

Individual Change in Six Developing Countries

Alex Inkeles and David H. Smith

# BECOMII... MODERN

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## to DANIEL LERNER and KARL DEUTSCH who first rode upon the tiger

#### Acknowledgments

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A project so large as ours inevitably becomes a collective enterprise, some kind of team operation, in which the administrative officer comes to play a critical role. We were extremely fortunate in having the services of three exceptionally capable incumbents in that office. From the inception of the project through the completion of the fieldwork, Sharlee Segal exercised firm, competent, and energetic control over our financial and administrative affairs. Martha Puff displayed equally sterling qualities in managing our office after the project moved to Stanford in 1971. For the greater part of the life of the project, however, our affairs were in the hands of Elizabeth Dunn. She dealt with large budgets, mountains of paper, swarms of student assistants, and a goodly number of sensitive computer programmers and senior analysts with grace and quiet efficiency. Her contribution was indispensable to the project, and the director owes her a special and personal debt of gratitude.

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### The Fundamentals

### **1**Introduction

Every era confronts its distinctive social and political dramas. In the mid-twentieth century, center stage has frequently been dominated by the struggle of the so-called "third world," first for liberation from the colonial powers and then for development and for entry into the modern world. The sixties were to be the "decade of development." Yet many of the emerging nations developed very little, if at all, and some slid backward. To this outcome, general political instability and specific tribal, religious, and ethnic conflict made their contributions.

However, there was more to the explanation. Experience underlined what some observers had already pointed out: diplomatic recognition and membership in the United Nations do not create a nation-state. Many of the new states were actually only hollow shells, lacking the institutional structures which make a nation a viable and effective sociopolitical and economic enterprise. Economic and technical dependence on the colonial power had to be replaced by indigenous activities, institutions of government had to be adapted or newly created, school systems had to be revamped and extended, and all this, plus a myriad of other tasks, had to be accomplished with relatively meager resources. No wonder then that progress in nation building has not been more spectacular.

It required time to realize that nation building and institution building are only empty exercises unless the attitudes and capacities of the people keep pace with other forms of development. That such articulation is not simply, or perhaps not even primarily, a function of independence is clear from much of recent history. Mounting evidence suggests that it is impossible for a state to move into the twentieth century if its people continue

to live in an earlier era. A modern nation needs participating citizens, men and women who take an active interest in public affairs and who exercise their rights and perform their duties as members of a community larger than that of the kinship network and the immediate geographical locality. Modern institutions need individuals who can keep to fixed schedules. observe abstract rules, make judgments on the basis of objective evidence, and follow authorities legitimated not by traditional or religious sanctions but by technical competence. The complex production tasks of the industrial order, which are the basis of modern social systems, also make their demands. Workers must be able to accept both an elaborate division of labor and the need to coordinate their activities with a large number of others in the work force. Rewards based on technical competence and objective standards of performance, strict hierarchies of authority responsive to the imperatives of machine production, and the separation of product and producer, all are part of this milieu, and require particular personal properties of those who are to master its requirements.

In addition, modern political and economic institutions alike make certain general demands on the people who work within them. They require a greater acceptance of personal mobility, occupational and geographic; a greater readiness to adapt to changes in one's mode of working and living, indeed a propensity to be an innovator; more tolerance of impersonality, of impartiality, and of differences which may characterize the diverse backgrounds of fellow employees in complex organizations. Neither type of institution has much tolerance for fatalism or passivity, but rather favors persistent effort and confident optimism.

These and related qualities are not readily forthcoming from people rooted in traditional village agriculture, locked into near-feudal landholding patterns, dominated by self-serving elites desperate to preserve their power, dependent on inadequate and antiquated public institutions, and cut off from the benefits of modern science and technology as well as the stimulation of modern mass communication. However, alongside the struggle for national liberation and development, there has been, and continues to be, a struggle for personal liberation.

Some of the men and women tied by the binding obligations of powerful extended kinship systems have sought to assert their rights as individuals. Some have tried to win more freedom of choice in residence, occupation, political affiliation, religious denomination, marriage partner, friend, and enemy. They have sought to replace a closed world, in which their lives tread the narrowest of circles, with a more open system offering more alternatives and less predestination. From a desperate clinging to fixed ways of doing things, some have moved toward readiness for change. In place of fear of strangers and hostility to those very different from themselves, some have acquired more trust and more tolerance of

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human diversity. From rigidity and closed-mindedness, they have moved toward flexibility and cognitive openness. They now seek to break out of passivity, fatalism, and the subordination of self to an immutable and inscrutable higher order, in order to become more active and effective, and to take charge of their individual lives and of their collective destiny.

This process, however, occurs slowly, and, unfortunately, it usually affects only a few. Naturally, every national population is large enough to include some individuals who have quite spontaneously developed the qualities which make for quick adaptation to the requirements of the modern world. Some ethnic and religious groups also seem more likely to generate individuals of this type. Swiss Protestants, East European Jews, Parsis in India, and the Ibo in Nigeria all seem to qualify. Most men and women must, however, acquire their modernity on a more individual basis. It seemed to us there was no more relevant and challenging task for social psychology than to explain the process whereby people move from being traditional to becoming modern personalities.

We started, then, with the conviction that men are not born modern, but are made so by their life experience. We thought we knew how the process works, and we set out to test our theory. To accomplish our objective we had to make clear what we meant by a modern man. We derived our conception of the modern man in part from the forms of conduct we saw as likely to be inculcated by work in the factory, which we took to be the epitome of the institutional pattern of modern civilization, and in part from our estimate of the qualities more generally required of incumbents of the numerous roles — such as student, citizen, audience, producer, consumer, and family member — essential to the functioning of a large contemporary urban-industrial society. The details of our conception of the modern man are spelled out below. In the course of this book we hope to discover how far this conception reflects reality, and to show how much it can help us understand the process of individual modernization.

Our next task was to convert our conception of the modern man into a tool useful for research. This we tried to do by creating a long and fairly complex interview schedule based on questions and answers each of which could be scored to indicate whether a respondent was more inclined to the modern or to the traditional pole. Using a separate subset of questions to reflect each topic, we explored all of the themes we had built into our own conception of the modern man as well as themes which other theorists had identified as relevant to judging individual modernity. One of the major challenges facing us was to discover whether these discrete elements held together in a more or less coherent syndrome which one could sensibly speak of as designating a "modern man," or whether they would prove to be a mere congeries of discrete

and unrelated traits, each of which characterized some modern men and not others. Answering this challenge involved us in a complex methodological excursion into the construction of an attitude-value-behavior scale.

In fact, it proved possible to develop a composite scale to measure individual modernity in general, one which had considerable face validity, met quite rigorous standards of test reliability, and could be effectively applied cross-culturally. The effort to develop such a scale was no mere exercise. For example, a few subthemes which we had assumed to be part of the syndrome of individual modernity, and some which had been nominated by others, failed to make a case for themselves in our empirical test. The scale also provided an essential condition for the main objective of our study — to explain what makes men modern. It enabled us to distribute men validly and reliably along a dimension of individual modernity. It then became our task to explain why particular individuals fell at one or the other end of the continuum.

In the design of our sample we brought our theory and our test instrument into contact with empirical reality. Our theory states that men become modern through the particular life experiences they undergo. More specifically, it emphasizes the contribution of man's work experience to making him modern. We believed that employment in complex, rationalized, technocratic, and even bureaucratic organizations has particular capabilities to change men so that they move from the more traditional to the more modern pole in their attitudes, values, and behavior. Among such institutions, we gave prime emphasis to the factory as a school in modernity. We also thought that urban living and contact with the mass media would have comparable effects. While emphasizing such modes of experience as more characteristic of the modern world, we did not neglect to study education, which earlier research had shown to be a powerful predictor of individual modernity. We also measured other personal attributes such as age, religion, ethnic membership, and rural origin.

These and several dozen other variables which our theory, or other theories, identified as plausible explanations for individual modernity had to be taken into account in the design of our research. Interviewers trained by our project staff questioned almost 6,000 men from six developing countries: Argentina, Chile, India, Israel, Nigeria, and East Pakistan, now Bangladesh. Our goal was to reach 1,000 in each country, the sample to include peasants, industrial workers, and persons in more traditional pursuits in town, all selected to represent ethnic, religious, regional, residential, and other important social classifications. The material thus collected forms the main basis of our study.

In addition to the analysis, however, we have also presented a fairly