasing, possibly leading to increased inequality
 - Allocation theory - education channels people into different positions/institutions; school system sorts people out, so employers can assess who is likely to be successful (i.e. credentials)
- More educated people have healthier habits, tend to live longer
 - Better working conditions, insurance coverage, access to health information, interaction with doctors
- Education also affects likelihood of marriage, marital happiness, spouse selection, age of having children, likelihood of divorce
 - Educated people are more likely to marry, less likely to divorce
 - Marriage has an associated cost
 - Educated people may marry later - may be “better” at marriage, less likely to get divorced
 - *Educational homogamy* - individuals are more likely to marry others with similar education levels
- **Effects of education**
 - Education results in better labor market outcomes
 - Human capital theory (economics) - education represents an investment in one’s own capital
 - Allocation/”sorting” (sociology) - different educational institutions may produce different outcomes, resulting in the stratification of the labor market based on education
 - Attending better colleges results in better job opportunities
 - Education leads to better health outcomes, increased likelihood of marriage
- Educational attainment is influenced by race, gender, and socioeconomic class

- Racial gaps in educational outcomes largely just reflect differences in socioeconomic status, access to resources, etc. (gaps largely disappear when these variables are controlled for - gaps not due to differences in ability between race)
 - Due to historical inequality - differences in neighborhoods, families, schools, peers, etc.
- Hyper-segregated schools - schools where 90+% of the student body is minority (attended by 40% of blacks/Latinos)
 - Disproportionately contain poor students
- Girls significantly less likely than boys to attend schools in poor, rural, and/or Muslim countries
- Girls and boys have different educational outcomes even in the US, albeit not massively differently (girls are slightly ahead in several categories)
 - Girls and boys notably study different majors - girls make up most of the humanities + certain social sciences (esp. behavioral), boys make up most of the sciences (esp. “harder” sciences/engineering) + certain social sciences
- <https://www.nytimes.com/interactive/2016/04/29/upshot/money-race-and-success-how-your-school-district-compares.html>

Ch. 21: Population

- People have historically feared (albeit incorrectly) that excessive global population growth would lead to problems [ex: Malthus]
- Modern population growth is not equally distributed - some countries have significantly higher rates than others
 - Some countries have fertility rates below *replacement rate*
 - Results in an older population overall
- World population has historically been doubling at increasingly fast rates
 - Industrial/Agricultural Revolutions sped up doubling rate significantly
 - Demographer hypothesis: doubling is slowing down significantly due to worldwide decreases in fertility rates
- **Demographers** - social scientists studying populations/population trends
- **Census** - count of everyone/everything residing in a particular location
 - Can be very costly, but are more precise + accurate than surveys
 - Can be accurate down to very small areas (e.g. a single block)
 - Can be used as a barometer for measuring survey accuracy
 - Helps estimate future social trends, which can affect national/regional economies (e.g. aging population -> lower labor force, larger healthcare costs)
 - Often used for determining political boundaries
- Three phenomena affecting population change: **births** (fertility), **deaths** (mortality), and **migration** (immigration - emigration)
 - Fertility - live births per woman of childbearing age
 - Total fertility rate - the number of children that an average woman has in their lifetime
 - **Replacement rate** - number of children per woman necessary to keep the population stable (approx. 2.1 children/woman)
 - Mortality - death rate
 - Migration - movement in/out of a region or country

- Positive net migration has historically been a driver of population growth in the United States
- Other trends of interest
 - Racial/ethnic composition
 - Marriage and family composition
 - Employment issues
 - Life expectancy
- **First demographic transition** - period of transition in a country/region from a period of high fertility/high mortality to a period of low fertility/low mortality
 - Decreases in fertility have historically lagged decreases in mortality, resulting in bursts of large population growth (“bombs”) before settling at a slower rate
 - Declines in fertility often do not reverse
- Age pyramids - plots of population size for men/women, separated by age groups
 - Countries in first demographic transition (high-fertility countries) usually have pyramid-shaped graphs
 - Countries with lower population growth will have a much less lower-heavy plots
- Many developed countries are currently below replacement rate in fertility
 - May still sustain population growth through immigration and population momentum (a low fertility rate but high relative percentage of individuals at reproductive age will still result in population growth)
- Factors influencing fertility
 - Declines in infant mortality leads to declines in fertility (less children are needed if more children survive)
 - Economic development - educated women are likely to have less children, invest more in each individual child
 - Birth control - growing acceptance of + availability of birth control allows for more control over fertility (less unwanted pregnancies)

- Childrearing - having additional children in an industrialized society may be considered a cost, where having additional children in an agricultural society would have been a net benefit
- Norms and values - new norms and values (e.g. those of the second demographic transition) may result in changes in fertility
 - *Second demographic transition* - increases in divorce, premarital sexual activity, increased cohabitation, and out-of-wedlock childbearing
- **Epidemiology** - study of health-related events in populations
 - **Epidemiological transition** - transition of a population from health conditions primarily involving infectious disease, to health conditions primarily involving chronic disease
 - Decrease in infectious diseases leads to people living longer with chronic diseases, resulting in changing demands on the healthcare system
 - Hispanic paradox - Hispanics have unusually low mortality rates in the US population
- **Cohort** - a group of people born during a certain time period
 - **Baby boom cohort** (baby boomers) - people during during the temporary spike in US fertility after WWII, 1946 - 1964
 - Aging populations may result in increased demands on social security programs
- **Life expectancy** - the average number of years a population at some age can expect to live
 - Typically measured in terms of the expected age of a baby born in a certain year/certain cohort
 - Life expectancy is generally higher for women than men at all ages

Ch. 8: Markets, Organizations, and Work

- Due in part to the rise of consumerism, markets are increasingly becoming parts of every area of our lives
 - Services that previously fell under government are now under private contractors
- **Markets** - places where buyers and sellers exchange goods & services
 - Markets backed by laws/a legal framework to ensure trust in transactions
 - Governments set rules for markets & ensure their function
 - How buyers and sellers discover each other has changed over time
 - Historically based on relationships
 - Not every individual actor is equal in markets
 - Monopoly & monopsony
- **Social networks** - ties between people: family, friends, colleagues, etc.
 - Markets need social ties to establish the trust needed for economic exchange
 - Economic action is built on social interactions
 - Sociological model of markets (social ties and the presence of enduring social factors) vs economic model of markets (purely competitive, with no social influence in the long term)
 - Are also important for spreading information related to markets
 - Connections (e.g. referrals, recommendations) are instrumental for securing jobs
- **Power** influences markets in many ways
- **Organization** - group engaged in a specific activity with an identifiable purpose/goal
 - Must be an enduring association independent of the people involved in it
 - Tend to persist for various reasons, even if the goal changes:
 - People involved have an interest in the organization's survival
 - An organization's brand has value, even for other purposes
 - Try to find **niches** (distinct segments of the market) for their products and services

- Organizations develop **bureaucracies** - rigid structures based on written rules/policies and clearly defined roles
 - Provides strength & stability, but also problems
 - Can stifle individuality, make it difficult for organizations to innovate or adapt to changing circumstances
 - Provides organizational (structural) inertia, which can both help and hinder the organization and its goals
 - Bureaucratic officials may be self-interested - have purposes not aligned with and potentially detrimental to the broader organization
 - Seen as necessary by Weber - bureaucracies needed to handle complexities of modern markets & government
- **Organizational isomorphism** - organizations in the same field tend to become increasingly similar to each other over time (DiMaggio and Powell 1983)
 - Types of isomorphism
 - ***Coercive isomorphism*** - legal requirements may compel many organizations to act one way or another
 - ***Normative isomorphism*** - organizations will try to fit in and avoid standing out negatively amongst other organizations in the field (seem legitimate)
 - ***Mimetic isomorphism*** - when faced with uncertainties, organizations will copy other organizations
- **Industrialization** results in a massively increased division of labor in societies
 - **Labor process** - using upper managers to organize and control jobs
 - Decreases individual power of each worker
 - ***Deskilling*** - the process of making jobs simpler and lower skill, resulting in workers being interchangeable and thus losing leverage
 - Leads to creation of more specialized jobs, requiring specific skills
 - Has resulted in decrease in relatively “good” manufacturing jobs in the US
- Work satisfaction

- Possible criteria: autonomy, status/prestige (of the job), trust (between employer and employee), level of skill and importance of credentials, job security, etc.
- Worker protections often ensured by unions, government laws + regulations
 - **Unions** give workers greater negotiating power, monitor working conditions, and ensure government regulations are followed
 - Government protections of unions may vary
 - **Government regulation**
 - Examples - work hours, overtime pay, conditions for firing, mandatory maternity leave, minimum wage, etc.
 - Strong government regulations may compensate for weak unions
 - May have downsides - reduce employer freedoms, resulting in greater reluctance to hire permanent workers
 - The US is unique in having both weak unions and lax government regulations

Ch. 10: Social Stratification, Inequality, and Poverty

- **Social stratification** - separation of individuals and groups into unequal *strata*
 - Living in poverty can negatively impact children in many ways
- Income in society
 - Median vs mean
 - Income distribution has a long right-handed tail
 - **Lorenz Curve** - curve for what percent of a society's total income is made by the bottom x% of the population [in terms of income] ($x > 100$)
 - Distance between graph vs what percent of a society's total population is made up by the bottom x% [in terms of population] (line $y=kx$) is a measure of inequality
 - A majority of the wealth in society owned by the top 1%
- **Inequality** - unequal distribution of goods and individuals
 - Slavery & feudalism - common forms of inequality before capitalism
- Inequality can be measured based off of income, wealth, and consumption
 - **Income** - receipt of money or goods over a particular accounting period
 - **GINI coefficient** - measure of income inequality in a society
 - **Wealth** - net value of the assets (minus debts) owned by an individual or family
 - Wealth inequality typically larger than income inequality, since wealth (and wealth inequality) accumulates over time
 - **Consumption** - how much individuals/families consume in a given time period
- Industrial Revolution led to rapid economic growth
 - Average income in developed countries has been growing at increasing rates
- Sociologists often study inequality through the lens of **social class** - groups of people (individuals) in similar economic positions
 - Have similar opportunities in life, are affected similarly by government policies
 - *Equality in opportunity* - whether all individuals have the same opportunity to succeed, regardless of socioeconomic background

- Inequality in opportunity results in wasted talents/potential, societal inefficiency
 - As opposed to *equality in outcomes*
- Social classes can be defined based on multiple components (e.g. education, income, occupation)
 - Used to define socioeconomic status (SES)
- Inequality in the US
 - Typically studied via tax returns
 - Ensures the top 1%, which are not likely to be captured in surveys, are still included in the final measure
 - Inequality in the US has been growing faster than in other developed countries
- Inequality across countries has been decreasing globally; inequality within countries, however, has been increasing
- Causes for increases in inequality in industrialized countries
 - Technology displaces workers
 - Creates demand for jobs requiring education (e.g. programmers), contributing to the college *wage premium*
 - Manufacturing has declined, in terms of share of jobs in the labor market
 - Deindustrialization - part of a larger pattern of economic restructuring, where manufacturing jobs have been decreasing
 - Economic restructuring - changes in the way that the economy, firms, and employment relations have changed over time
 - Globalization - manufacturing jobs that previously existed in the US have been replaced by manufacturing in lower-wage countries abroad
 - Government policy - changes in taxation, in spending, and in regulation helping the poor have all increased inequality
 - Progressive tax system - richer people have higher tax rates

- The US tax system has been growing increasingly less progressive over time
- **Social mobility** - socioeconomic movement across generations
 - Measures to what extent the socioeconomic background of the parents determines/is correlated to the outcomes of children
 - Social mobility in a society related to overall level of inequality
 - Factors affecting social mobility:
 - Labor markets - expansion of good jobs results in greater mobility
 - Government policies can create opportunities for mobility, e.g. via encouraging education or regulating labor markets
- **Poverty** - the inability to afford basic needs (e.g. food, clothing, shelter, healthcare)
 - What is considered necessary may change with social/historical context
 - **Absolute poverty** - minimum amount of income necessary for basic needs
 - Relative measures of poverty compares individuals relative to the rest of society
 - e.g. families with incomes 50% below median income
 - Factors affecting poverty in the US - education, employment status, minority status, age, and family structure

Ch. 9: Cities and Communities

- The cities and communities we live in can affect our lives
 - Different aspects of communities (e.g. violence) can alter the experiences and opportunities of individual residents
 - Changes what kinds and qualities of institutions & people are present
- A majority of the world's population lives in urban areas
 - Urban areas defined by population density above a certain threshold in an area (e.g. 1000 persons/mi²)
 - % population of a country in urban areas follows an S-curve
 - Starts low, increases quickly, and then slows
 - Urban population initially increases due to migration; later increases due to reproduction
 - **Megacities** - cities with populations > 10 million
 - **Megaregion** - region where two or more geographically proximate large cities are linked through infrastructure and economic activity
- **Suburbs** - areas within broader metropolitan regions, but outside the political boundaries of the central city
 - Fostered by subsidies for home ownership, highway construction
 - Growth of suburbs was historically driven by “white flight” - movement of white families out of central cities and into suburbs, in response to the influx of African Americans and other racial/ethnic groups to cities
 - Federal government subsidized white flight - marked homes in white neighborhoods as safe loans, homes in black neighborhoods are risky/ineligible (redlining - outlined black neighborhoods in red)
 - Suburban sprawl - stretching-out of suburban boundaries around a city
 - Edge cities - concentrated business/shopping/entertainment areas outside of the historical urban centers of commerce

- Are not quite major cities, but have a significant amount of economic activity occurring (e.g. Irvine, Pasadena)
- Theory of **neighborhood patterns** - segments of a city's population sort themselves into areas of the city in which they thrive, forming the neighborhoods that shape the city
 - Said population segments sort themselves based on best fit and compete for resources (best locations)
 - Early model - concentric model of cities (Ernest Burgess)
 - Advocated for by the Chicago School
- Theory - cities are "**growth machines**": investors and governments work to increase the size of the population, make it attractive for businesses (to increase tax base)
 - Governments must regulate use of land for different purposes
 - Urban change are results of deliberate political/economic interests, not natural ecological growth
- **Gentrification** - process whereby new investment/people/establishments move into and alter the character of existing neighborhoods
 - Richer demographics entering an area increases the attractiveness of and thus property values/rent in an area, prices out/displaces former (less affluent) residents over time
 - Difficult to measure/classify gentrification quantitatively
- **Social isolation** - lack of interpersonal contact, decline in civic life - perceived by some as having grown in society
 - Robert Putnam - US residents spending less time in social groups, with family
 - Louis Wirth - city dwellers have more superficial interactions
 - Jane Jacobs - vibrant urban environments encourage social interaction
 - Claude Fisher - urban environments simply changed the nature of interaction, from broadly local to mainly occurring in subcultures/subcommunities
 - Georg Simmel - urban environments have more social isolation, but may also provide freedom from social controls

- Seen as having a possible negative effect on **social cohesion**
 - More socially cohesive/connected neighborhoods can better enforce social norms of behavior, have less crime
- **Community** - the degree to which individuals connect with, support, and interact with each other
 - May have nebulous boundaries, especially with the rise of social media
 - **Social ties** - connections between individuals
 - Due to the Internet, social ties need not be contained geographically
- **Social capital** - the resources available to individuals through their relationships/networks
- **Urban renewal** - policies involving the redevelopment of slum housing
 - Often led to the displacement of the poor (primarily African Americans), huge developer profits
 - Furthered consolidation of African Americans in certain neighborhoods (racial segregation)
- **Urban ghetto** - sections of cities that are characterized by severe racial/ethnic segregation, deep poverty
- **Great Migration** - historical migration of African Americans from the rural South to industrial cities in the Northeast/Midwest from the early 1900s to the 1970s
 - Was motivated by declining agricultural opportunities, discrimination and inequality under Jim Crow, growing demand for industrial workers in the North
 - Was met by informal efforts to maintain a “color line” in the North
 - Modern reverse migration - some African Americans are moving back today
- William Julius Wilson explaining concentration of poverty in African American urban neighborhoods:
 - Manufacturing jobs disappearing in the North left African Americans without a source of stable working-class jobs
 - Joblessness resulted in fewer “marriageable” black men able to support families, resulting in more single-parent families

- Middle class blacks moved out of traditional black ghettos, resulting in a greater concentration of poverty + institutional deterioration
- Immigrants have played a role in revitalizing some urban neighborhoods, increasing population and business activity
 - **Segmented assimilation** - some immigrants/children of immigrants may experience upward/downward trajectories in socioeconomic outcomes
- **Ethnic enclaves** - large stable sections of cities where the local labor market, residential market, and culture are dominated by a specific ethnic group
 - Have debatably positive/negative effects on their communities
- **Global city** - urban centers containing the headquarters of transnational firms (that create and control the international flow of information/commerce)
 - Globalization has been seen as leading to an increasing divide between the global elite in global cities (controlling international commerce) and the global service class (catering to the elite)

SOCIOL 89 (Misc)

- **Week 1: College students**
 - Recent study - college students are studying less and learning less skills in critical thinking, reasoning now compared to 40 years ago
- **Ch. 3: Approaches to demonstrating discrimination, especially racial discrimination**
 - **Residual method** - taking a survey result and controlling for all external factors, and then looking for any remaining discrepancies between races (residuals)
 - Shortcomings - impossible to control for everything
 - **Decomposition** - breaking down differences between races, and then seeing how much can be attributed to external factors vs race
 - **Audit study/field experiment** - self-explanatory
 - “Gold standard” for proving discrimination
 - Often relies on matching candidates on all observable characteristics (sans race) - resumes, verbal skills, social skills, age, height, attractiveness, etc.
- **Ch. 11: Racial discrimination in hiring**
 - Discrimination can vary across different types of jobs, e.g. service jobs often discriminate more heavily against minorities
 - **Race-typing of jobs** - some jobs are associated with specific races
- **Ch. 11: Study results (Pager Western Bonikowski 2009):**
 - White people are significantly more likely to get callbacks/positive responses than black people
 - Latinos have (in some studies) a statistically significant advantage in terms of positive callbacks relative to black people
 - White people and Latinos do not have statistically significant differences in positive response rate
 - A white felon will have a similar ratio of positive responses to non-felon black people and Latinos
 - Three types of discrimination:

- **Categorical exclusion** - outright rejecting based on race
- **Shifting standards** - holding certain races to standards, that other races are not held to (e.g. requiring experience for black people, but waiving the requirement for white people)
- **Channeling** - offering different jobs (e.g. cashier -> stocker) based on race or racial typings
- **Ch. 12: Gender differences in career choices**
 - Two types of explanations:
 - **Demand-side:** employers prefer men over women for some jobs
 - **Supply-side:** men and women prefer different jobs
 - If supply side effects exist, gender segregation will persist even if employer gender discrimination is eliminated
 - **Status characteristic theory** - people are differentiated by status characteristic if there is a widely held cultural belief attaching greater competence to one category than another (e.g. men are better at math)
 - Can be self-fulfilling: higher status individuals are given more opportunities + evaluated better, lower status are scrutinized more
 - **Stereotype threat theory** - negative stereotypes cause anxiety for individuals, which may interfere with performance
 - Studies
 - Male high school students rated their own math skills higher than female students, even after controlling for grades + test scores
 - Affected class/major choices
 - Survey setup - respondents may or may not have been aware of prevalent stereotypes (i.e. that math is associated with masculinity)
 - Experiment - performance + self-confidence is evaluated between two groups: one told that men were better at math, one not told (priming)

- Male performance + self-assessment significantly increased when told about male advantage
 - Female performance + self-assessment decreased after being told
 - Male/female advantage and self-assessment roughly equal in control group
- **Ch. 21: Migration**
 - Standard theories of migration (both internal & abroad)
 - Neoclassical economic theory
 - Micro - incentive to migrate when expected earnings abroad > expected earnings domestically
 - Macro - capital is not optimally distributed throughout the world, migration is the redistribution of capital toward such an optimal distribution
 - New economics of migration - households choose to migrate
 - Segmented labor market theory - primary labor market ("good jobs") vs secondary labor market ("bad jobs")
 - Secondary labor market is labor-heavy, in-demand at different places around the world
 - World systems theory - penetration of capitalist markets into new territories displaces existing people
 - Social capital - immigration influenced by social networks
 - Cumulative causation theory - migration leads to more migrants
 - E.g. an initial migrant sparks members of their family/community to later migrate
 - A migrant sending remittances can significantly & visibly elevate their family's financial status, motivating others in their community to also migrate (e.g. Latin America)
 - Migration and climate change

- Climate change is predicted to be the largest driver of migration in the long-term future, but current estimates of climate change-driven migration are made by climate specialists without a detailed understanding of the mechanics of migration
- **Internal migration** - in many developing countries, as agricultural productivity increases, people in rural areas unable to sustain an agricultural lifestyle may start to migrate internally toward urban areas (e.g. Mexico)
- **The Internet** has resulted in various effects on immigration
 - Exposure to foreign content may motivate migration, especially for youth
 - Results in pressure on host countries to accept immigrants
 - Social media has presented a means for global events to be shared, public opinion to shift, etc.
 - Digital technology has allowed for greatly increased interconnectivity between immigrants and their families
- **Ch. 9: School districts**
 - Theory: School districts - being assigned by one's neighborhood - organize stratification along spatial lines
 - Potential limitations:
 - People are not spatially sorted at random; people live in different places depending on their background
 - People who value education higher may live in better school districts, providing a spurious correlation between neighborhood and socioeconomic outcomes