



**Faculty of Political Science
and International Relations
Department of International Relations
University of Algiers 3**

Lectures in Introduction to Sociology

**A pedagogical Publication Designed for First year Students of Bachelor's
degree Common Trunk.**

Name: DJENDI SARRA

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OBJECTIVES:

The purpose of these lectures is to introduce students to sociology as a discipline that explores the social behavior interactions and structures of human societies. It aims to analyze how individuals and groups are impacted by cultural, social class, gender and racial influences. Additionally, the lectures aim to familiarize students with sociology as a subfield of political science by covering key topics such as basic concepts, research methods, theories and historical evolution. This will enable students to engage in discussions about current political issues.

Moreover, is to provide students with a foundational understanding of sociology. By studying the lecture notes, it is believed that students will gain an understanding and appreciation for the fundamental issues, principles and approaches of sociology. Additionally, students may indirectly benefit by gaining an appreciation for the social, cultural and behavioural aspects of society. The main objective of the introduction to sociology course is to familiarize students with the basic ideas, issues, concepts, and principles of sociology. Students will be able to explain the meaning, scope, methods, history and importance of sociology as well as its connections to other disciplines. Furthermore, students will develop an appreciation for the relevance of sociology in their personal and future professional lives. Lastly, a brief discussion on the survey of social problems in contemporary society will help students understand the nature, causes and types of these issues.

By the end of these lectures students will have the ability to:

- Provide a definition for Sociology.
- Explore the origins and evolution of sociology.
- Clarify the meaning of sociology.
- Explain the subject matter, scope, and fundamental interests of sociology.
- Comprehend the emergence and growth of sociology.
- Familiarize one -self with the methods and approaches used in sociology.
- Recognize and value the diverse perspectives and concepts introduced by the pioneers of sociology.

Introduction:

Sociology is a key discipline within the social sciences it focuses on the study of society and human social relationships. It emerged as an academic field in the early 19th century, with a primary focus on analyzing the problems and structures of modern, industrialized societies in the Western world. The term "sociology" itself refers to the science of society, highlighting its role in understanding societal phenomena.

The study of sociology is organized into four main chapters. The first chapter covers introductory topics such as definitions, theories, history and research methods. The second chapter explores the relationship between sociology and other disciplines and key concepts like society and culture .While the fourth chapter deals with Political Sociology as studying sociology provides individuals with a sociological imagination, allowing them to better understand the various forces and factors that shape their lives. It also offers practical benefits and contributes to solutions for contemporary societal issues. Research is a crucial aspect of sociology with the discipline utilizing the scientific method to generate and disseminate knowledge on society and social phenomena.

CHAPTER ONE: Sociology - A Brief Overview:

Sociology has held a significant position in the field of sociology studies since its inception. Researchers have extensively examined this science and its role in regulating societal behaviours. Sociology is classified as one of the sciences alongside economics, history, and psychology. It focuses on studying the social life of humans, including groups and communities as well as social interactions. The discipline emerged in the early 19th century as an academic response to the challenges posed by modernity. As the world became more interconnected, individuals started to experience increased isolation. Sociology is a scientific study that explores the movements and interactions of humans within social groups and entities.

1. Definition of sociology:

Sociology is the study of society and culture originating from the contributions of founding fathers in the field. Coined by French social scientist **Auguste Comte** the term "sociology" combines the Latin word "**socius**" meaning society or association with the Greek word "**logos**" meaning study or science. While there is no single standard definition of sociology. It is generally understood as the study of society and its various aspects.

August Comte, a French social scientist who lived from 1798-1857 was the first to use the term sociology. He coined the term by combining the Latin word **socius** meaning society or companionship with the Greek word **logos** meaning to speak about. He emphasized that the study of society must be scientific and he urged sociologists to use systematic observation, experimentation and comparative historical analysis as their methods. In deed he went so far as to construct a “hierarchy of the science, with sociology as the “queen” science. Although this hierarchy allowed Comte to assert the importance of his new science and to separate it from social philosophy. This led to the understanding of sociology as the study or science of society. While there is no single standard definition of sociology, different scholars have defined it in various ways.

- **Kingsley Davis:** “Sociology is the general science of society”.
- **Herbert Spencer:** “Sociology is the science of social phenomenon subject to natural and invariable (constant) laws, the discovery of which is the object of investigation”.
- **Emile Durkheim:** Sociology is the science of social institution.

- **Max Weber:** ‘Sociology is the science which attempts the interpretive understanding of social action.’
- **W. F. Ogburn:** ‘Sociology is a body of learning about society. It is a description of ways to make society better. It is social ethics, a social philosophy. Generally, however, it is defined as a science of society.’¹

A more formal definition of sociology may be that it is a social science which studies the processes and patterns of human individual and group interaction, the forms of organization of social groups, the relationship among them and group influences on individual behavior and vice versa, besides the interaction between one social group and the other. Sociology is the scientific study of society, which is interested in the study of social relationship between people in group context. Sociology is interested in how we as human beings interact with each other. That includes the laws and principles which govern social relationship and interactions. The emergence of modern states and their independence led to the emergence of philosophers and thinkers who dealt with the state and its relationship with its subjects, society and its activity and development.

2. History and scope of sociology:

Sociology is a social science that focuses on studying human societies, their interactions and the processes that shape and transform them. It examines various components of societies such as institutions, communities, populations, and different social groups based on factors like gender, race, or age. Sociology also delves into topics like social status, social movements and societal changes, as well as issues like crime, deviance, and revolution. Social life plays a significant role in influencing human behavior with individuals relying on social institutions and organizations to guide their decisions and actions. Just as we must seek an understanding of our private experiences and the historical times in which we live, so we must locate the origins of sociology in the social milieu of the period in which it developed². The roots of sociology can be traced back to ancient Greek and Roman philosophers, but it emerged as an academic discipline in the 19th century in Great Britain, France, and Germany. The development of sociology was influenced by major societal changes like the Industrial Revolution, the French Political Revolution, and advancements in natural sciences and technology. Sociology is often considered the science of modern society due to its origins in the midst of significant socio-political, economic, and technological transformations in the Western world. The

¹ GRAIG CALHOUM, **DICTIONARY OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCE, Sociology**. NEW YORK:OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS. 2002.

² JAMES W.VANDER ZANDEN,**SOCIOLOGY THE COPE**.THIRD ADITION. The Ohio State University, United States of America.1993.p08.

pioneering sociologists were very much concerned about the great changes that were taking place and they felt that the exciting sciences could not help understand, explain, analyze and interpret the fundamental laws that govern the social phenomena. Thus sociology was born out of these revolutionary contexts and changes that occurred during this period, people became more open-minded and started to live a good life with several options. All these changes were an important turning point for that period, leading to an economic and technological boom also helping people to learn to live in societies.

3. The founders or the pioneering sociologists:

Some of the pioneering founders of sociology include August Comte

3.1 Auguste Comte:

Auguste Comte, a French philosopher born in 1798 and died in 1857. He introduced key concepts such as social static and social dynamic. Another famous founder is Karl Marx, a German philosopher born in 1818 and died in 1883. He is known for his key concepts of class conflict, alienation, and historical materialism. Emile Durkheim, a French sociologist born in 1858 and died in 1917, introduced the key concept of social fact. Max Weber, a German sociologist born in 1864 and died in 1920, focused on the key concept of social action and subjective meanings. Herbert Spencer, a British sociologist born in 1820 and died in 1903, is associated with the key concept of social Darwinism. Lastly, Harriet Martineau, a British sociologist born in 1802 and died in 1876, was an active advocate for the abolition of slavery and gender issues.

Auguste Comte is considered as the founder of positivism and the field of sociology. He made significant contributions to our understanding of society and its dynamics as both a student and researcher in the social sciences. Comte published several books in the 1830s and 1842, with the most important being "Cours de Philosophie Positive," released in multiple volumes between 1830 and 1842. In this work, he outlined his positivist philosophy, aiming to establish a new scientific theory for studying human society and the natural world by developing a scientific method and identifying regularities underlying social behavior.

Living during the aftermath of the French Revolutionary and Napoleonic periods, Comte witnessed the emergence of a new, stable social order. The societies of Europe were undergoing transformation due to modern science technology and the Industrial Revolution, which were not yet fully understood. People experienced violent conflict and felt uncertain in their thoughts, feelings, and actions, lacking confidence in established beliefs and sentiments. Comte believed that sociology is defined as the scientific study of social dynamics and

social static could and should follow the pattern and procedures of natural science in studying society and social phenomena. He argued that a theoretical science of society and systematic investigation of human behavior were necessary for societal improvement. Comte believed that this new science of society could contribute critically to creating a new and better human society. Comte divided the study of society into social static and social dynamics.

Social statics: Involves those aspects of social life that have to do with order and stability and that allow societies to hold together and endure.

Social dynamics: Refers to those aspects of social life that have to do with social change and that pattern institutional development¹. As the changing, progressing, and developmental dimensions of society, while social static referred to the social order and elements of society and social phenomena that tend to persist and remain relatively permanent, resisting change.

3.2. Karl Marks:

Karl Marx, born in 1818 and passing away in 1883, dedicated much of his life to analyzing the impact of the industrial revolution on nineteenth-century society. Despite coming from a comfortable middle-class background, Marx pursued studies in economics and philosophy at the University of Berlin before working as a newspaper editor. Eventually, he left Germany for France. In 1848, Marx published the "Communist Manifesto" advocating for a society where the means of production would be owned by the people eliminating social classes. Throughout his career, Marx produced several significant sociological works, including "The German Ideology" (1845), "The Poverty of Philosophy" (1847) "The Eighteenth Brumaire of Louis Bonaparte" (1852) and "Capital" (1894). His contributions to sociology introduced key concepts such as social class, conflict, oppression and alienation. He viewed science not only as a vehicle for understanding society but also as a tool for transforming it. Marx was especially anxious to change the structure of capitalist institutions and to establish new institutions in the service of humanity². Marx believed that economic forces were crucial in understanding society and social change, emphasizing the history of class conflict. He focused his search on the economic environments in which societies develop particularly the current state of their technology and their methods of organizing production such as hunting and gathering agriculture or industry³. He believed that society is divided into classes. He advocated for a classless society where individuals would work based on their abilities and received according to their needs, aiming to eliminate exploitation and

¹ JAMES W.VANDER ZANDEN. opcit, p09.

² JAMES W.VANDER ZANDEN.opcit.p10.

³ JAMES W.VANDER ZANDEN. ibid.

oppression. Marx's social conflict theory remains a major perspective in sociology.

The concept of sociology according to Karl Marks:

Sociology focuses on a set of ideas that emphasize the economic construction of society and analyze the relationship between the ideological superstructure and the real basis of society, such as the mode of production, social relations, social Torah, and social change.

3.3. Herbert Spencer:

Herbert Spencer was born on April 27, 1820 in Derby, England, to a middle-class family. His father, William George Spencer, was a headmaster, and the family embraced individualism as passionate nonconformists. Spencer was educated at home by his uncle and father, developing a curiosity for studying moths and butterflies, as well as a talent for physics and mathematics. His uncle Thomas Spencer, who shared the same worldview as his father, taught him Latin, mathematics, physics, free trade, and libertarian political theory. Despite attending a few small private schools briefly, Spencer received his finest mathematical instruction at home. Although he did not have a formal education in natural sciences, literature or history. He produced significant works on sociology, biology and psychology. Spencer was a prominent social philosopher of the 19th century known for his organic analogy of human society viewing it as a system with its own structure and functioning similar to a biological system¹. His ideas on the evolution of human society from "barbarism" to "civilized" according to fixed laws, known as "Social Darwinism," applied evolutionary theories to explain social phenomena.

3.4. EMILE DURKHEIM:

Laid down some of the fundamental principles, methods, concepts and theories of sociology; He defined sociology as the study of social facts. According to him, there are social facts, which are distinct from biological and psychological facts. By social facts, he meant the patterns of behavior that characterize a social group in a given society. They should be studied objectively. The job of a sociologist, therefore, is to uncover social facts and then to explain them using other social facts. Some regard Durkheim as the first sociologist to apply statistical methods to the study of social phenomena.

¹ JAMES W.VANDER ZANDEN.opcit.p11.

Durkheim's framework is centered on the concept of moral regulation, which pertains to the methods used to align individual behavior with societal standards. The term "solidarity" denotes the factors that foster social cohesion. He introduced the distinction between "mechanical solidarity" seen in societies with low division of labor and "organic solidarity," prevalent in modern societies with high levels of specialization. Drawing from evolutionary biology. Durkheim emphasized the role of the external environment in shaping society. Both the production process and cultural system evolve in alignment with the natural environment. Internal adaptations are thus contingent upon the constraints imposed by the external elements of the system. Durkheim encapsulated this idea with the well-known saying: "Social phenomena can only be explained by other social phenomena, and individual phenomena can only be explained by other individual phenomena. It is through the externally existing social realm that the internally existing mental world is shaped."¹

Emile Durkheim and His Significance in Sociology:

Emile Durkheim is a French sociologist and philosopher who is considered the father of the French school of sociology. He was born on April 15, 1858 in a town named Epinal in northeastern France. He belonged to a religious French Jewish family with generations of rabbis, and Durkheim was also expected to become one. Though he was enrolled in a rabbinical school, he quit and decided to study religion from an agnostic point of view. A bright student like him eventually entered the prestigious École Normale Supérieure in Paris. Emile Durkheim was the most influential scholar in the academic and theoretical development of sociology.

There are two key aspects to this concept: one pertains to aesthetics as it emphasizes the mimetic nature of social phenomena with "mimetic" denoting qualities that imitate nature. The other aspect is epistemological as it posits that thought does not possess predefined categories but rather adjusts to the social cultural, moral and aesthetic attributes of the surrounding environment. An analogous term to the idea of internal regulation is the German term "kulturtechnik" which suggests that culture is utilized to achieve complete control over environmental conditions. Within Durkheim's framework, cultural systems, production processes or technologies serve as internal regulatory mechanisms that ensure the generation of values, norms and moral constraints

¹ S. Mueller, A., Abrutyn, S. Pescosolido, B., and Diefendorf, S. **The Social Roots of Suicide: Theorizing How the External Social World Matters to Suicide and Suicide Prevention.** Published in 2021. ncbi.nlm.nih.gov.

essential for fostering social cohesion. These systems and techniques evolve and adapt in response to necessary requirements. Durkheim proposes the incorporation of an evaluation system within the production process to gauge the degree to which moral duties are fulfilled such as by comparing individual contributions to society against social benefits. He observes the presence of "crises" in all economic societies as societies progress through stages necessitating the adoption of new politico-judicial frameworks to replace outdated structures. The transitions from one established form of law to another, such as the leap from tribal to civil law in a nomadic society during early stages of segmentation can occur frequently. Conversely, shifts in production resulting from technological and industrial changes may only provoke crises infrequently. Durkheim stresses that societal systems can only adapt at specific rhythms that are dictated by the constraints encountered within the existing production process within both the physical and social environments where historical individuals reside. He laments that the transition between periods of equilibrium is inevitably fraught with numerous disruptions, significant obstacles and persistent conflicts instead of being smooth, voluntary or peaceful¹.

3.5. Max Weber (1864-1920):

Max Weber, a German sociologist, philosopher and political economist is widely recognized as one of the founding figures of modern sociology. He made significant contributions to social theory cultural sociology and the sociology of religion. Weber's notable works include "The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism" (1905) where he argued that the Protestant work ethic played a crucial role in the emergence of modern capitalism. His comprehensive study of economic and social organization "Economy and Society" (1922) and his development of a typology of social action and identification of key features of bureaucracy in "The Theory of Social and Economic Organization" (1925) are also highly regarded. Weber's theories have greatly influenced the field of sociology and continue to be subjects of study and debate in academic and intellectual circles. While Weber acknowledged the significance of Karl Marx's work for political economists of his time, he believed that historical materialism, particularly the Marxist version, was one-sided. As a complement to this perspective. Weber wrote essays on the sociology of religion, offering a specific bias in his approach to religious phenomena.

¹ Roulleau Berger, L. "**The fabric of Post Western sociology: ecologies of knowledge beyond the “East” and the “West”.**" Published online on Apr 19. 2021. ncbi.nlm.nih.gov

He was less interested in the content of beliefs and dogmas than in the impact of religion on economic life. Weber argues that we cannot understand human behavior by just looking at statistics. Every activity and behavior of people needs to be interpreted. He argued that a sociologist must aim at what are called subjective meanings, the ways in which people interpret their own behavior or the meanings people attach their own behavior¹ .

4. The Scope and Concerns of Sociology:

The scope of sociology is extremely wide ranging, from the analysis of passing encounter between individuals on the street up to the investigation of global social processes .The discipline covers an extremely broad range that includes every aspect of social human.

Conditions, all types of human relationships and forms of social behavior . Sociologists are primarily interested in human beings as they appear in social interaction and the effects of this interaction on human behavior. Such interaction can range from the first physical contacts of the new born baby with its mother to a philosophical discussion at an international conference, from a casual passing on the street to the most intimate of human relationships². Sociologists are interested to know what processes lead to these interactions, what exactly occurs when they take place and what their short run and long run consequences are the major systems or units of interaction that interest sociologists are social groups such as the family or peer groups; social relationships, such as social roles and dyadic relationships and social organizations such as governments, corporations and school systems to such territorial organizations as communities and schools. Sociologists are keen to understand, explain and analyze the effect of social world, social environment and social interaction on our behavior moreover, the worldviews, lifestyle, personality, attitudes, and decision as creative, rational and intelligent members of society and how we as such create the social reality.

The systemic approach in sociology focuses on analyzing macro-social processes. The Sociology of Knowledge Approach is a research program within the sociology of knowledge tradition that examines discursive practices. Furthermore, social surveys are commonly used in sociology research to gather data from participants. Overall, sociology employs diverse methodological approaches to investigate and analyze social structures, interactions, and cultural phenomena.

¹ James.w.v.**Ibid.** page

² **World Book Encyclopedia**, 1994. Vol. 18, PP. 564 567.

Different levels of sociological analysis and various fields of specialization within the discipline of sociology:

There are generally two levels of analysis in sociology which may also be regarded as branches of sociology: micro-sociology and macro- sociology. Micro-sociology is interested in small- scale level of the structure and functioning of human social groups; whereas macro-sociology studies the large-scale aspects of society.

Macro-sociology focuses on the broad features of society. The goal of macro-sociology is to examine the large-scale social phenomena that determine how social groups are organized and positioned within the social structure. Micro-sociological level of analysis focuses on social interaction¹. It analyzes interpersonal relationships, and on what people do and how they behave when they interact. This level of analysis is usually employed by symbolic interactionist perspective .Some writers also add a third level of analysis called

Meso-level analysis, which analyzes human social phenomena in between the micro- and macro-levels².

Reflecting their particular academic interest sociologists may prefer one form of analysis to the other, but all levels of analysis are useful and necessary for a fuller understanding of social life in society. Within these general frameworks, sociology may be divided into specific sub-fields on the basis of certain criteria. The most important fields of sociology can be grouped into six areas³.

- The Field of Social and Theory of Social Order: focuses on institutions and groups, their formation and change, manner of functioning, relation to individuals and to each other.
- Social Control: Focuses on the ways in which members of a society influence one another so as to maintain social order.
- Social Change: Focuses on the way society and institutions change over time through technical inventions, cultural diffusion and cultural conflict, and social movements, among others.

¹ Jones, Bussel. A. **Research Methods in the Social and Behavioral Science**. Second Edition Massachusetts .1995.p85.

² Jones, Bussel **.Ibid.**

³ World Book Encyclopedia. **Opcit** ,pp. 564 568.

- Social Processes: Focuses on the pattern in which social change takes place and the modes of such processes.
- Social Groups: The focus is on the formation, structure, functioning and evolution of social groups.
- Social Problems: Focuses on the social conditions which cause difficulties for a large number of persons and which the society is seeking to eliminate. Some of the problems may include: juvenile delinquency, crime, chronic alcoholism, suicide, narcotics addiction, racial prejudice, ethnic conflict, war, industrial conflict, slum, areas, urban poverty, prostitution, child abuse, problem of older persons, marital conflicts, etc. Currently, sociology has got quite several specific sub- divisions or fields of specialization in it: some of these include the following: criminology, demography, human ecology, political, sociology, medical sociology, sociology of the family, sociology of sports, sociology of development social psychology, socio- linguistics, sociology of education; sociology of religion, sociology of knowledge; sociology of art; sociology of science and technology, sociology of law, urban sociology, rural sociology; economic sociology and industrial sociology.

CHAPTER TWO: Major Theoretical Perspectives in Sociology.

Introduction:

In the field of sociology numerous noteworthy theoretical perspectives exist. Sociology as science employs perspectives or theories to understand, explain, analyze and interpret social phenomena. To interpret social facts they must be subjected to a theoretical framework. A theory may be defined as a general statement about how some parts of the world fit together and how they work as a set of interconnected hypotheses that offer general explanations for natural or social phenomena. It should also be noted that the terms “perspectives” and “schools of thought” are often used interchangeably with the term “theory”.

1. There are three major theoretical perspectives in sociology that have provided an overall framework for sociological studies:

This is one of the dominant theories both in anthropology and sociology. It is sometimes called functionalism. The theory tries to explain how the relationships among the parts of society are created and how these parts are functional (meaning having beneficial consequences to the individual and the society) and dysfunctional (meaning having negative consequences). It focuses on consensus, social order, structure and function in society. The structural-functional theory sees society as a complex system whose parts work together to promote solidarity and stability; it states that our social lives are guided by social structure, which are relatively stable patterns of social behavior ¹. Social structure is understood in terms of social functions, which are consequences for the operations of society. All social structure contributes to the operation of society. The major terms and concepts developed by anthropologists and sociologists in this theory include: order, structure, function and equilibrium. Those hold this view ask such questions as: what hold society together? What keeps it steady? The Structural- functionalist theory pays considerable attention to the persistence of shared ideas in society. The functional aspect in the structural-functional theory stresses the role played by each component part in the social system, whereas the structural perspective suggests an image of society where individuals are constrained by the social forces, social backgrounds and by group memberships. Many of the great early founding sociologists such as Auguste Comte, Emile Durkheim and Herbert Spencer and later American sociologists like Talbot Parsons and

¹ JONES.BUSSELL.A..RESEARCH METHOD IN SOCIAL AND BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES.SECOND EDITION.MASSACHUSETTES, 1995.

Robert K Merton. Structural -functionalist theorists in modern sociology are more likely to follow in the tradition of the writings of particularly Emile Durkheim, who is regarded as the pioneering proponent of this perspective¹ .

After dominating sociology and anthropology for a long time, this theory was challenged by its main critics, notably those who proposed the social – conflict theory (see below). The theory was attacked for its emphasis on stability and order while neglecting conflict and changes which so vital in any society.

1.2. The Social Conflict Theory:

This theory is also called Marxism; to indicate that the main impetus to the theory derives from the writings of Karl Marx This theory sees society in a framework of class conflicts and focuses on the struggle for scarce resources by different groups in a given society. It asks such questions as what pulls society apart. How does society change? The theory holds that the most important aspect of social order is the domination of some group by others, that actual or potential conflicts are always present in society. The writings of Karl Marx are generally in the spirit of conflict theory, and Marxism influences most of conflict theorists in modern sociology. The theory is useful in explaining how the dominant groups use their power to exploit the less powerful groups in society. Key concepts developed in this perspective include: conflict, complementation, struggle, power, inequality and exploitation. Although this theory gained fame in recent decades, it came under sharp criticism, for its overemphasis on inequality and division, for neglecting the fact of how herded values and interdependence generate unity among members of society; it is also criticized for its explicit political goals. Another critique which equally applies also to structural functionalism is that it sees society in very broad terms, neglecting micro-level social realities².

1.3. Symbolic Interactionism:

This theory was advanced by such American sociologists as Charles Horton Cooley (1864-1929) William I Thomas (1863-1947) and George Herbert Mead (1863-1931) in early 20th century. This perspective views symbols as the basis of social life. Symbols are things to which we attach meanings. The theory stresses the analysis of how our behaviors depend on how we define others and ourselves. According to symbolic interactions, the essence of social life and social reality is the active human being trying to make sense of social situations. In short, this theory calls attention to the detailed, person-oriented processes that

¹ JONES.BUSSELL.A. **ibid**.

² James.w.V.Ibid. **opcit**,p 22.

take place within the larger units of social life. As indicated above there are contemporary sociological theories that have emerged in recent decades that have heavily influenced sociological and anthropological thinking?

Feminism: is a hypothesis that focuses on the minimized status and double-dealing of ladies in a general public overwhelmed by man centric society. Women's activist social science explicitly analyzes the special difficulties, for example, mistreatment and double-dealing that ladies face in the public eye.

This hypothesis goes from liberal women's liberation, which perceives disparities however accepts that change can occur without an essential rebuilding of the social framework to revolutionary woman's rights which advocates the key requirement for cultural change.

1.4. The Social Exchange Theory:

Emphasizes on the importance of the costs and benefits individuals gain from social interactions including material possessions, wealth and social status. It is rooted in the belief that people always strive to maximize their personal gains, but this can only be achieved through an exchange process with others. The Public Choice Theory asserts that collective entities, like political parties, act in a rational manner to maximize their own advantages. It suggests that resolving individual differences is most effectively done through collective participation within organizations. The state plays a crucial role in mediating conflicts and balancing the interests of larger groups.

1.5. The Rational Choice Theory:

This theory is based on the assumption that individuals will act rationally and strive to maximize their own benefits in the decisions they make in life. Structuralism, on the other hand, challenges the idea of humans being active participants, as human consciousness is no longer considered the foundation of meaning in language. Unlike traditional theories, structuralism rejects the existence of objective social facts and views society as a subjective, internal construct. It defines social reality based on the connections between events rather than on tangible objects and social facts. Its basic principle is that the observable is meaningful only in so far as it can be related to an underlying structure or order. The equivalent of structuralism in anthropology advanced by its famous French structuralist anthropologist, Claude Levi-Strauss, states that “the origin of universal principles that order the ways in which we behave and think about the world is to be found in the structure of human thought.”The problem with this theory is that they view societies as static and do not help very

much in explaining variation among societies. The theory treats culture as a given order and fails to explain the adaptive dimensions of culture. Post-Structuralism and Post-modernism:

Post –structuralism: focuses on the power of language in constructing knowledge and identity. The writers in this field have emphasized the role of language in human life, how language dictates the thoughts we have, and how it constructs meanings for us. Post-

structuralists argue that humans cannot arrive anything they can confidently call the (universal) truth. There is no link between the words (language) ideas, and the real world. It denies the sociological idea that our concepts have some relationship to the real world. It is not possible to arrive at a sociological truth, and such attempts are dangerous.

Post-modernism: The basis of post-modernism was post-structuralism. Post-modernism is defined as a cultural and aesthetic phenomenon which mainly rejects order and progress, objective and universal truth; and supports the need for recognizing and tolerating different forms of reality. It tends to celebrate chaos and disorder, diversity and fragmentation in the modern global society rather than wanting to achieve order. This theory maintains that there is no ultimate reason in human life and existence Postmodernists argue “Power has become decentralized and fragmented in contemporary societies.

The theorists of post- structuralism share a lot with post-modernists A note on applying sociological theories to health, culture and society may be important here. Each of the above sociological theories may have its own views on medicine and society. I would just focus on the three major theories:

- **Structural functionalism:** the version of this theory as applied to medicine and society may be termed as the “medical ecological approach. The functionalist theory views medicine and the systems of health care as important social institutions and it focuses on the functions and roles played by the institution in maintaining order and stability in society. The medical institutions whether scientific or traditional and the various practitioners exist to meet the needs of individuals and society.
- **Symbolic integrationist theory:** This theory as applied to medicine and society may be termed as the cultural interpretations approach. This approach focuses on the social and cultural constructions of health.
- **Conflict theory:** The equivalent of this theory in medical sociology and anthropology may be termed as “the critical” or “radical political

economy” approach. It is an approach which stresses on the socio-economic inequality in power and wealth which in turn significantly affects the health status and access to health care facilities. Individuals, groups, communities and even nations thus tend to have unbalanced share of health resources and these often leads to the unequal distribution of morbidity and mortality patterns among a given society. Those in power and dominance enjoy better health and the marginalized groups suffer from the burden of diseases. Generally, learning sociology provides us with what sociologists call the sociological imagination. Sociological imagination is a particular way of looking at the world around us through sociological lenses. It is a way of looking at our experiences in light of what is going on in the social world around us. This helps us to appreciate the social and non-biological forces that affect, influence and shape our lives as individuals, groups and communities .Sociological imagination helps us look beyond individual psychology to the many and varied facets of social and cultural forces, and "the recurring patterns in peoples' attitudes and actions, and how these patterns vary across time, cultures and social groups. Learning sociology helps us understand how social forces influence our goals, attitudes, behavior, and personality. We become more sensitive towards the social issues. Furthermore, learning sociology helps to cast aside our own biased assumptions, stereotypes and ethno-centric thinking and practices to become more critical, broad-minded and respectful in our interpersonal and inter- group relationships. By learning sociology, we can be more humane and people – centered also we will give high value to human dignity.

In general, sociology increases our self-knowledge. Learning sociology can provide us with self- enlightenment. When we learn sociology we gain more knowledge about the conditions of our own lives and about the way our society and social system function.

As such knowledge increases, we can be more empowered to influence the direction of forces and circumstances that affect our lives. We can also be more responsive to the various policies set by governments and can suggest our own policy initiatives and alternatives In addition to the aforementioned theoretical benefits.

Sociology offers practical advantages through applied sociology which involves using sociological knowledge, principles, methods, concepts and theories to address modern social issues and challenges.

Sociology plays practical roles to tackle social pathologies. Sociological knowledge is highly applicable in dealing with today's most crucial social problems, and in promoting developmental activities in socioeconomic areas.

2. Methodological Approaches in Sociology:

2.1. The Scientific Method Inductive vs. Deductive Approaches:

Sociology is a science. It is concerned with systematically observing and classifying facts and establishing verifiable laws. It is like any other science employs scientific method which is the source for scientific knowledge. The scientific method is a logical system used to evaluate data derived from systematic observation. The scientific method as a precise way of designing and conducting research consists of the following basic steps: Establishing a hypothesis, a general statement based on observed facts determining ways to test the hypothesis, incorporating them in research design testing the hypothesis through research and further observation. Sociology as a science employs the two very important approaches in research design and in the overall research framework: inductive methods and deductive method. Inductive method is a method by which the scientist first makes observation and collects data, on the basis of which he or she formulates hypothesis and theories .The researcher tries to build theories from particular observations and instances. Induction moves from the particular to the general where as deduction moves from the general to the particular. In deductive approach, the researcher attempts to derive specific assertions and claims from a general theoretical principle.

In short, deductive approach in research goes from general theory to particular claims As a science, the primary aim of sociology is doing research to produce, accumulate and disseminate scientific knowledge on society and social phenomena. However, there are some people who question the scientific status of sociology and other social sciences.

It is generally accepted that sociology is a science in the sense that its primary aim is doing scientific research to promote scientific knowledge.

Research approaches in sociology include quantitative and qualitative methods, each reflecting different philosophical assumptions and world views. Every analysis of society is mostly based on the data and sometimes constructed from the data. It may not be out of space to account sociology as a natural science with its own logic and methodology. Segmentary societies have traditionally studied it self through three different paths.

In this various ways, society is studied by experiencing the phenomena in three steps; observation, inference and experimentation. When the observation comes to a scientific approach, it is called research. For this naturalistic laboratories/field experiments on the study of society is carried out is called sociological research.

Sociology is an empirical science and grows on the studies, observation, data, and their analysis to answer questions. Methodology is the most important tool for a sociologist to perform his/her research. It tells how to derive reliable and valid inferences. In fact, the scientific value of any kind of action research, investigation, study, observation or experiment is judged on the basis of its methodological features

Human science ought to utilize the logical strategies. The logical strategy is characterized as a technique for noticing the world fundamentally, experimentally and judiciously to gather and examine information efficiently to show up at logical information. 1.3.2. Steps in Humanistic Exploration For the most part, there are around seven moves toward doing an examination. These means are not, nonetheless, average to humanism alone. It ought to likewise be noticed that these means are not fixed ones. A few stages may not really be continued in some exploration projects. They steps may not really be placed in successive request.

2.2. Identification of Research Problems:

The most vital phase in doing humanistic exploration is to come up with an exploration issue. Recognizable proof of examination issue essentially includes picking an exploration theme. The ways and habits where specialists recognize an examination issue and pick a point change as per different factors. The examination interests of sociologists are many times set off by their own background and perceptions.

The initial ideas for research thus may occur at any time and place for a researcher, Reading through newspapers, watching television etc may suggest a topic of research for an observing and curious person .Once a research topic comes to our mind we should ask the following questions:

- Is it researchable?
 - Is it sociologically/ socially significant?
 - What is new about it?
 - What gap will it fill?
 - Is it manageable in terms of time, money, expertise and other resources?
- In other words, do you have the needed resources to do the research?

If you answer these and other related questions adequately then you are on the right track to conduct the research.

2.3. Hypothesis Formulation:

Is a statement that can be proved to be correct or incorrect. Hypothesis formulation involves identifying basic research objectives and determining research questions. This should be tested empirically.

We put some guiding assumptions to the research in this step. We ask some basic research questions. However, we may note that this may not be always the case. The type of research may determine whether hypothesizing is needed or not. For example, in exploratory studies hypothesizing may not be needed.

2.4. Selections and Designing of Methods of Data Collection:

The researcher determines data collection methods and prepares data collection instruments. He/she chooses from among the different data collection methods. There are generally two categories of methods:

2.5. Quantitative methods and qualitative methods:

Quantitative methods: focus on measuring quantity of information: terms such as prevalence, scope, percentage, frequency, magnitude, etc are very important. On the other hand, **Qualitative methods** focus: on depth and quality of information. The complex, detailed and sensitive aspects; belief, attitudinal and knowledge dimensions etc are usually studied by qualitative methods. Qualitative studies can support trial design and improve our understanding of the effects of complex interventions and the mechanisms through which changes occur, qualitative studies remain relatively uncommon alongside trials of complex interventions ¹

Conducting Data Gathering Activity this is the step in which the researcher engages

In collecting the needed data by using the various methods and instruments. The researcher goes to the field and collects the data. He/ she trains data collectors, supervises the overall data collection process and soon.

¹ Lewin, S. Glenton, C. and D Oxman, A. Use of qualitative methods alongside randomised controlled trials of complex healthcare interventions: methodological study. 2009. ncbi.nlm.nih.gov

The subsequent portions will reference various segments of the code. The manner in which we approach these epistemological and methodological inquiries is growing in significance. It is common to lack a perfect technique for data development. Each methodology comes with its own set of rigor. Moreover, each approach can lead to errors, overlook crucial relationships or introduce unintended biases. As a result, sociologists have begun to explore mixed methodologies where different strategies complement and verify one another. These strategies may encompass surveys, case studies, experiments, ethnographies and action research. It is evident that the culture, data and network of the scientific community play a significant role in the entire process of producing scientific knowledge, spanning from research design to result dissemination. Sociological research suggests that the attitudes and actions of scientists including those related to the dissemination of scientific information and the interactions between scientists and the public, are heavily influenced by institutional requirements and circumstances which often conflict with the principles and practices associated with the scientific ethos. There is no flawless method available that could shield research from notions of efficiency and effectiveness originating outside the discipline. Nevertheless, newer generations are being instructed to situate their work within this broader framework aiming to guide their decisions towards ethical and responsible dimensions. ¹

Information gathered along these lines might be of two kinds: essential and auxiliary information. **Essential information** are first hand and unique data. The specialist firsthand gathers them. They are gathered by the social science themselves during their own examination utilizing research devices for example, analyze, study, poll, meetings and perception. Then again, **auxiliary information** are those which are now gathered by another person tracked down in different sources as reports or files. They include: official statistical documents, mass media sources such as electronic media – radio, television, films, etc; and print media such as newspapers, magazines, journals, posters, brochures, leaflets and sign boards.

2.6. Some of the methods of data collection in sociology include:

Surveys: One of the dominant quantitative techniques is the survey method which involves sampling, impersonal data collections and sophisticated statistical analysis of all the social sciences research techniques. Survey research probably seems to be the most visible and pervasive form research in the social

¹ Hultin, M., Jonsson, K., Härgestam, M., Lindkvist, M., and Brulin, C. **Reliability of instruments that measure situation awareness, team performance and task performance in a simulation setting with medical students**. 2019. ncbi.nlm.nih.gov

and behavioral sciences (Jones, 1995). . In survey research, people who provide information are termed as respondents unlike in anthropology where we call them informants. These respondents are often selected on random sample basis, wherein all members of a population have equal chances of being included in the study population There are three types of survey research: cross sectional survey which aims to find out what opinions research participants across sections of society have about a certain phenomena at a given point of time his survey represents fixed reflections of one moment in time. Longitudinal survey is conducted on the same type of people over long period of time as long as sometimes 20 to 30 years. This type provides us with a moving picture of the changes over time in a given area.

2.7. The third type is called :

Panel surveys which are alternative versions of longitudinal surveys. It usually lasts shorter period of time and asks questions of panel members on a frequent basis. A panel member may be asked question every month for a couple of years while in longitudinal survey, people are asked often once a year. Traditionally, the survey techniques has been considered the domain of disciplines such as sociology, psychology, political science and economics which often work mainly in large complex and populous

Societies, unlike anthropologists which have traditionally worked among small-scale societies. Experimentation: This quantitative method is sometimes used in sociology. Sociologists conduct experimental studies, following the procedures and principles of experimentation. This is done usually to explore cause and effect relationship between one and the other social phenomena. What causes what? What is the effect of one social phenomenon on the other?

Key Informant Interview: This is a qualitative method in which a knowledgeable person in study site or community is contacted and interviewed by the researcher or data collector. Questions for the interview session may be prepared in advance, or sometimes only guiding themes are prepared for the session. This method is similar with in-depth interview in that in most cases one individual person is contacted and interviewed at a time.

Focus Group Discussion: This is a form of qualitative data collection method in which intends to make use of the explicit interaction dynamic among group members which may yield important information on certain topic. This qualitative method of data collection has becomes popular particularly in the recent decades; it is highly being used by researchers from crosscutting fields such as public health, anthropology, and other behavioral sciences disciplines.

Case Study: This method involves investigating a certain issue as a case taking longer time and investigating the phenomenon in depth. A case study may be about an individual person, a social group, a family, or an organization. The case chosen is regarded as a representative of the wider group or context from which it is derived. This method may involve elements of both quantitative and qualitative aspects.

Observation: This qualitative method involves collecting data on social phenomena by carefully observing the social processes, events, activities, behaviors, actions, etc. Every significant occasion, activities, places, objects and so forth should be noticed and recorded. One of the critical systems in these procedures is called member perception, the dynamic association in local area life while concentrating on it. The scientist partakes in a variation of this strategy is non-member perception - gathering information without taking part in what the witnesses or the subjects do. Subtle Measures: The vast majority of the examination procedures are prominent, meaning the information are assembled while the review subjects' ways of behaving activities are straightforwardly noticed, and they realize that they are being researched.

To avoid the risks of the examination act interfering with the subject of concentrate consequently influencing the research discoveries, sociologists have created what is called inconspicuous measures. At the point when a specialist goes to subtle lengths, individuals' way of behaving is seen while they don't know about it. Information Association, Examination, Translation, and Report Composing are the most difficult undertaking is the means by which to make due, handle, store and orchestrate the crude information as carefully as conceivable. Information might get lost, in the event that not dealt with well. The specialist here cautiously stores the information, oversees them, sorts out and methodically organizes. After the information are placed into a PC for simple handling, organization and examination, the specialist deciphers the information and reviews the discoveries. The speculations are tried, correlations are made with comparative sorts of investigations directed somewhere else or done previously, ends are drawn and proposals are made, contingent upon the kind of exploration, for example, essential or applied.

Dissemination of Research Findings: This is the final step in which the researcher shares the findings with all concerned bodies. Dissemination of the research findings is possible via scientific journals, seminars, symposiums, conferences and other forums.

CHAPTER THREE: The relationship between Sociology and other scientific disciplines:

Introduction:

Sociology occupies an important position among the disciplines it is usually called the social sciences. These include sociology, anthropology, psychology, economics, political science, history and human geography. These disciplines are sometimes also referred to as behavioral sciences as they study the principles governing human social behavior.

What is the connection between sociology and other sciences? What are the commonalities and distinctions? These inquiries hold significance. Sociology shares similarities with all other sciences as it utilizes scientific methods and its primary objective is to generate scientific knowledge. Sociology is linked to other social and behavioral sciences as they all explore society, human culture, and social phenomena to some extent, aiming to uncover the governing laws of the social universe.

Nevertheless, sociology sets itself apart from other social sciences through its distinct focus of study, unique approach to studying phenomena and its specific methodology.

1. Sociology and Anthropology:

The closest discipline to sociology is social anthropology. The two share concepts theories and methods have similar historical background. However, they are different in that sociology is primarily interested in the problems of modern society whereas anthropology is primarily interested in the problem of traditional non-western society. It should be noted here that this conventional distinction between the two is now disappearing. Further, sociology focuses mainly on quantitative techniques where as anthropology on qualitative research techniques. Perhaps, the methods of research are more important in differentiating the two. Anthropology's heavy focus on qualitative method and sociology's on quantification are still persistent natures of the two disciplines¹.

Additionally, it is important to note that sociology has a narrower scope compared to anthropology which consists of four subfields. Anthropologists typically spend longer periods of time in the field, while sociologists tend to prefer shorter stays and ranging from weeks to a few months.

¹ Scupin, Raymond and Christopher R.Decorse. Antropology a Global Prespective .Englewood Cliffs. New Jersy.1995.

Sociology examines anthropology by exploring the history of mankind their cultures and civilizations from ancient times. It also delves into the study of primitive societies using artifacts and tools left behind by past civilizations to understand their way of life, social structures and relationships.

The different between sociology and anthropological sociology can be traced back to their respective histories. Social Anthropology being much older emerged during the fifth and sixteenth centuries AD when explorers began discovering new lands and continents. The term "Anthropologist" refers to the study of Anthropology, and James Fraser was the first to define this field. Initially, anthropologists focused on studying the social life of Primitive Man. However, it is argued that anthropology has since evolved to encompass rural and urban studies, bringing it closer to sociology.

2. The relationship of sociology to economics:

The relationship between sociology and economics is mutually beneficial. Sociology benefits from the findings of economic research on social phenomena while economics benefits from sociological research on economic phenomena. For instance, a sociologist studying unemployment requires empirical data on the unemployment rate and its potential changes based on economic development. On the other hand an economist studying unemployment utilizes sociological literature to understand the social consequences of unemployment, such as increased crime rates, riots, and the potential for civil disobedience that can negatively impact economic institutions and production costs.

3. The relationship of sociology to political science:

The relationship between sociology and political science is both interchangeable and reliable. In terms of interchangeability, both disciplines benefit from each other's research findings. Sociology examines a society governed by political authority which holds significant influence over it. Political science, on the other hand, studies the political authority that governs society. By understanding this knowledge provided by sociology, political science is able to enhance its understanding and analysis of political authority.

In terms of reliability, political science relies on the theories of sociology to analyze various topics and issues. It also utilizes sociological theories to develop its theoretical framework and analytical models. This reliance on sociology strengthens the reliability and depth of political science as a discipline.

4. The relationship of sociology to social psychology:

Social psychology is one of the branches of general psychology where social psychology is interested in studying the smaller units so that the analysis comes out more accurate and social psychologists are interested in the influence of the collective on the individual .The relationship lies in the fact that sociology is interested in studying the general structure of social organizations in terms of their form, general structure, the constituent elements of these organizations, the size of the group and its cohesion whereas social psychology studies understanding within these communities and how the individual becomes a social identical.

5. The relationship of sociology to History:

The study of history involves examining the past and how it influences the present and future. In sociology ,history plays a crucial role as social researchers record past events in society. Historical sociology focuses on studying social phenomena and occurrences that have spanned over fifty years.

However, there are those who say that history differs from sociology in that it studies past historical incidents that cannot be repeated or occur again in any way, while sociology studies fixed facts and relative theories related to the past, present and future times .in addition, history is interested in finding, explaining and analyzing a particular historical fact, incident or figure. The meeting Studies a set of factors and general detailed facts that help to deduce the provisions and laws that explain phenomena and social relations in a full and rational explanation.

Studying sociology grants us the sociological imagination, a enlightening perspective to comprehend the influences and elements that impact our lives on personal, collective, communal and national levels. Sociology offers numerous practical advantages and plays a significant role in addressing present-day societal issues. Sociology places great importance on research. Despite some questioning its scientific nature, it employs the scientific method to generate, preserve and distribute scientific knowledge about society and social phenomena. A typical sociological research entails seven crucial steps, each of which must be meticulously adhered to in order to conduct research of a high standard and quality.

Sociology is not isolated; it is interconnected with other sciences. Its subject matter overlaps with other social and behavioral sciences like anthropology, social psychology, political science, economics and human geography.

The closest discipline to sociology is social anthropology, they share similar historical development, concepts, theories, and approaches; although the former focuses on modern societies and quantitative research and the latter focuses on traditional societies and qualitative research techniques.

6. The Significance of Learning Sociology:

Generally, learning sociology provides us with what sociologists call the sociological imagination. Sociological imagination is a particular way of looking at the world around us through sociological lenses. It is a way of looking at our experiences in light of what is going on in the social world around us. This helps us to appreciate the social and non-biological forces that affect, influence and shape our lives as individuals, groups, and communities¹.

Studying sociology enables us to comprehend the impact of social forces on our goals, attitudes, behavior and personality. It enhances our awareness of social issues and challenges us to overcome biased assumptions, stereotypes and ethnocentric thinking. Through sociology, we develop a critical, open-minded, and respectful approach to interpersonal and intergroup relationships. This discipline encourages us to prioritize human dignity and fosters a more compassionate and people-centered perspective. Overall, sociology contributes to our self-awareness and personal growth .

7. Sociologists classify societies into various categories:

Depending on certain criteria. One such criterion is level of economic and technological development attained by countries. Thus, the countries of the world are classified as First World, Second World and Third World; First World Countries are those which are highly industrially advanced and economically rich, such as the USA, Japan, Britain, France, Italy, Germany and Canada and so on. The Second World Countries are also industrially advanced but not as much as the first category. The Third World societies are thus which are least developed or in the process of developing. Some writers add a fourth category, namely, Fourth World countries. These countries may be regarded as the "poorest of the poor".

Another important criterion for classifying societies may be that which takes into account temporal succession and the major source of economic organization .As societies modernize; they undergo a transformation from one form to another. The most basic type of society that exists today, and is considered the oldest, is the hunting and gathering society. This society relies on

¹ Scupin, Raymond and Christopher R. Decorse. Antropology a Global Prespective. ibid.

hunting and gathering for sustenance. The next types of societies are pastoral and horticultural societies. Pastoral societies derive their livelihood from the pasturing of animals like cattle, camels, sheep, and goats. This type of society was studied by Medieval times in Islamic history, is a century full of thinkers and thoughts in various fields One of the thinkers at that time was Ibn Khaldun, an Islamic thinker who was a genius and famous in modern intellectual circles. In Ibn Khaldun's works, his mastery of various scientific disciplines such as history. Sociology and politics, can be seen so that it is not surprising that Ibn Khaldun is categorized as a historian, sociologist, and political expert. In fact, many people say that Ibn Khaldun is the most important and most respected creature in the universe. Ibn Khaldun played a significant role in the discussion of global civilization, particularly within the Muslim community. When presenting his political ideas, Ibn Khaldun took into account the realities he observed and experienced. While he recognized that the development of communities, states and civilizations was not solely dependent on religion. His Muslim background greatly influenced his perspective on matters concerning God, humanity and society. IN fact, he was known as a pioneering scientist who treated history as a science.

Agricultural societies, the third type, are still prevalent in many parts of the world and rely on large-scale farming with the use of ploughs and animal labor. The Industrial Revolution in 18th century Great Britain led to the development of the fourth type of society known as an Industrial Society, where goods are produced by machines using fuel rather than animal or human labor. Sociologists have also identified a fifth type of society on the rise, known as a post-industrial society. This society is built upon information, services, and advanced technology, rather than relying on raw materials and manufacturing. The countries that have transitioned from highly industrialized to post-industrial include the USA, Canada, Japan and Western Europe.

8. Society and Human Behavior:

We have been able to explore what was meant by society and saw that in one sense society is made up of its constituent parts, but what we now explore is the effect which society as a whole has on those parts: how society influences the behavior of social units and individual people.

We have discussed how each social unit and each person has functions to perform and roles to play and how does it as a social unit achieves its role of promoting and facilitating smooth traffic system in the country?

9. Basic Features of a Society:

Society generally comprises of a moderately enormous gathering. Subsequently, in a vital sense society can be viewed as the biggest and most complex gathering concentrated by sociologists.

Second, as the above definition shows the main thing for a general public is that its individuals share a typical and particular culture. This recognizes them from other populace gatherings.

Third, society likewise has specific restricted spaces and domains. Subsequently, the populace bunches that make up a specific culture might be situated in a specific topographical region. Individuals consider this region their own.

Fourth, individuals who comprehend personality and having a place. There is likewise a feeling of solidarity.

This deficiency of character emerges from the regular examples of social association that exist among individuals and the different gatherings that make up society. Individuals from a general public are expected to have a typical beginning and a typical verifiable encounter. They feel that they also have a typical predetermination.

Fifth, members of a society may speak a common mother tongue or a significant language that may serve as a national heritage.

A society is autonomous and independent in the sense that it possesses all of the necessary social structures and organizational systems to maintain the system. However societies are not islands in the sense that they are interrelated. There have always been inter-societal interactions people communicate socially, economically and politically.

10. The Concept of Socialization:

Definition: In any society there are socially recognized ways in which the norms and values of the society are inculcated in the human infant who comes into this world as a biological organism with animalistic needs or impulses. Individuals learn group-defined ways of acting and behaving, and what they socially learn becomes part of their personality. Socialization is a process of making somebody social and fully human. Or more appropriately, it is a process whereby individual persons learn and are trained in the

basic norms, values, beliefs, skills, attitudes, way of doing and acting as appropriate to a specific social group or society. Socialization may be formal or

informal. It becomes formal when it is conducted by formally organized social groups and institutions. Like: schools, religious centers, mass media universities, work places, military training centers and internships. It is informal when it is carried out through the informal social interactions and relationships at micro-levels, at interpersonal and small social group levels. The most important socialization for us is that we get through informal agents like family, parents, neighborhood and peer group influences. It has a very powerful influence, whether negative or positive in our lives.

11. The Objectives of Socialization:

To inculcate basic disciplines by restraining a child or even an adult from immediate gratification. Despite the inculcation of values and norms is significant in the process of social integration, we need to also note that social values are not equally absorbed by members of a society or group. The integrative function of socialization is also not equally beneficial to all people.

11.1. Social Contact Needs:

Humans need sustained social contacts. Studies conducted on primates and human infants revealed that lack of body stimulation and contact in infancy appear to inhibit and prevent the development of higher learning functions. Satisfaction of the social contact and initiations needs in humans is a strong biological imperative.

11.2. Patterns of Socialization:

There are two broadly classified patterns of socialization. These are: Repressive and participatory socialization. Repressive socialization is oriented towards gaining obedience, while participatory socialization is oriented towards gaining the participation of the child. Punishment of wrong behavior and rewarding and reinforcing good behavior are involved in the two kinds of socialization, respectively.

12. Major Types of Socialization:

There are different types of socialization; the major ones include: primary or childhood socialization, secondary or adulthood socialization, de-socialization and re- socialization. Other minor types of socialization include: anticipatory socialization and reverse socialization. Socialization is a lifelong, never ending process whereby individuals are trained and fitted into the normal functioning of their societies and groups. Only human beings are biologically capable for socialization. Thus, biological bases that make socialization in humans possible include: absence of instincts, social contact needs and capacity

to learn prolonged childhood dependence and language. Researchers of socialization have identified the mechanisms by which socialization takes place. These are called modes of social learning. They include: classical and operant conditioning; identity taking; modeling-after and problem solving. The patterns of socialization vary from society to society. Mainly there are two broad patterns of socialization which are: Repressive Socialization which focuses on punishment and Reward Mechanism that emphasizing on the obedience of children; and participatory socialization, which focuses on participating children by stressing child-centered socialization.

13. Social Groups:

13.1. Definition of a Social Group:

The term group has a special meaning in sociology because it represents a concept that is central to any sociological analysis. Quite several definitions have been given to the term group by different sociologists. Generally, a social group is defined as the collectivity or set of people who involve in more or less permanent or enduring social interactions and relationships. Members of a social group have common basis for interaction and shared characteristics, a feeling of identity or belongingness, shared psychology or consciousness and a definite set of norms to govern the behaviors of the individual participant in the group.

13.2. Basic Features of a Social Group:

In their sociological analysis of the group behavior of human society, sociologists have identified some essential elements of a social group. For a set or collectivity of people to be a social group, it has to have the following essential traits or features:

1. Members of the group continue to interact with one another.
2. Membership requires living by norms that are special to the group.
3. Members view each other as part of the group members feel some sense of identification with the group and with one another; and there is a social boundary between members and non-members¹.
4. Members are functionally integrated through role and status relationship in the group structure.

¹ SAMUEL KOENIG, RED. HOPPER, FELIKS GROSS. SOCIOLOGY. A BOOK OF READING... PRENTICE HALL. NEW YORK...1953. p411.

14. The difference between Social Interaction and Social Relationship:

sociologists study social structures and the function of social events and processes. This involves studying social interaction and relationships at broader macro and micro levels. Social interaction and relationship may be studied as they occur between the whole societies linked in the world system down to those between two individuals. Individuals are the main components of society they make up the building blocks as in a very important sense society is the product of the actions of individuals.

Social relationship refers: to any routinized, enduring patterns of social interactions between individuals in society under the limits and influences of the social structure. The term "social relationship" elicits two important questions: between whom does social relationship take place? About what are social relationships?

15. Social Status and Social Roles:

15.1. The Concept and Types of Social Status:

In the social structure of a society or a group there are various defined positions to be occupied by a group of individuals. This position is termed as social status. It is the position or rank of person or a group of persons occupy in the social system. Some of these positions are naturally given and they are called ascribed social.

Status: They are acquired by birth. For example: being a male or female, boy or girl, black or white person, son or daughter, father or mother, etc. Some positions in society are to be attained by competitions, making efforts, commitments, choices, decisions and other mechanisms.

16.1. The Concept of Social Roles:

Social roles are the expectations, duties, responsibilities and obligations which are associated with a given social status. Every person/ group of persons is/ are expected to behave act and demonstrate skills, knowledge and attitude that are fitting to the given status or statuses. Every person is expected to play two or more roles.¹

Multiple situations are associated with multiple roles. The different roles associated with a single status are called role set. Sometimes there are role

¹ SAMUEL KOENIG.RED.HOPPER.FELIKS GROSS.opcit.p344.

conflicts, meaning the clashing of one role with the other. These role conflicts may be inter-role, i.e. conflict between two or more roles.

17. Major Types and Functions of Social Institutions:

There are many principles around which institutions are organized. The five social institutions of major significance are:

- **Economic institutions:** those that deal with economic and property relations.
- **Religious institutions:** Those concerned with the supernatural magic and religion.
- **Family:** those based on principles of kinship meaning, social relations created by descent and marriage.
- **Educational institutions:** those that deal with the need for training individuals in the roles, values, skills, knowledge, attitudes etc which are associated with being a citizen and a worker.

The Family institutions:

The family is the most important social unit in any society. It is the building block of any society. The family fulfills two basic functions. These are reproduction and socialization. Society reproduces or recreates itself through the family. Children are born in the family to join the society. Parents play the roles of nurturing, caring for, teaching and training children whereas children are expected to play the roles of good and teachable trainees.

Economic Institution:

Every society needs to make effective use of the scarce resources. Goods and services have to be produced to meet the basic needs such as food, clothing, shelter, etc. Economic institutions are responsible for organizing the production, exchange, distribution and consumption of goods and services.¹

Religious Institution:

This social institution is responsible for meeting and providing spiritual needs of the members of the society.

¹ SAMUEL KOENIG, RED. HOPPER, FELIKS GROSS. Opcit, p164.

Political Institution: (Government and Law)

These social institutions are responsible for protecting the society from internal disorder, crime and chaos as well as from external threats and invasion. They are responsible for maintaining peace and order at micro and macro levels enforcing social control and maintaining the welfare and well-being of society.

Educational Institution:

This social institution is responsible for providing training for the members of society. It serves as center of knowledge production, exchange, and distribution. Generally, educational institutions are responsible for the vertical and horizontal transmission of material and non-material cultures.

The definition of Social action:

Is described as an individual's, group's, or community's effort within the framework of social philosophy and practices that aim at achieving social progress to modify social policies to improve social legislation, health and welfare services. From this description, we can understand that social action is an active, conscious, well thought effort.

The Concept of Culture:

Definition of Culture: The term culture refers to "civilization". Thus, when one is said to be "cultured" he or she is said to be civilized. For sociologists and anthropologists "culture includes much more than refinement, taste, sophistication and education. Likewise culture implies normally utilized is what compares "culture" with things which are bright, traditions, materials, food sources, moving, music and so on. Brilliant traditions, music, moving and enhancements apparel, gems and hairstyles. Taken to a limit, such pictures depict culture as sporting and eventually unserious as opposed to something that conventional individuals live regularly of their lives not when they have festivals appreciation of the fine arts. Not only college graduates but also all people are 'cultured'¹.

Another misconception about what culture is and what it constitutes is that which may be entertained by many common people. This misconception is similar to the second one but it differs from it in that most people here think culture (as conceptualized in its local language or non – material things of the past. According to this view, the cultural may not include things material or non – materials which are modern more ordinary.

¹ SAMUEL KOENIG.RED.HOPPER.FELIKS GROSS.opcit.348.

The concept of culture is one of the most widely used notions in sociology. It refers to the whole ways of life of the members of a society. It includes what they dress, their marriage customs and family life, art and patterns of work, religious ceremonies, leisure pursuits, and so forth. It also includes the material goods they produce:

Elements of Culture:

Culture includes within itself elements that make up the essence of a society or a social group. The major ones include: Symbols, values, norms and language.

Symbols: Symbols are the central components of culture. Symbols refer to anything to which people attach meaning and which they use to communicate with others. More specifically, symbols are words, objects, gestures, sounds or images that represent something else rather than themselves. Symbolic thought is unique and crucial to humans and to culture. It is the human ability to give a thing or event an arbitrary meaning and grasp and appreciate that meaning. There is no obvious natural or necessary connection between a symbol and what it symbolizes.

Language: Specifically defined as a system of verbal and in many cases written symbols with rules about how those symbols can be strung together to convey more complex meanings. It is the distinctive capacity and possession of humans; it is a key element of culture. Culture encompasses language and through language, culture is communicated and transmitted. Without language it would be impossible to develop, elaborate and transmit culture to the future generation.

Values: Values are essential elements of non-material culture. They may be defined as general, abstract guidelines for our lives, decisions, goals, choices, and actions. They are shared ideas of a groups or a society as to what is right or wrong, correct or incorrect, desirable or undesirable, acceptable or unacceptable, ethical or unethical, etc., regarding something. They are general road maps for our lives. Values are shared and are learned in group. They can be positive or negative. For example, honesty, truth – telling, respect for others, hospitality and helping those in need values. Examples of negative values include theft, indecency, disrespect, dishonesty, falsehood and frugality.

Norms: Norms are also essential elements of culture. They are implicit principles for social life, relationship and interaction. Norms are detailed and specific rules for specific situations. They tell us how to do something, what to do, what not to do, when to do it, why to do it, etc. Norms are derived from

values. That means, for every specific norm there is a general value that determines its content. Individuals may not act according to the defined values and norms of the group. Therefore violation of values and norms and deviating from the standard values and norms are often common. Social norms may be divided into two. These are mores and folkways.

Mores: Are important and stronger social norms for existence, safety, well-being and continuity of the society or the group. Violation and deviation from these kinds of norms may result in serious reactions from the groups. The strongest norms are regarded as the formal laws of a society or a group.

Formal laws: are written and codified social norms. The other kinds of mores are called conventions. Conventions are established rules governing behavior, they are generally accepted ideals by the society.

Folkways: Are the ways of life developed by a group of people. They are detailed and minor instructions, traditions or rules for day-to-day life that help us function effectively and smoothly as members of a group. Here, violating such kinds of norms may not result in a serious punishment unlike violating mores. They are less morally binding. In other words, folkways are appropriate ways of behaving and doing things. Examples may include table etiquette, dressing rules, walking, talking. Folkways in turn may be divided into two sub types: fashion and custom.

Fashion: Is a form of behavior, type of folkways that is socially approved at a given time but subject to periodic change. Adherents combine both deviation and conformity to norm of a certain group.

Custom: Is a folkway or form of social behavior that, having persisted a long period of time, has become traditional and well established in a society and has received some degree of formal recognition. Custom is a pattern of action shared by most or all members of a society. Habit is a personality trait, where as the custom is a group trait. Fashion and customs can be differentiated in that while custom changes at slower rate, fashion changes at a faster rate. The issues of cultural exchange in today's globalizing world. One of the main aspects of

Globalization is that a relatively uniform world culture is taking shape today in the world. The global culture may entail all speaking the same language, share the same values and norms, and sustain common and of knowledge as of residents of the same community.

Global culture may also be associated with cultural imperialism, the unequal cultural exchange in the global system whereby western material and non-material cultures have come to occupy The concepts of society and culture are central to sociology. A society is an autonomous grouping of people who inhabit a common territory, have a common culture and are linked to one another through routinized social interactions and interdependent statuses and roles. Societies may be conceptualized as having different levels: at global, continental, regional and nation- state and ethnic group levels. Depending on various criteria, societies may be classified in to various categories such as First World, Second World, Third World and Fourth World Societies (based on economic development and overall socio-economic status); and hunting and gathering, pastoral, agrarian, industrial and post industrial societies (based on temporal succession and major means of livelihood. The term "culture" refers to the whole ways of life of the members of a society.

The society may be tempting to think that a society is simply a collection of individual person. Much of the time, we like to think of ourselves as individuals who are different to everyone else and that we are not affected by what other people say or do. However, this does not seem to reflect what people and societies are really alike. What we do reflect the fact that we are involved in social relationship with other members of our family. As children we were influenced by what we learned from our parents grandparents, brothers, sisters and soon. Then, throughout life our feelings and behavior are often shape by what other members of our family are doing. The point of all this is to emphasize that what we do as individuals is best seen in the context of our membership of what sociologists call social institutions or social units. Sometimes a social unit can itself be part of other units or may have sub-division within it. For instance: refugee camp, there are subdivisions: the Liberian refugees, the Sierra-Leone refugee and other refugees from war.

Social Issues in Sociology:

There are many social issues that are of great interest to Sociology. Some of these social issues do result into problems, and they are:

- Rape
- Armed Robbery
- Assassination
- Terrorism
- Prostitution
- War
- Conflicts
- Area boys' syndrome, etc.

It is essential to note that Sociology developed as a result of attempts to understand the far-reaching changes that took place in human societies which followed the growth of industries and large cities. You should now know that the distinctive feature of Sociology is its focus on how Society influences human behavior and vice-versa.

Chapter Four: Political Sociology:

Introduction:

Political science is a social science discipline that focuses on the study of political systems, government, and the political behavior of individuals and groups. It is a field that seeks to understand and analyze the complex workings of politics by examining the institutions, processes, and policies that shape the distribution of power and decision-making within a society. Political scientists employ a range of research methods, including quantitative analysis, qualitative research and case studies, to explore topics such as political ideologies, international relations, public opinion and the development of political institutions.

One key aspect of political science is the examination of political institutions and systems. This includes analyzing the structure and functions of various forms of governments such as democracies, autocracies and monarchies. Political scientists also explore the evolution and impact of political parties, interest groups, and other organizations that influence the political process. By studying these institutions, political scientists gain insights into how power is distributed how decisions are made and how policies are implemented.

1. Elucidation and Scope:

For the past three to four decades the field of political sociology has been an area of significant interest within the realm of sociological research. It has consistently demonstrated that a wide range of structural, cultural and ideological factors exert a profound influence on nearly every aspect of political life. Various concepts and methods within political sociology have been employed to analyze and understand societal dynamics, political parties, governing bodies and policy objectives. Scholars in this field explore these methodologies and principles to gain insights into the nature of political activity and the potential trajectory of leadership. The complexity of the political system which involves intricate interactions between individuals, institutions and societal norms has long been a subject of scholarly inquiry. Philosophers and sociologists throughout history such as Aristotle and René Guénon, have emphasized the importance of political governance and organization in shaping group dynamics and hierarchical structures. This interdisciplinary approach extends beyond issues related to social movements and individual behavior to encompass broader societal functions. Over the course of its extensive history, political sociology has scrutinized and supported various aspects of political behavior and organizational strategies among the general populace. This robust

tradition of research and analysis has informed theories such as the concept of "deference" in relation to labor relations, which have been challenged by scholars from prestigious institutions like Harvard and beyond. ¹

Political sociology is a specialized field within the broader discipline of sociology that incorporates both sociological and political science theories to examine the dynamics of power, relationships, conflict and societal structures within political systems and social organizations. Political sociology heavily relies on the theoretical foundations of political science, a discipline that studies governance, nations, and international relations within the broader context of the social sciences². This field primarily emphasizes the distribution of power and the mechanisms of politics within society, with a particular focus on the interplay between the state and society. It encompasses a range of theoretical perspectives from immediate to strategic approaches and utilizes a variety of conceptual frameworks to analyze the evolution of power dynamics over time. Through its systematic examination of political systems, organizations and issues, political sociology provides essential insights into the formulation and implementation of public policies within diverse societal contexts.

In colonial modernity, colonies and empires pivot multidimensional radicalized systems differential zing people according to multiple reductive cultural, biological even climatic criteria. Racial thinking doesn't derive directly from top-down scientific racism. The new ways of defining racial difference were part of the project of colonial governance. Nevertheless, they blend with the civilizations narrative at the interface between the local and the global the colonial metropolises and broader scientific phenomena such as race biology and comparative historical linguistics. The historical sociology of radicalization led to the exploration of different Geo-cultural zones settler colonies plantation colonies, the colonies and their material interdependencies. To classify sociological accounts of ethnically or racially organized societies, historical sociologists may use a typology sliding through ideal types where kinship as criptive hierarchized cultural forms and phenotype markers fluctuate the examination of political matters can be both intriguing and challenging, while also inducing a sense of frustration. Our fascination with this subject often gives rise to the complexities and obstacles encountered in trying to grasp its depth. Although the concept of politics is not inherently elusive its pervasive nature in various aspects of our lives allows for a broad spectrum of exploration and

¹ Pablo Cárdenas, J., Vidal, G., and Olivares, G. **Complexity, Selectivity and Asymmetry in the Conformation of the Power Phenomenon. Analysis of Chilean Society.** 2014.

² Bar Yam, Y. **Power and Leadership: A Complex Systems Science Approach Part I Representation and Dynamics.** 2018.

comprehension¹. Nevertheless, the close association we have with political elements poses a challenge in separating it from those we are endeavoring to understand. Due to the profound influence of politics on our thought processes, we naturally incorporate political references into our interpretations, thus making them an integral part of our observations on human conduct. This, however, limits our ability to disengage these terms and present them as the focal point of our examination. When political implications infiltrate our theories they blur the clarity of our analysis. Conversely, their absence undermines our efforts at comprehensive evaluation.

Political sociology has gone through several phases of development. There are different conceptual approaches when looking at the origins and development phases of political sociology, such as the stages of citizenship development or the development of modern political regime types. Moreover, in exploring the origins of political sociology, it is necessary to consider the trajectories of country-specific political sociology and the theoretical and empirical works that have influenced these trajectories². The origins of political sociology can also be approached via the analysis of scholars and their works in the research of political societies with the aim of interpreting the origins of political sociology in terms of how different scholars have looked at the phenomenon.

In addition, political science also focuses on the behavior of individuals and groups within the political sphere. This includes analyzing voting patterns, public opinion, and social movements. By understanding the attitudes, motivations, and actions of political actors, political scientists can develop theories and models that help explain and predict political behavior. This knowledge is crucial for both policy-making and electoral strategies as it provides insights into how individuals and groups shape the political landscape.

In conclusion, political science is a multidisciplinary field that seeks to understand the complex nature of politics. It encompasses the study of political systems, institutions, and behavior, offering valuable insights into how power is exercised and policies are shaped. By employing a variety of research methods, political scientists contribute to our understanding of political phenomena providing a foundation for informed decision-making and critical analysis of the political landscape.

¹ Garbes, L. and Hirschman, D. **Embedded in Whiteness: How the New Economic Sociology Came to Ignore Race & Racism**. 2020.

² Hammer ,R and Itzigsohn, J Colonial. **Modernity In Historical Sociology**.2021.

2. Theoretical perspectives in political sociology:

Includes a wide array of approaches that analyze the dynamics of power, relationships and societal structures within the political realm. These perspectives draw from interdisciplinary fields like sociology and political science, focusing on issues such as state power, democracy, social integration, and conflict resolution. Scholars like Tocqueville, Marx, Durkheim, and Weber have contributed significantly to shaping these perspectives emphasizing concepts like social solidarity, class relations, social integration and the rational bureaucratic institutionalization of power within modern states. Theoretical frameworks such as functionalism, conflict theory and interactionism are utilized to understand the complexities of political systems, societal interactions, and the impact of social change on political structures and governance. Overall, theoretical perspectives in political sociology provide a lens through which to analyze and interpret the intricate interplay between politics, society and power dynamics.

2.1. Marxist theory:

Encompasses a wide range of perspectives on politics, society and economics. Axel van den Berg's work challenges the viability of a distinctly Marxist theory of the state, arguing that recent Marxist theorizing lacks empirical testability. This critique extends to neo-Marxist theories which are often indistinguishable from "bourgeois" theories. Despite presupposing an ideal socialist society. Marxist theories are constrained by an "anti-utopian" stance that limits open discussion of utopian visions. Additionally, Stanly Abramowitz's exploration of Marxist theory delves into the relationship between class, politics, and culture, emphasizing the necessity of philosophy and the evolution of Marxist thought. These critical perspectives highlight the ongoing relevance and complexity of Marxist theory in understanding contemporary social issues. The importance of Marxist theory and research for Critical Communication Studies is also emphasized in the work of Fuchs, underscoring the enduring impact of Marxist thought on various academic disciplines.

Comprehensive Study of Marxist Theory:

The primary strand of Marxist ideology centers on historical and economic rationales for the exploitation of the working class. However, Karl Marx's perspective extended beyond this focus on labor exploitation by capital. He did not assume that the beliefs held by various groups could be solely influenced by material circumstances. Marx acknowledged that disparate social classes would possess varying beliefs, with class conflict – which he identified as the main catalyst for societal transformation – not only stemming from disparities in economic resources, but also in beliefs. He maintained that prevalent beliefs and practices would mirror the interests of the sub-class most adept at orchestrating itself towards these objectives and establishing institutions capable of achieving such outcomes. He endeavored to uncover a materialistic foundation for comprehending the roots of these distinctions.

Marxist theory: outlines the prerequisites for achieving positive social results: fairness, liberty and democratic governance. These prerequisites stem from communal determinations regarding the enforcement of norms with norms reflecting widely shared ethical values rather than self-serving ideals. Disparities in wealth erode norms that facilitate collective decision-making for society. Consequently, capitalism has the potential to stifle social unity and result in authoritarian outcomes such as the exploitation of workers. It is possible for society to improve. Both the dynamics of the workplace and civil life could be more collaborative, community-oriented, and based on rationality. By reaching public consensus, society could mitigate and resolve class conflicts, preventing unilateral decisions that favor the interests of a specific sector of the population.

The Marxist theory: delineates the necessary conditions for achieving favorable social outcomes: equity, freedom, and democratic leadership. These conditions are rooted in communal agreements on upholding standards, with said standards embodying commonly held moral principles rather than self-serving agendas. Discrepancies in wealth undermine the norms that support collective decision-making in society. Consequently, capitalism has the capacity to hinder social cohesion and lead to authoritarian consequences, such as the exploitation of laborers. However, there is potential for societal advancement. Both the dynamics of workplaces and civic engagement could be more cooperative, community-driven and grounded in rationale. Through consensus-building, society could alleviate and address class conflicts, preventing one-sided decisions that cater to the interests of a specific segment of the populace.

2.2. Origins and Prominent Figures:

The emergence of Marxism can be attributed to significant events in the 19th century, particularly in Germany during the 1840s. In response to these events, a group of German intellectuals began to formulate theories aimed at bringing about a revolutionary transformation in the Western world. Influenced by Karl Marx's writings, these individuals became known as "the young Hegelians". Despite being a minority in Germany, the young Hegelians generally aligned with the philosophy of G. W. F. Hegel. This philosophy posited that the spirit was evident in human relationships and actions, and that human history was tumultuous. Eager for immediate progress, the young Hegelians believed that the institutional structure facilitated the exploitation of individuals, with the church being a particularly culpable institution. In order to rectify the exploitative nature of society they advocated for uplifting the status of the proletariat or bourgeoisie, who not only produced goods but also generated wealth.

The Marxist analysis: of society is initially based on the basic economic nature of society and the economic structures that form the foundation on which the social superstructure holds up. Political structure, religion, and culture are just part of this superstructure. They act not on their own but in unity with this basic economic structure to sustain the economic values which the ruling classes have vested authority in. These values, of course, are directly in the interest of the ruling social and economic classes, who are in the state of ownership of the material factors of production. They also control the political and legal machinery of society. The control of these powerful levers of power enables the ruling classes to structure society in which their privileges and vested interests are preserved and sustained at all costs.

Karl Marx, like other great philosophers, rests on the belief in dialectic. He believed in an analysis of a pair of opposites to arrive at a solution. Both these opposites would merge into one, producing a new synthesis which will contain reason and act as a balancing force to drive society forward. The philosophy of dialectic poses a normative approach to sociology in judging both the present and the future. Marx's dialectic emanates from the Marxist theory that the motivation of human behavior is desire and, more particularly, the needs which society must meet to survive. These are known as economic motives.

3. Exploring Pluralist Theory in Political Science:

3.1. Overview of Pluralistic Theory:

A pluralist political system acknowledges the existence of different groups of influence in any society and precludes the concept of a single 'elite' who engage in determining the political outcomes of the state. Pluralist theory in political science is closely associated with the work of academics such as Robert Dahl, R.A. Leach, David B. Truman, and Mattei Dogan. These 'system theorists' (a term suggested by Stuart Farquharson in 1970 to represent a group of political scientists advocating a radical theory of political systems) from the American Behavioral School rejected the nation-state as a unit for examining international and comparative politics. They argued for the adoption of the political system as the unit for investigation, leading to more understanding of individual countries and regional variations.

3.2. Definition and Origins:

The origins of pluralist theory in political science can be attributed to prominent figures such as George Washington, Benjamin Franklin, and other founding individuals who perceived society as a mosaic of various interests. This theory asserts that there is no dominant authority in society, which grants each interest group equal representation and protection. Participants in this societal framework engage in competition, striving to advocate for their own interests. James Madison was the first to systematically analyze and measure the influence of diverse interest groups and political structures on economic independence as evidenced in his contributions to the Federalist Papers.

The pluralist theory of the state posits that the state functions as a tool of the dominant capitalist class, exerting influence through the advocacy of interest groups and lobbying efforts. Proponents of this theory view the state as primarily serving the interests of the bourgeoisie rather than the proletariat. This concept is not novel, as many have argued that the system is controlled by a select group of economic elites employing sophisticated strategies. The prevalence of economic power among a small number of affluent individuals allows them to exert influence on the central government for their own benefit. With a limited number of massive businesses wielding significant power, the validity of the pluralist theory becomes evident as authority becomes concentrated, prompting the government to prioritize the maximization of profit for these large.

3.3. Key Concepts and Assumptions:

A more refined look at pluralist assumptions and formulations is nevertheless necessary. By doing so, it becomes possible to specify the powers, the structures, and the society that account for pluralist interpretations of mass politics and pluralist understandings of state authority and action. Further, it becomes possible to specify causal preconditions that, when predominant, create certain normative assumptions about democracy. And it becomes possible to specify various correlates of political structure and social institutions. These linkages and explanations are explored in the following pages in order to initiate a logic of pluralist theory. The key assumption of pluralist theory is that the diversity of goals and values in society precludes the possibility that any one elite with set beliefs and values can run the show. Key concepts are varied and the major contemporary pluralist scholars may differ in how they interpret data and analyze political and social processes—but several key concepts and propositions are recurrent in pluralist theory. These concepts include: group, power, authority, democracy and an emphasis on citizen activism through collective action. A critical aspect of each of these concepts is the relationship of group, power and authority in pluralist theory to our understanding of democracy.

4. Background and Significance of Key Concepts and Authority:

In the public sphere, society and its practices become visible and are rendered legitimate or illegitimate through key concepts and in relation to authorities. Key concepts have been defined as ‘the basic elements of thinking objectively’ necessary for the coherent expression of information about the nature of society¹. Authority is the legitimate power to make decisions and act in particular domains.² The key concepts of society are generated in and through societies, in which there have been conceptual shifts between religious authority, secular authority and expert authority³. Several concepts have included principles of orderliness, knowledge, lineage or common direct rule. European secular authorities and experts disembedded from local authority and commodified the authority of producers meaning managers of material goods and labour. Most global south societies remain semiperipheries and elites tend to situate power more in their religions rather than in their experts.

¹ Gouldner, A. W. (1959/1963). ‘Cosmopolitans and locals: Toward an analysis of latent social roles.’ *Administrative Science Quarterly*, pp281–306

² Weber, M. **Economy and society: An outline of interpretive sociology**. University of California Press.; Zürn, M. 2012.

³ Sheehan, O. Watts, J, D. Gray, R., Bulbulia, J., Claessens, S., J. Ringen, E and D. Atkinson, Q. **Coevolution of religious and political authority in Austronesian societies**. 2023

Why have the same sequence of societal authority types for health care governance entirely different governmentality effects in different types of care? Health care based on cure, on treatment of diseases or forms of bodily malfunctioning, turned out to have completely different governmentality outcomes of the same authority configuration types as disease management care –chronic care- or lifestyle care and self-care of citizens in health care policy and reform due to completely different institutionalized professional roles and possible performance-evaluations.

In the full sense of the word, The concept of authority networks provides health policy and governance research a powerful tool for identifying what influences in health governance divides power differentially over many different nodes in the authority network on whose shoulders the responsibility is laid regarding policy and implementation effectiveness and efficiency improvement and advice how to invest more effectively and citizens in modern power and authority –governmentality- invested largely in professional and citizen system subsystems. ¹We observed different division in the Netherlands concerning core - care and life style care, We found that substituting citizens for governmental management and control over the last 10 years of ample health care professions in those medical and cross-sectional interventions specialist dominated areas was largely responsible for problems in the decennium right after the proposed reform and was a disastrous mistake and from the new governance study. Applying the same sequence for functionally multilevel-based governance reforms the reasoning in health literacy care appears to have the same effect on history of how new sequences established governance institutionalizations must be the same could have totally different positive population health, positive governance outcomes.

Applying insights from the multi-dimensional concept of power, this thesis examines how authority for integrated care is invested between governmental agencies, professionals, citizens and in technology. The New Public Governance and the entire field of public administration research and governance literature have undergone profound change ever since health care service delivery, the most dominant public responsibility was opened up to administrative marketisation through provider competition and insurance executives.² Integrated care turned out to be the solution for the negative (unintended) consequences of those competitive market reforms. Using our power/ authority analysis on Maslow's levels: first level trade-off market participation, second

¹ Sheehan, O. Watts, J. D. Gray, R, Bulbulia, J, Claessens, S, J. Ringen, E and D. Atkinson, **Q. *ibid.***

² Janse van Rensburg, A., Rau, A., Fourie, P., and Bracke, P. "Power and Integrated Health Care: Shifting from Governance to Governmentality." (2016)

layer professional and partnership authority and user participation we may judge that trying to transform competition and processes would require a much deeper transformation than many policy documents point to and in some respects move the boundaries of acceptable control of government in the market system by making allowance for more – not less - politico-administrative governance.

5. Power and Authority:

Sociologists have a distinctive approach to studying governmental power and authority that differs from the perspective of political scientists. For the most part political scientists focus on studying how power is distributed in different types of political systems. They would observe, for example, that the United States' political system is divided into three distinct branches (legislative, executive, and judicial), and they would explore how public opinion affects political parties, elections and the political process in general. Sociologists tend to be more interested in the influences of governmental power on society and in how social conflicts arise from the distribution of power. Sociologists also examine how the use of power affects local, state, national, and global agendas which in turn affect people differently based on status, class and socioeconomic standing.

5.1. The definition of power:

Power: is developed by German sociologist Max Weber, who said that power is the ability to exercise one's will over others. Power affects more than personal relationships, it shapes larger dynamics like social groups, reform is an aspect of social relationship.

5.2. Types of Authority:

Authority: refers to accepted power that is, power that people agree to follow. People listen to authority figures because they feel that these individuals are worthy of respect. Generally speaking people perceive the objectives and demands of an authority figure as reasonable and beneficial.

Traditional Authority: According to Weber, the power of traditional authority is accepted because its legitimacy exists because it has been accepted for a long time. Britain's Queen Elizabeth, for instance, occupied a position that she inherited based on the traditional rules of succession for the monarchy. People adhere to traditional authority because they are invested in the past and feel obligated to perpetuate it. In this type of authority, a ruler typically has no real force to carry out his will or maintain his position but depends primarily on a group's respect.

A more modern form of traditional authority is patrimonialism, which is traditional domination facilitated by an administration and military that are purely personal instruments of the master. In this form of authority all officials are personal favorites appointed by the ruler. These officials have no rights and their privileges can be increased or withdrawn based on the caprices of the leader. The political organization of ancient Egypt typified such a system: when the royal household decreed that a pyramid be built every Egyptian was forced to work toward its construction.

Traditional authority: can be intertwined with race, class, and gender. In most societies, for instance, men are more likely to be privileged than women and thus are more likely to hold roles of authority. Similarly, members of dominant racial groups or upper-class families also win respect more readily. In the United States, the Kennedy family, which has produced many prominent politicians exemplifies this model.

Charismatic Authority: Followers accept the power of charismatic authority because they are drawn to the leader's personal qualities. The appeal of a charismatic leader can be extraordinary, and can inspire followers to make unusual sacrifices or to persevere in the midst of great hardship and persecution. Charismatic leaders usually emerge in times of crisis and offer innovative or radical solutions. They may even offer a vision of a new world order. Hitler's rise to power in the postwar economic depression of Germany is an example. Charismatic leaders tend to hold power for short durations, and according to Weber, they are just as likely to be tyrannical as they are heroic. Diverse male leaders such as Hitler, Napoleon, Winston Churchill are all considered charismatic leaders. Because so few women have held dynamic positions of leadership throughout history, the list of charismatic female leaders is comparatively short. Many historians consider figures such as Margaret Thatcher and Mother Teresa to be charismatic leaders.

Rational-Legal Authority: According to Weber, power made legitimate by laws, written rules, and regulations is termed rational-legal authority. In this type of authority, power is vested in a particular rationale, system, or ideology and not necessarily in the person who implements the specifics of that doctrine. A nation that follows a constitution applies this type of authority. On a smaller scale you might encounter rational-legal authority in the workplace via the standards set forth in the employee handbook, which provides a different type of authority than that of your boss. Of course ideals are seldom replicated in the real world. Few governments or leaders can be neatly categorized. Some leaders, like Mohandas Gandhi for instance, can be considered charismatic and legal-

rational authority figures. Similarly, a leader or government can start out exemplifying one type of authority and gradually evolve or change into another type.

Monarchy: Beside Britain's Monarchy, many other nations also recognize kings, queens, princes, princesses, and other figures with official royal titles. The power held by these positions varies from one country to another. Strictly speaking, a monarchy is a government in which a single person (a monarch) rules until he or she dies or abdicates the throne. Usually, a monarch claims the rights to the title by way of hereditary succession or as a result of some sort of divine appointment or calling. The monarchies of most modern nations are ceremonial remnants of tradition and individuals who hold titles in such sovereignties are often aristocratic figureheads. It is generally safe to say that most modern absolute monarchies are concentrated in the Middle East and Africa. The small Oman for instance, is an example of an absolute monarchy. In this nation, Sultan Qaboos bin Said ruled from the 1970s until his death in 2020 when his cousin Haitham bin Tariq became Sultan. The Sultan creates all laws, appoints all judges and has no formal check on their power. Living conditions and opportunities for Oman's citizens, but many citizens who live under the reign of an absolute ruler must contend with oppressive or unfair policies that are installed based on the unchecked whims or political agendas of that leader. In today's global political climate, monarchies far more often take the form of constitutional monarchies, governments of nations that recognize monarchs but require these figures to abide by the laws of a greater constitution. Many countries that are now constitutional monarchies evolved from governments that were once considered absolute monarchies. In most cases, constitutional monarchies, such as Great Britain and Canada, feature elected prime ministers whose leadership role is far more involved and significant than that of its titled monarchs.

Oligarchy: The power in an oligarchy is held by a small, elite group. Unlike in a monarchy, members of an oligarchy do not necessarily achieve their statuses based on ties to noble ancestry. Rather, they may ascend to positions of power because of military might, economic power, or similar circumstances. The concept of oligarchy generally carries negative connotations and conjures notions of a corrupt group whose members make unfair policy decisions in order to maintain their privileged positions. Many modern nations that claim to be democracies are really oligarchies. In fact, some prominent journalists, such as Paul Krugman, who won a Nobel laureate prize in economics have labeled the United States an oligarchy, pointing to the influence of large corporations and Wall Street executives on U.S. policy. Other political analysts assert that all

democracies are really just “elected oligarchies,” or systems in which citizens must vote for an individual who is part of a pool of candidates who come from the society’s elite ruling class. Oligarchies have existed throughout history and today many consider Russia an example of oligarchic political structure. After the fall of communism, groups of business owners captured control of this nation’s natural resources and have used the opportunity to expand their wealth and political influence. Once an oligarchic power structure has been established, it can be very difficult for middle- and lower-class citizens to advance their socioeconomic status.

Dictatorship: Power in a dictatorship is held by a single person or a very small group that wields complete and absolute authority over a government and population. Dictators use a variety of means to perpetuate their authority. Economic and military might as well as intimidation and brutality are often foremost among their tactics individuals are less likely to rebel when they are starving and fearful. Many dictators start out as military leaders and are conditioned to the use of violence against opposition. Some dictators also possess the personal appeal that Max Weber identified with a charismatic leader. The late Kim Jong-Il, North Korean dictator and his successor, Kim Jong-Un, exemplify this type of charismatic dictatorship. Some dictatorships do not align themselves with any particular belief system or ideology. The goal of this type of regime is usually limited to preserving the authority of the dictator. A totalitarian dictatorship is even more oppressive and attempts to control all aspects of its subjects’ lives including occupation, religious beliefs and number of children permitted in each family. Citizens may be forced to publicly demonstrate their faith in the regime by participating in marches and demonstrations. Some dictators, such as Napoleon and Anwar Sadat, are credited with advancing their people’s standard of living or exercising a moderate amount of evenhandedness. Others grossly abuse their power. Joseph Stalin, Adolf Hitler, Saddam Hussein are heads of state who earned a reputation for leading through fear and intimidation.

Democracy: A democracy is a form of government that strives to provide all citizens with an equal voice, or vote, in determining state policy, regardless of their level of socioeconomic status. Another important fundamental of the democratic state is the establishment and governance of a just and comprehensive constitution that delineates the roles and responsibilities of leaders and citizens alike. Democracies, in general, ensure certain basic rights for their citizens. Citizens are free to organize political parties and hold elections. Leaders, once elected, must abide by the terms of the given nation’s

constitution and are limited in the powers they can exercise, as well as in the length of the duration of their terms.

6. The Dynamics of Political Participation: A Comprehensive Analysis:

6.1. Overview:

Political scientists have engaged in discussions regarding the various norms and values guiding individuals' actions within the political sphere for a significant period of time. While much focus has been placed on the reasons behind people's involvement in politics, less attention has been given to the manner in which they engage. A growing consensus among political scientists suggests that individual participation in politics is intricate and varied. It encompasses a wide range of issues and activities, differs among citizens, candidates, and regions, and can be assessed through multiple lenses. The primary challenge in accurately assessing potential political involvement lies in identifying suitable variables and levels of measurement that can adequately capture it. On the other hand, researchers often analyze political participation based on one of two distinct interpretations of the political arena, neglecting the economic, social and cultural aspects of political engagement in the process.

Engagement in political activities is a key concept in the field of social sciences. It is essential for understanding sociopolitical theories and analyzing power relationships and political consequences. Political participation is often seen as an independent effort to address concerns, carried out through established institutions. It involves not only achieving particular goals, but also upholding principles of governance and frameworks that influence individual liberties. Along with the importance of developing fresh perspectives and exerting influence, the capacity to advocate for and champion them through active involvement in current political structures is crucial.

6.2. Context and Importance:

There are at least four reasons why we believe a fresh look is important.

First of all, many existing studies now appear somewhat dated – it has been more than fifteen years since many of them were conducted. Given the important economic, social and technological changes that have taken place during these years, coupled with our belief that these changes have differentially impacted various sectors of the electorate, we believe that the time is ripe for a comprehensive exploratory effort.

Second, many existing studies rely heavily on cross-sectional data. The belief that involvement is a crucial matter for scholars of politics is evident in the variety of research projects that have been undertaken. Scholars of politics have produced a collection of well-crafted institutional and pluralist studies on both the national and regional scales, which serve as a key means of comprehension.

In summary, the examination of participation extends beyond mere introspection for political scholars. Within political systems that uphold a foundational democratic ideal, political participation has evolved into a fundamental principle that individuals are encouraged to embrace. The notion that participation can influence government policies and structure adds significant weight to the rationale for studying it.

Political scientists consider levels of political participation to be one of the central issues in the discipline. Are levels of participation in modern states sufficiently robust to ensure their workability and legitimacy? Are differences in patterns of participation a source of potential discord? These and other questions have intrigued students of politics and government.

7. Examination of Research Inquiries Objectives:

Further examination is aimed at elucidating the extent to which situational factors can explain and therefore justify observed disparities and fluctuations in protest frequency. Similarly, cultural divisions play a role in this analysis. Certain cultures and beliefs may, contrary to popular mass society and cultural theories, counteract the inclinations towards political protest. Cultures play a significant role in understanding acceptance and agreement with traditional politics. Additionally, by maintaining substantial agreement within many diverse political systems worldwide, specific cultures may covertly support protest by providing a foundation for controlled expressions or backing of dissent. Nevertheless, cultures exhibit significant variations across nations and regions.

Building upon these discussions and discoveries regarding the prevalence of elitism versus the diverse, pluralistic civil society, this chapter and the subsequent ones offer a thorough examination of political protest and violence. The initial specific aspects of the analysis of political engagement revolve around trends over time and across the globe. Chapter 1 commences with an examination of the situational components of protest and violence, followed by an exploration of shifts in the level of political protest, protest tactics also protest intensity. Through the assessment of both cross-sectional protest frequency data and longitudinal data from the 1960s, 1970s and 1980s these patterns are scrutinized alterations and variations in global protest are detailed.

Subsequently, Chapter 2 first outlines the dissemination of protest actions worldwide and then delves into the examination of regional discrepancies.

8. The Dynamics and Impact of Social Movements in Contemporary Society:

8.1. Introduction to Social Movements:

Social movements are facilitated by a variety of technological, political, economic and social factors. Communication technologies – like the oral communication, printing press, television, radio and, most recently, the internet and various forms of social media – have facilitated collective action by reducing the transaction costs of organizing and participating in protest. These technologies also enable practices of surveillance, control, and counter-mobilization by those with the authority to use formal force and coercion as well as civilian, informal agents of repression.¹ Social movements are also influenced by the broader organizing and mobilizing structures that exist in society and over time, these collective activities shape or reconfigure these structures. Finally, political opportunities often need to become favorable for social movements to grow and sustained. This occurs when key holders of coercive power might choose to ally with the movement rather than against it or when there are openings in laws, or newly available resources that facilitate recruitment and collective action. Social movements are not deterministic. They are infused with tension and strategic choices and while they can shape and change the collectivity, and political, they can also settle or redefine the status quo in ways that remain frustrating for movement claimants.

Social movements are organized collective activities outside traditional political structures or institutional channels and that are oriented towards pursuing social, cultural, economic, or political change². They are typically sustained over time and have formal structures in the form of organizations or networks. Numerous definitions of these phenomena exist, but social movements are conceptualized in this essay as: conscious, concerted and sustained efforts by ordinary people to change or resist change to various aspects of politics, society, economy or culture in all geographic settings. They can emerge around many issues and concerns from borderless issues, like climate change and migration to efforts to resist or change local policies, practices or social norms.

¹ Mariel Lemonik Arthur, M. **Social Movements in Organizations**.2016.

² Savage, S. and Monroy Hernández, A. **Participatory Militias: An Analysis of an Armed Movement's Online Audience**. 2015.

8.2. Defining Social Movements:

Social movements are considerably diverse events, with a wide range of goals, mechanisms, and underlying social problems. In this context, scholars also emphasize the importance of acknowledging the various activities necessary in addition to uniting for protest consequential to catalyzing broader influence and more ongoing societal conversation, but they also practice distinct knowledge-making, collective identity-acknowledging and mobilizing functions that address broader movement goals.¹ Modern social movement research also increasingly includes notions about the internal cultures of movements, given their longer shelf-lives and more interlocking structures. These also emphasize the improvisational nature of movements and the importance of participants as producers of movement mechanisms, constituent idealizations and other elements foundational to movement evolution.

Given the multidisciplinary origins of social movements and their investigation including sociology, social psychology, political science, communication and other neighboring disciplines, myriad opportunities for collaboration and conceptual synchronization exist. Few researchers in library and information science (LIS) study social movements directly, but a synergistic fit with collective action research and public memory exists. Like the other scholars participating in this Special Issue, it behooves LIS researchers to adapt such theories and conclusions derived to understand patterns of information behavior and engagement, especially as these are fundamentally responding to societal cleavages and the challenges of acting on change across various communities representing schemas deriving from discursive communication and other information patterns related to frame and opportunity identification in classical social movement theories.

As social science researchers investigate the latest developments around the #MeToo Movement and its impacts on social norms, theories of social movements are increasingly critical to understand the formation, longevity, and reach of collective action.² Social movements are generally defined as the sustained actions to create or resist change across various societal arenas, breaking from established patterns of civil society organizations and other social formations. Existing theoretical models of social movements hinge on a variety of conceptual themes, including relative resource distribution, frames, collective

¹ King, B. and K. Nelson, L. Beyond **protests: Using computational text analysis to explore a greater variety of social movement activities**. 2022.

² Tremblay, M. C., H. Martin, D., C. Macaulay, A., and Pluye, P. **Can we Build on Social Movement Theories to Develop and Improve Community-Based Participatory Research? A Framework Synthesis Review**. 2017.

identity, and cognitive shift. Although other media forms have figured prominently in social movements, peer production and user-generated content enabled by the Internet substantially reconfigure a grassroots understanding of collective action.¹

8.3. Historical Overview of Social Movements:

The classical social movement perspective was relatively less ambiguous in conception, characterizing social movements as undesirable give rise to collective behavior when institutionalized, organized channels of political, social, or economic redress are blocked. The contemporary social movement perspective builds on this framework, asserting that social movements are morally and socio-culturally emblematic, democratic human rights or social justice expressions of resonance within sociopolitical targets, collectivities, and societies. Social movements have relatively recently become an important object of inquiry in democratic theory, political governance, and multiculturalism. Over the past few decades social movements have had a very significant impact on political debates and policy making. The “civil society” has been empowered with the help of non-profit organizations, advocacy coalitions, and lobbying and public diplomacy organizations. These non-governmental or non-profit organizations are responsible for communicating with the public on their area of concern and working to persuade legislatures, public administrators, and other political and public policy change-makers in terms of political procedures for achieving social capital and social benefits.

Historically, conceptions of social movements and related phenomena like collective violence, collective protest, and contentious politics have been embedded in various bodies of literature from different disciplines . This complex network of fields and subfields led to theoretical fragmentation; the same phenomena have been labeled in diverse ways. A social movement is a collective, organized, non institutional, sustained challenge to elites, authorities, other opponents, or cultural or social practices supported by elites. The primary claim of a social movement is to privileged access to or control over societal resources—material, moral, human and social.²

9. The Evolution and Impact of Political Parties:

The significance of a political party is underscored by its distinctive function as an entity dedicated to achieving success in electoral campaigns. This

¹ Milan, Stefania. The Handbook of Peer Production and Collective Action ,Chapter 2. University of Amsterdam, The Netherlands, 2021.

² Fetner. The Religious Right In The United State And Canada :Evangelical Communities, Critical Junctures And Institutional Infrastructures .2018.

positions the party to potentially wield power if victorious in these electoral contests. Within the framework of a democratic system, political parties are pivotal in shaping the landscape of democratic competition, determining the active mechanisms by which political power is contested and transferred. In competitive multi-party political systems and elections center around party candidates vying for legislative or executive roles. Therefore, the political party serves as a fundamental tool through which elections are structured to select political representatives. The unique role and impact of political parties in democracies have prompted extensive scholarly analysis.

Political parties are political organizations that contest elections with the primary aim of gaining political power¹. The primary function of political parties is to contest elections in order to acquire and exercise power by, for example, putting forward candidates for public office². This primary function is underpinned by several other related functions such as aggregation of political preferences, division of political spaces, and representation. Political parties are also crucial in any democratic setting because they are the main channels for citizens to participate in the electoral process by providing alternative governments, educating voters in the election process, lobbying and ensuring their interests are acknowledged.

9.1. Comprehension and Role of Political Parties:

Political Parties can work a few things. Political factions communicate the needs, values and interests of people who usually share political associations. Representation depends on the capability of the party to verify that it represents the people. Political parties must take action as a main connector between participation, the necessity for responsibility, and its faithful leaders and other elected officials who are incumbents and need to be responsible. House of Representatives or the House of Councils for promoting the rise of political leaders is intended to reflect leadership and democratic accountability by authorizing them to exercise political power.³ Upon accepting a policy in a very comprehensive and complete manner. certain aspects of modern political parties tended to change. For example, factional parties are of little interest since we want to play a meaningful role in American politics. Political parties are organized with strong capabilities that remain in the position of the political

¹ Falkenbach, M. and L Greer, S. **Political parties matter: the impact of the populist radical right on health.** an Abstract Published on Nov 01. 2018 . 10.1093/eurpub/cky157.

² Lindenfors, P., Jansson, F., and Sandberg, M. **The Cultural Evolution of Democracy: Saltational Changes in A Political Regime Landscape.** Published on Nov 30. 2011. 10.1371/journal.

³ Jointly **They Edit Examining the Impact of Community Identification on Political Interaction in Wikipedia.** 2013. ncbi.nlm.nih.gov.

party throughout their political existence and are recognized as political authorities in the decision-making process¹.

Political parties have become an integral part of American politics since the early 19th century. Parties are active in electoral politics and have little or no measure and influence the operations of government as well as promote or restrain organized research on the countries legislations.²Political parties usually are organized into opposition and support the goals of a party head. A party can be involved in the opposition or a political rival. It is known that early twentieth-century parties were completely or mostly ruled by politicians known as bossism of the Kremlin Party who gradually faded with the introduction of the primary Congress nominee in the era of reforms in the early seventeenth century. What significant improvements in the internal composition and decision of the party, but it also damaged the party system.

9.2. Evolution of Political Parties in the United States:

In the history of the United States, the development of the major political parties, namely the Republicans and the Democrats, can be traced back to distinct founding moments. Each party was initially guided by a specific set of national policy priorities, commonly referred to as a party's platform which influenced their overall political structure. The Republicans emerged in the 1850s with a primary focus on ending slavery whereas the Democratic Party arose to challenge political banks, support farmers financially, and advocate for a currency system based on farm prices rather than bank interests.³Furthermore, the Democratic Party sought to provide a platform for ideological opposition against the prevailing belief that individual autonomy could be safeguarded from government intervention, including religious influences at the expense of societal inequalities and injustices.

The significance of political parties in representative systems has captivated the interest of scholars and political practitioners for over a century. Early researchers were preoccupied with understanding the continued existence of political parties which they viewed as somewhat unseemly. There was little exploration of the notion that parties were remnants of a more dynamic democratic past. Instead, parties were seen as contemporary challenges that demanded the attention of responsible citizens and reformist leaders. The

¹ Schulte Cloos, J. Representation and Accountability Developments in European Politics3. Bloomsbury Publishing. 2022.

² Divided Dems, United Reps, Party strategy and within party variation in immigration attitudes.

Sean Bock, Harvard University, 2020.

³ Divided Dems. *ibid*.

evolving perspectives on partisanship and the difficulties of influencing mass behavior in the era of advertising have brought renewed attention to the enduring relevance of political parties during times of rapid structural change.

10. Exploring Social Inequality: Causes, Consequences and Solutions:

10.1. A General Survey of Social Inequalities:

Today in various societies differences in built-in values such as ascribed primitives race, ethnicity, and sex underlie the resulting social inequality. However, it is the field of social inequality open to manipulation. The resulting social inequality is thus partially cultural and ideological in its origins. The inclusion of the analysis of cultural meanings and religious, political and educational institutions as well as other cultural expressions of human society by economic anthropologists, sociologists, and others has greatly broadened the explanation for social inequality, although the political economy of human societies remains an important focus for inequality research. For example, the role of colonialism, social class and capitalist conflict are seen as fundamental forces for the exclusion of less developed nations from the benefits of globalization and the international expansion of capitalist economic systems in developing nations .¹

10.2. Social inequality:

In its many manifestations, is interconnected and perpetuated by diverse cultural customs. It is posited that the key to understanding this phenomenon lies in examining it within a broader context of civilization, rather than focusing solely on a specific location or historical moment. Disparities in income and wealth between the affluent and impoverished have noticeably expanded in nearly all industrialized nations. Recent research indicates that shifts in wage disparities evolve over time, with higher wages typically concentrated at the upper echelons of the income distribution, thereby fueling inequality in earnings growth. Furthermore, the outlined patterns of social inequality are substantially influenced by global processes of economic and cultural amalgamation.²

Social inequality is the structured disparity that hinders individuals' access to economic, cultural and social resources. It is linked to varying levels of property, prestige and status within a society. This phenomenon involves the

¹ Nkrumah, T. and A. Scott, K. **Mentoring in STEM higher education: a synthesis of the literature to (re)present the excluded women of color.** Published on Jul 29.2022. doi: 10.1186/s40594 022 00367 7.

² Velandia Morales, A. Rodríguez Bailón, R and Martínez, R. **Economic Inequality Increases the Preference for Status Consumption.** Published on Jan 7.2022.

organization of society into a hierarchical system where power, status, and resources are unequally distributed, leading to varying access to key societal roles and rewards. Social inequality covers different aspects of social status, including economic well-being, power, health, housing, education and occupation. These advantages and disadvantages are distributed unevenly among individuals, groups, communities and societies.

10.3. Definition and Conceptual Frameworks:

Research on inequality has evolved from a simplistic focus on race, class, and gender to a more nuanced and intricate framework that acknowledges the interactive nature of these factors in perpetuating disparities across multiple levels.

The basic hypothetical structures across different scholarly fields for grasping social inconsistencies incorporate social definition, diversity, and social determinants of wellbeing. Social separation hypotheses dive into the more extensive cultural components administering social progressive systems and opportunities in life. Diversity places emphasis on the relationship between inequity and power, analyzing how individual identities along with historical and cultural contexts give rise to various manifestations of social disparities. Social determinants of health as ramifications of social inequality plays a significant role in shaping and being shaped by the institutions, policies and ideologies that perpetuate unequal health outcomes.

Intersectionality broadens the comprehension of linking social hierarchy processes and biases to provide more insight to researchers and programs aimed at finding solutions. The next aspect pertains to the structural and systemic disparities in society, factors that either perpetuate inequality or facilitate lasting solutions. The third viewpoint focuses on the interconnectedness at various levels - macro, meso, and micro - of different forms of social inequality with an emphasis on institutional and structural factors rather than biological ones. As a result, the conceptualization of biases related to inequality is prevalent across all disciplines. Common types of biases include selection bias, response bias, over-fitting models, self-report bias and recall bias.¹

Defining social inequality: is a complex task as there are numerous definitions from various viewpoints. In order to define social inequality, we must examine the structural and systemic expressions that exist on a broader level of analysis. This type of inequality is associated with social determinants

¹ Petrikova, I. **The Effects of Local Level Economic Inequality on Social Capital: Evidence from Andhra Pradesh**, India. 2022.

of health and arises from a combination of socio-ecological and societal factors. One approach to understanding social inequality includes considering multilevel inequality, theoretical perspectives influenced by social stratification and inequality along with intersecting domains of inequality and targeted solutions aimed at addressing these intersecting domains of inequality.¹

10.4. Historical Context:

Another legacy of the late 1960s is the remarkable intensification of economic inequality within the Black community, as previously egalitarian class and caste distinctions all but vanished. Such a development has not gone without notice. What Andrew Young had insisted was that the White response to poverty had always been public unrest, disturbance and disorder could lead to regime change. So, political disenfranchisement prevailed Regime still does. But so, too, does the prospect of changing the regime. What does remain less than noticeable is the actual and compelling evenness of recent US Black uppermost echelon success in the capitalist, finance and corporate or entrepreneurial economy. Alongside an indeed formidable income and wealth advantage for the large majority of White households, there is also a barely mentioned congruent reality of highly differentiated Black economic success up to and including Black financial and public moral empire builders. The salience of Black success is less financial per se than as vital elements within a much broader sense of the historical importance of supporters of civil rights pivoting amid the fall of Jim Crow toward the economic joining of hands across generic boundaries between socially marginalized identities. Key Black ‘movement’ figures who rose into prominence as figural expressions of later eras are neither classical money-media celebrities nor singularly political champions. Instead, they are both media types and thus public role models and possessors of social, institutional, and economic capital such that they have often proven vital in predicting fundamental national trend reversals. Especially if combining foundational social causes with advanced economic causes .²

11. Exploring the Intersection of Class and Gender in Politics:

Introduction:

The paper will elucidate the feminist argument that gender is not an isolated factor in women's lives, but intersects with various social categories like class to mold their experiences. Our focus will be on women's political

¹ C. Arcaya, M. L. Arcaya, A and V. Subramanian, S. **Inequalities in health: definitions, concepts, and theories.** Published on Jun 24.2015.

² Jonathan J.B. **Inequality is a problem of inference: How people solve the social puzzle of unequal outcomes.** London School of Economics and Political Science, published in 2018.

participation, with the primary goal of examining how class influences their political behavior in different contexts. We aim to highlight the significance of class in the analysis, stressing that it should not be viewed as, and is rarely solely, an independent or intervening factor in shaping political behavior. Another key objective of our study is to explore not just the importance of class (in shaping various aspects of political behavior such as voting behavior), but also to delve into how it impacts and what implications this has for our understanding of gender. This entails addressing the empirical gap that exists in the extensive literature on class politics, which has tended to overlook the political experiences of women and how they navigate class dynamics.

11.1. Background and Rationalization:

The current understanding of labor relations and societal hierarchy in relation to gender and social class focuses on either addressing gender and class disparities or incorporating gender while analyzing them from a class standpoint. Both approaches have been found to be insufficient. Referencing welfare state examination in Anglo-Saxon nations, Hurst illustrates how gender can be a distinct form of societal stratification alongside class and status, leading to a lesser influence of class on women's career trajectories compared to men. In a similar vein Gray's investigation into job paths and social classes in the Netherlands identified that the occupational distribution of women often reflects gender segregation in the labor market. Moreover, statistical research on women and social class frequently demonstrates that "changes in their spouse's societal status primarily impact women's social mobility.

This contends that this is imperative for two main reasons. Firstly, the class systems and cultures within capitalist societies are inherently gendered. Particularly for women, class exhibits gender-specific characteristics and repercussions. Secondly, as the dominant power hierarchy in advanced capitalist societies the gender hierarchy impacts the form and functioning of class systems, as well as the circumstances of class compulsion. Therefore to grasp the mechanisms of the class dynamics present in capitalist societies, we must scrutinize not only the facets of class processes that impact rather than mirror class devaluation but also the influences of the gender hierarchy on class structures and behaviors.

It is imperative to recognize the intersections of programs and struggles carried out by political organizations and movements, as well as the varying levels of resources and political opportunities that influence empirical analyses of their positions. Additionally, it is important to consider the normative issues that arise from the relationships between histories, analyses and strategies. These

factors must be viewed in the context of the historical background of contemporary capitalism including the widespread use of wage labor, the monetization of relationships, the decline in the value of human labor and the unique phase of European model relations beyond the working class.

The rise of globalization has brought about significant changes in various aspects including the new distribution of political tasks, the increased inclusivity of democratic engagement .The implementation of both austerity measures and dominant strategies (from transnational, governmental and capitalist entities) as well as the interconnectedness of actions. This has highlighted a convergence between marginalized groups such as women, the impoverished, and the subaltern and their more recent efforts towards collective activism and political representation. From a theoretical standpoint, the intersections between gender and class are crucial for a deeper understanding of these processes as they work in tandem to shape and influence societal structures. It is imperative to recognize the mutual influence and reinforcement between the normative and hierarchical aspects of class and gender as they are intricately connected in shaping the conditions and outcomes of these structures.

11.2. Feminist theory:

plays a crucial role in the feminist movement and is integral in shaping intellectual discussions on gender and its connections to various aspects of power and difference. One of the primary objectives of feminist theory is to acknowledge and challenge variations, conflicts and disruptions related to bodies, sexuality, gender and human behavior, while investigating the dynamics between different genders. The advancement of feminist theory which involves understanding the world through a lens that considers its societal impacts and serves as a basis for feminist ethics and politics always aims towards some form of social change outside of academic settings.

Feminist theory is important to deepen societal and scientific perceptions in health professions education, healthcare, and public health, joining other crucial, intense approaches, the theoretical work generated by the feminist activism that originated in the social and behavioral sciences and general cultural feminism is not toured.

Feminist theory links today to health professionals education and research with a critical tradition in science and public health, therefore health professions

demands interpersonal refinement and inclusive, impartial experiences. Feminist Theory is a hub to discuss gender inequalities and its myriad forms ¹.

It serves as an axle around which several feminist movements work - Liberal Feminism focuses upon socio-legal rights for women; Radical Feminism comprises literature on patriarchy, gendered violence, etc...

Over periods, feminism has inherently developed into waves, critical junctures, and a moderate parochial method of studying isolated types of feminism. The earliest concern was women's admission and the dignity of language more consistently available to hence the first surge was about vote and the second about educational and employment parity. The fourth and current shift blossomed during the late 1980's and the mid 1990's, emphasizing multiplicity, therefore the feminists demanded "intersectionality". Multiple feminist concepts have sustained and flowed out of the incremental development of various waves. Other influential types of feminism include liberal feminism, socialist feminism, marxist feminism, black feminism, critical feminism and post-modern feminist prose.

Feminist theory encompasses various approaches to education and research within health professions, thus addressing gender and sex biases and making clients, students, and researchers safer². Given the far-reaching implications of feminist theory, a variety of perspectives exist and no typical typology is definitive. Several methods to the interpretation of phenomena have appeared as a result of feminists' engagement with and resistance to the approaches of standard education and analysis. The feminist ideology adapts to local environmental, temporal, and cultural capabilities, and a large definition of feminism must emerge in order to interpret the observations provided and the suggestions for cultural enterprises. Marxist Feminism covers the subject of social structure and its relation with Women's oppression; and then there are Post-Modern Feminism and Intersectional Feminism - both of which challenge the conventional feminist paradigms³.

12. Overview of Political Socialization:

Among the various methodologies employed in the study of political socialization, this article details a specific approach: an analysis of the diverse theoretical perspectives on the subject, the development of a structured

¹ Qin, Y. Duan, W., Wu, Q. and Lu, Z. **Dismantling Gender Blindness in Online Discussion of a Crime/Gender Dichotomy.** Published in 2024.

² M. Finn, G. and E. L. Brown, M. Ova **looking feminist theory: a call for consideration within health professions education and research.** Published in 2022. ncbi.nlm.nih.gov.

³ M. Finn, G. and E. L. Brown, M.

framework, and the underlying assumptions guiding the presentation of evidence within this framework. Scholars in the field of political socialization widely acknowledge that this process is lifelong in nature, encompassing early influences on socialization and the enduring effects of ongoing political socialization. The focus is selective concentrating on four key elements: the essential knowledge individuals must possess, the informal channels through which learning takes place, the agents responsible for political education, and the resultant impacts of the socialization process. By bifurcating the approach at various junctures, the complexity of the field is streamlined while retaining its depth. An examination of evidence, drawn from a comparative analysis of two distinct age cohorts in upstate New York, serves to validate the efficacy of this method of dichotomization. The non-original components utilized in this study, alongside two practical applications of the approach, may encourage other researchers to contribute their own data in an effort to further corroborate or challenge the established distinctions in the field.

12.1. Definition and Conceptual Framework:

This study explores the widespread and vital role of political socialization in the field of political science and related areas of study to better understand its influence on political beliefs and actions, as well as the political structure itself. The examination covers theoretical perspectives, key elements of socialization (such as socializing agents and typical patterns of political socialization), theoretical frameworks and newly developed models, stages of the political socialization process and pertinent issues connected with these stages, and critical assessments of the field of political socialization. This analysis is relevant for individuals of all ages, including children, adults and the elderly, and for political systems and cultural contexts across the globe.

12.2. Political socialization:

Is the method through which individuals acquire political values, beliefs, attitudes, orientations, and other cultural insights about politics that form the foundation of their identity. Scholars and researchers in political science and related fields seek to comprehend this intricate process of political socialization. Inquiries into the timing, location, reasons, and mechanisms of political socialization, as well as its impact on political attitudes, behavior, and the political structure, have been extensively studied by scholars in the United States and other Western nations. Some aspects of political socialization research also overlap with the domain of political development, particularly in investigating how the political socialization process varies over time and across different political frameworks.

12.3. Importance and Significance:

The correlation between age and political beliefs is widely acknowledged. As individuals advance in age, they tend to exhibit greater support for the established norms. The critical inquiry lies in understanding the mechanisms and reasons behind the evolution of political attitudes over time. In essence, which factors influence a more precise assessment of the association between age and the development of attitudes. Sociologists Bernard Berelson, Paul Lazarsfeld, and William McPhee embarked on research in this area, drawing from various theoretical frameworks. They observed a disparity between the swift alterations in political conduct during brief periods and the gradual shifts in political beliefs that typically occur only in response to significant political events.

The theoretical frameworks and observed data pertaining to the process of political education are potentially significant due to their impact on how individuals perceive politics and society, as well as the direction in which they seek to guide them. Though in the short term these attitudes may not have a strong connection to individual political actions, in the long term they hold great importance. Individuals with a positive outlook on politics and society, who believe they can effect change, are more likely to demonstrate interest in political matters and actively participate. Conversely, those who feel disillusioned and disheartened may become disengaged from politics, leading to a lack of involvement that often vexes political observers. The link between socialization and political beliefs has been recognized for more than two decades, yet there remains much to learn about the mechanisms of this transformative process.

13. Agents of Political Socialization:

13.1. Political Socialization tools:

Educational institutions hold significant influence as a political socialization tool in advanced industrial democracies. With students dedicating considerable time to the educational system, schools have the capacity to instill habits and knowledge relevant to the political sphere. By the time individuals enter adulthood and complete their formal education, peer interactions tend to surpass family influence in terms of socialization. Nevertheless, individuals often maintain their core political beliefs over the course of their lives. While family dynamics are known to shape initial political values, their impact may be more pronounced in forming long-term economic attitudes and party affiliations rather than issue-related stances. Schools play a vital role in shaping political views during one's formative years. Even in cases where the curriculum does not explicitly impart specific values or behaviors, interactions with peers and

educators can serve as informal models. While familial guidance and the ideological structure of the educational system contribute to early political development, schools also play an integral role in this process.

13.2. Importance of Studying Primary Agents:

There are four primary agents of political socialization: family, peers, education, and media, among the many secondary agents of socialization such as religious institutions, work, and voluntary associations. The article discusses some of the most important primary and secondary agents about which both the empirical and normative literature have reached a consensus: family and education. The article also explains why the selection of the four primary agents is justified and why each does or does not deserve treatment as a primary political socializing agent. These agencies affect the political attitudes, political behaviors, and approaches to engage in political activities based on some common factors, such as immediate environment, emotional factors, and most importantly, economics.

13.3. The Role of Family in Political Socialization:

The fundamental sources and initial encounters of knowledge acquisition individuals encounter is within a social institution. By honing a variety of physical and cognitive abilities, being part of a family initiates the process of shaping one's personality. The family plays a significant role in shaping personalities through interactions among family members. These interactions can influence how a child understands and engages with other social groups. Both family and peer group interactions hold importance for children of diverse races and ethnicities. It is during childhood socialization that families instill political values. Research in cognitive development strongly suggests that children begin to form political views from a young age, as they are naturally curious and absorb information from their surroundings. The tension between individuals and their environment is where many political beliefs are acquired and developed. In fact, the family typically serves as the primary political educator for all children, regardless of their individual social circumstances.

The family is recognized as the natural and fundamental unit of society, deserving of both society and the state's protection. Essential to the fabric of our civilization, it serves as the primary influencer of children and serves as their main source of emotional support. The family's significance lies in its pivotal role during the early stages of its members' lives. This period is crucial in shaping individuals, particularly in the delicate realm of child psychology. As the initial group to whom children are exposed, the family assumes a primary role in their education. These formative experiences hold the power to shape

behaviors, attitudes, and interpersonal connections that endure throughout one's life. They lay the groundwork for ongoing socialization and guide individuals toward effective citizenship within a democratic society.

14. Genetics and History:

The resemblance between parents and their children is a commonly observed phenomenon in empirical research on public opinion. This pattern is found consistently not only in North America but also across the globe, leading scholars to typically consider parents as the main influence on their children's political education. Analogous to referring to electricity as the source of light without providing concrete evidence to support the claim, this notion lacks substantial proof. While the absence of evidence does not necessarily invalidate the proposition, it is imperative for the field of political socialization to delve deeper into investigating the validity of this central hypothesis and uncover its limitations.

Political behavior is predominantly acquired during early childhood rather than in later stages of life. The persistence of political attitudes and actions from early childhood through later years is explored, along with theories suggesting factors that influence this continuity. Cross-sectional studies frequently demonstrate correlations between the beliefs of parents and their offspring. Even when there are conflicting results longitudinal studies tracing these relationships from early childhood tend to be more convincing. The subsequent section underscores the diverse impact that parents have on individuals in different circumstances and examines evidence of how the significance of familial influence varies based on demographic and psychological factors, as well as the political context. It also indicates areas for further investigation in this field.

It is widely acknowledged that parents play a significant role in preparing children to fulfill their duties as citizens. Scholars have long recognized the importance of the family in shaping the political attitudes and behaviors of children. However, there are still unanswered questions due to numerous variables that complicate research in this area. This current study aims to examine these important variables within the family context. The main objective is to determine the relative impact of key variables believed to influence the political socialization process of children within the family setting. Data will be collected from students enrolled or graduated between 1993 and 2003 in the political science department, representing a diverse group of core undergraduate courses. Topics of discussion include parental roles, methods of behavior reinforcement, sources of political information, political discussions, effectiveness, demographics and college majors.

14.1. The Role of Peers in Political Socialization:

The transitional period in a child's political development, often seen in middle school, provides a key opportunity to introduce students to relevant information, proper attitudes, and favorable behavior in relation to the issues confronting their governing institutions. This article explains the rationale for backing the concept that peers should play a significant role in politics. Subsequent sections delve into the idea that peer influence can be a positive factor in enhancing young individuals' understanding of and deference for their political framework and processes.

14.2. The Role of Media in Politics:

The media are critical in our understanding of politics and government, particularly in the new era of open politics. With the telecommunication revolution and the availability of many new tools, including the Internet, the potential for saturation has increased. Because they are unequally distributed, however, they make it unlikely that the media either can or will serve as a magic key in the hands of its users. Moreover, the media are operating in a context and an environment that is rapidly changing internationally. Thus, it may be difficult to make generalizations about the media and their role or impact either over time or across the world. Finally while many media may be critical to learning about politics and government it is convenient to focus on the news media because they reach large audiences and are subject to scholarly scrutiny.

The media are often referred to as the fourth branch of government because of the power they wield. The media play a unique role as an intermediary between the politicians on the one hand, and the citizens on the other. Politicians need the media to reach the public and express their points of view or criticism. Citizens receive information about their political system and their elected officials from the media. The media select what people get to see. In general, the public does not see what happens, but what the media decide to show.

The principal purpose of the media in society: Is to facilitate human interaction. With the overall growth of society over time, the principal media have become larger, more automated, increasingly complex and more costly. The primary function of the communications systems is to improve the quality of life by providing and constructing access to avenues of social interactions, by expanding opportunities for human communications and by intensifying communication and social relationships to those people who live in large social systems. Broadcast and print communications combine to bring symbols and the symbolic content of sociopolitical life to the people; to make the people knowledgeable on the major issues of their times and to constitute a forum of

public discussion which is interesting relevant and timely. Such interactions are fundamental to the quality of life. The more and fuller the interactions the better the quality of life.

Media studies have made a significant contribution to contemporary politics and political communication, not least through the now well-documented nature of what academics such as David McQueen have termed the 'mediatized public sphere'. Yet as the empirical studies of media politics typified by classic texts and collections such as those edited by Ed Roberts, Martin W. Bauer, and others have shown, political communication can no longer be seen as the relatively simple phenomenon of politicians speaking and media presenting (or refusing to present). Politics as communication, that is, the wider and more contentious processes of political discourses and communication that lead to political events, politics in action, and formal communication, should also be criticized from within Political Studies, Political Sociology, Critical Discourse Analysis, Communication and Cultural Studies and Interdisciplinary Programs. Many spectacular instances of questionable decisions and events are underpinned by the media coverage and focusing that surround political motives and authority. These problems, for example, highlight a reliance on visual symbols and political language in the political persuasion of elections.

Manipulation of media can distort facts and can dole out wrong information to the citizens. History of a Nation can change because of the facts reported by the media. In totalitarian regimes, the control on the mass-media by the government is complete. In such political systems, people's attitudes and orientations towards the political system are changed with the help of mass-media.

14.3. Types of Media in Politics:

Traditional Media:

As TV, Broadcasting especially in today's world is still of high importance as technological tools provide a framework for its use and transformation. With social media being a new form of communication, traditional media are now open to many challenges and changes. Despite developing technology, traditional media have high criteria for reflecting the facts in the fastest and most reliable way. It is possible for newspapers, radio, and television to appeal to a mass audience through their own structure, subject interest, and fact-orientation, thus influencing public opinion and broadcasting campaigns and public announcement videos. Although traditional media have been accepted undoubtedly, when they are considered from the angle of their

use. It is an indisputable fact that the use of digital media has received an important place in the routine life of adult individuals.

Research in the social sciences, critical theory and humanities has made it quite clear that the digital transformation of the public sphere has significant consequences. An example of such research is the Blumler and Gurevitch classic of 1995. As numerous scholars have asserted since the mid-1990s, the impact of digital media on society is nothing short of transformational.

The substitution of data networks for traditional telecommunications (voice, text, and images) tends to bring about changes so profound that "mediatica," if used too strictly, risks failing to reveal a host of underlying problems. Within the span of a few decades, images, sounds, and texts have become so fluid and easily transportable that they have gone from being cultural to mass phenomena. It became accessible without restriction, first on the web, and most recently through "smart" mobile phones. Thus, with the digitalization of the tools used for symbolic production and their simplification, particularly by the lowering of costs, a single transferable principle has been developed.

Direct contact with the Political System:

The individual's personal experiences with the political system shape one's attitudes. A good experience with the political system helps one develop positive orientations towards the political system. Unemployment, obstacles in simple chores like getting a passport, driving license, etc. make the individual develop indifference towards the political system. The individual then prefers to migrate to some developed country. This explains the increasing international migration. The individual's direct interaction with the police, judiciary, political leaders, all lead to forming and moulding of one's political orientations.

Religion:

In developing as well as in developed countries, religion plays an important role in political affiliations. Peoples at times vote according to their religion. They join political parties propagating a specific religion. Children imbibe values through informal conversations within a family. The individual, it is generally seen initially orients towards parties to which their parents affiliate.

Conclusion:

Political socialization is a very powerful tool to shape political cultures. The various agents of political socialization can even help create an entirely new set of values and attitudes. Political socialization has to be healthy and positive. It can be moulded in the totalitarian regimes as well as in the developing countries. In the former it is controlled while in the latter it is general and diffused. Both situations are dangerous and need to be handled carefully by the few eternal vigilant citizens within the political system.

15. Political culture:

The concept of political culture may exhibit a range of characteristics, from the customs and beliefs of small communities like rural villages in India or tribal groups in Nigeria, to the intricate systems present in developed nations of Western Europe and North America. This encompasses a wide array of considerations, such as the determination of rightful governance and the basis of legitimate authority within a ruling regime. Furthermore, the question arises as to the extent to which the state should be concerned with the welfare and progress of its constituents, and the precise nature of this obligation. Additionally, the existence of universal and unchanging principles within the realm of political affairs is a topic of contemplation. These fundamental inquiries, among others, form the foundation of a society's political culture. Various esteemed contemporary political scholars have put forth differing viewpoints on the theory of political culture, each emphasizing a distinct facet of the concept. As of yet, there remains a lack of consensus regarding the definition, analysis, and significance of political culture.

Political culture refers to the shared set of attitudes, beliefs that a group of people have about their political system. This includes the values, opinions, and understanding of the citizens of the political process, which give order and meaning to a political process and which provide the underlying assumptions and rules that govern behavior in the political system.

Etymologically, the term "culture" is derived from the Latin word *cultus*, meaning "to care," which in turn has roots in the Greek word *cultus*, signifying care and labor. Culture encompasses the collective manner in which a society conducts itself, encompassing a broad spectrum of social knowledge and behaviors. In contrast, political culture specifically pertains to the processes by which decisions regarding all significant facets of public life are formulated and executed. The ongoing challenge of delineating political culture from other cultural aspects and aligning it with governmental responsibilities has been a central focus of political science. This subjective element is recognized as a

direct influencer on the operations of various political systems, whether in historical monarchies, contemporary authoritarian states or democratic societies. Political culture denotes the unique set of values, objectives, institutions and customs that shape a society's rationale and validation for its political preferences. It is characterized by the attitudes held by the populace of a country regarding political affairs within their nation.

15.1. Defining Political Culture:

Political culture is typically seen as an influential factor within a macrosociological framework influenced by the global world system. This broad concept encompasses significant national, regional and cultural variations, aligning with the comprehensive definition posited by Almond and Powell in their work on political systems. They define political culture as the ingrained patterns of thought and behavior of a population that guide and constrain political activities. In this perspective political culture reflects a society's fundamental values and is closely linked to how the public perceives their political system and determines their objectives and methods.

Political culture can be narrowly defined as the unique political attitudes and behavior exhibited by specific groups, such as different social classes, regions, or racial groups. Alternatively, it can be broadly understood as the shared political ideas and beliefs held by the majority of individuals within a society. In academic discussions, there is often confusion between the terms political ethos, political psychology, public opinion and political attitudes, as all these concepts offer distinct but overlapping frameworks for understanding political culture. One of the main challenges in studying political culture is determining how to define, it develops accurate measurement tools to capture its essence, and integrate it into broader social theories.

15.2. Types of political culture:

The three significant types of political culture from the viewpoints of Almond and Verba, Elazar and Huntington. Almond and Verba defined the parochial, subject and participant cultures. Elazar believed there was a traditionalistic, moralistic, and individualistic political culture. Huntington thought that there would be a clash of civilizations where cultures would be the driving force of problems between nations.

In *The Civic Culture*, perhaps the best known study of political culture, Almond and Verba say that 'the relationship between political culture and political structure is one of the most significant researchable aspects of the problem of political stability and change'.

Gabriel Abraham Almond and Sidney Verba categorized political culture based on one's level of political participation. Almond and Verba stated that there are three types of political culture:

- Participant, in which citizens understand and take part in politics and voluntary associations
- Subject, in which citizens largely obey but participate little, seeing themselves not as participants in the political process but as subjects of the government
- Parochial, in which citizens have neither knowledge of nor interest in politics and are only indistinctly aware of the existence of a central government . Parochial Political Culture, this type of political culture is one in which the citizens of the country have very little awareness of the central government, and they do not play an active role in government affairs. Parochial political cultures are commonly found in underdeveloped countries. This could be due to the citizens being uninformed or disinterested in politics. Because of their lack of involvement. The government officials tend to have disregard for the citizens there and parochial political culture is established. Some examples of parochial political cultures can be seen in various regions in Asia and Africa.

15.3. Characteristics of political culture

- It is a universal concept in that it is common to all societies.
- It is the system of empirical beliefs, values and expressive symbols..
- Every political system has its own political culture, which is dominated by diverse sub-groupings based on race, language, ethnicity, religion and other factors.
- Political culture is a subset of the general culture, hence it is an inherent element of the general culture.
- It creates a framework for political change
- Political culture is a comprehensive concept that touches every aspect of the political system.
- It is unique to every state, nation and society
- Political culture is a dynamic idea since it is always changing due to the influx of foreigners, outbreaks of war, revolutions and so forth.

15.4. Importance of Political Culture in Politics:

The political culture within a given political system can play a significant role in shaping national history and traditions, subsequently influencing the establishment of political institutions in emerging political systems. Individuals within a political community may adopt various actions, ranging from positive to negative, peaceful to violent, based on their identification with a particular political culture. Political leaders and elites play a crucial role in socializing members by utilizing symbols of political culture to garner support for their policies and legitimize the political institutions they represent.

Understanding the political culture of a political community is important for various reasons. Political culture creates a common understanding of political institutions and behavior in a particular political system which influences their abilities to achieve civility and orderly change. The type of political culture is also instrumental in determining the type and level of social, economic, and political development of a particular political system. Political culture may make individuals aware of the consequences of certain social and political behaviors and as a result influence or channel the behavior of individuals within the framework of political and social institutions and the political community.

Conclusion:

Sociology as a discipline became understood as a population science is that the scope to which it presently pretends would be significantly reduced. That is to say, in focusing on establishing the extent and form of such regularities through statistically grounded methods and on developing and testing mechanism-based explanations of their generation and persistence, there is no question that sociology would address a narrower range of topics, through less diverse research styles and with a more limited conception of its ultimate goals than is presently the case has observed that sociology ‘is not very good at excluding things from itself’ and that ‘once an area makes a claim for sociological attention. The discipline doesn't have any intellectually effective way of denying that claim’. Sociology as a population science would have such a way, that is, in being based on a relatively clear definition of what are and are not. It's appropriate objects of study and of what are in turn its appropriate methods of data collection and analysis and modes of explanation. However on the grounds that it would imply a clear diminution of the extent and diversity of the sociological domain that the idea of sociology as a population science is most likely to be disputed and resisted. In anticipation of such a reaction. A society can successfully end social issues if they become adamant. These social issues act as a barrier to the progress of society. Thus we must all come together to fight against them and put them to an end for the greater good.

GLOSSARY:

Actual role: social role which a person accomplishes according to his or her level of understanding, capacity and personality

Agricultural societies: This society, which still is dominant in most parts of the world, is based on large-scale agriculture, which largely depends on ploughs using animal labor.

Alienation: The phenomenon of being dehumanized and detached from the psychosocial support system due to system of domination, exploitation powerlessness and exploitation in the capitalist society.

Assimilation: is a social process whereby a group of individuals learns and accepts the values, norms, etc., of another group and becomes sometimes virtually identical with the dominant groups.

Case Study: A method which involves investigating a certain issue as a case taking longer time and investigating the phenomenon in depth.

Category: A quasi-social group which is characterized by dispersed collectivity, and members sharing common socioeconomic characteristics.

Community organization: A method of social work in which the whole community is addressed as a target.

Competition: is the process where by individuals, groups, societies, and countries make active efforts to win towards getting their share of the limited resources.

Conformists: Those members of a society or a group who abide by the rules and norms of the society (or the group).

Control theory: A sociological theory of crime and deviance which states that every person is naturally prone to make deviance, but most of us conform to norms because of effective system of inner and outer control.

Cooperation: is a social process whereby people join hands towards achieving common goals.

Cross sectional survey: A survey technique which aims to find out what opinions research

participants across sections of society have about a certain phenomena at a given point of time his survey represents fixed reflections of one moment in time.

Cultural relativism: The view that each society's culture should be understood in its own context; one's cultural lens should not be applied in judging other cultural values

Cultural universals: those culture traits, norms, values, rules etc which are shared by more or less all people in a given group or which are found universally among all societies.

Cultural variability: refers to the diversity of cultures across societies and places

Culture: A complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, law, morals, customs, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society

Culture lag: A phenomenon whereby non-material culture changes slowly, while material culture change fast.

Culture lead: The phenomenon whereby in some less developed societies, the change of non-material culture may outpace the material culture.

Culture shock: is the psychological and social maladjustment at micro or macro level that is experienced for the first time when people encounter new cultural elements such as new

things, new ideas, new concepts, seemingly strange beliefs and practices.

Custom: Is a folkway or form of social behavior that, having persisted a long period of time, has become traditional and well established in a society and has received some degree of formal recognition.

Deductive approach: An approach in which the researcher attempts to derive specific assertions and claims from a general theoretical principle and an approach which goes from general theory to particular claims.

De-socialization: refers to stripping individuals of their former life styles, beliefs, values and attitudes so that they may take up other partially or totally new life styles, attitudes and values.

Differential association theory: A sociological theory of deviance and crime maintains that people learn deviant acts through socialization;

Enlightenment: Is the eighteenth century social philosophical movement that emphasized human progress and the power of reason, and based on Darwinian theory of evolution.

Ethnocentrism: The attitude that one's own culture and one's own way of life is the center of the world and the best of all. This arises from ignorance about other ethnic groups and their ways of lives.

Ethno-methodology: literally meaning the study of people's methods is the study of how people make sense of life; involving uncovering people's basic assumptions as they interpret their everyday world.

Experimentation: A type of quantitative research technique used to explore cause and effect relationship between one and the other social phenomena. What causes what? What is the effect of one social phenomenon on the other?

Feminism: The theory that takes as its central theme the place and facts of women's underprivileged status and their exploitation in a patriarchally dominated society. Feminist sociology focuses on the particular disadvantages, including oppression and exploitation faced by women in society.

Hypothesis: A tentative statement waiting to be tested or proved by empirical data

Ideal role: that which a person is expected to perform Theoretically.

In-depth interview: A method of qualitative data collection in which the researcher asks

informants on certain issues taking long time and going deeply into the issue.

Inductive method: is a method by which the scientist first makes observation and collects data, on the basis of which he or she formulates hypothesis and theories.

Industrial Society: An industrial society is one in which goods are produced by machines powered by fuels instead of by animal and human energy

Language: a system of verbal and in many cases written symbols with rules about how those symbols can be strung together to convey more complex meanings.

Liberal feminism: A variant of feminist sociology which recognizes inequalities but believes that reform can take place without a fundamental restructuring of the social system Operant .

Macro- sociology: A level of sociological analysis that studies the large-scale aspects of society.

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