The Social Condition Condition Humanity

Irving M. Zeitlin

An Introduction to Sociology

Irving M. Zeitlin

University of Toronto

THE SOCIAL CONDITION OF HUMANITY:

An Introduction to Sociology SECOND EDITION

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THE SOCIAL CONDITION OF HUMANITY

For Esther, Ruthie, Michael, Bethie, and Jeremy

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Preface to the Second Edition

In this new edition I have taken the opportunity to add new material which is essential for an understanding of the world in the late twentieth century.

The chapter on ethnic minorities now includes a discussion of the term *race*. This word is firmly a part of the popular vocabulary. People speak of the white, black, and yellow races, and the term is even mistakenly applied to religious and cultural groups. I therefore provide a much-needed clarification of the concepts "race" and "ethnic groups."

In chapter 9, I have added data from the 1980 U.S. census on marriage and divorce and on households of the family and nonfamily types. To chapter 12 I have added new material on white-collar and corporate crime; and in chapter 13, I have made a few small changes in the section on the Greek city-state in order to reflect current scholarly opinion more faithfully.

The most significant and substantial change, however, is a new final chapter called The Developed and the Developing Countries: A Program for Human Survival. Conceived as a continuation of chapter 14, Social Change, Modernization, and Development, the new material addresses several urgent questions: Why has the American economy fallen behind? What can be learned from the experience of other capitalist-industrial countries? What can be done about the plight of a large portion of the Third World populations where poverty is so extreme that it frequently results in massive starvation, social chaos, and brutal repression?

Preface to the Second Edition

Finally, the new chapter deals with the most urgent question of all: The entire human race and, indeed, all of earth's inhabitants today live in the shadow of the danger of a nuclear holocaust. Can this frightful menace be eliminated? More and more people now recognize that there is only one way to answer this question if humanity is to survive.

I.M.Z.

Contents

- 1 SOCIOLOGY: ITS SCOPE AND CENTRAL CONCERNS 3
 Ouestions Addressed Sociologically in This Book 5
- 2 THE CONCEPT OF CULTURE 11

The Human Species in the Animal Kingdom 11 Humanity's Closest Zoological Relatives 15 Proto-hominoids 17 The Emergence of the Human Species 18 Culture: A Uniquely Human Condition 20 The Uniqueness of Humanity 32

3 SOCIALIZATION: BECOMING HUMAN 34

The Instinctualist Doctrine 35
A False Interpretation of Darwin's Theory 39
Human Sexuality: Is There a "Sex Instinct"? 43
The Behavioristic Doctrine 45
Mind, Self and Society 49
Freud's Theory of Repression 55

4 SOCIAL ORGANIZATION I: PRIMARY GROUPS AND OTHER MICROCOSMS 61

Primary Groups 63
The Primary Group as a Community 82

Contents

5 SOCIAL ORGANIZATION II: WHOLE SOCIETIES AND OTHER MACROCOSMS 85

The Problem of Order 85
Utilitarian Theories 88
From Mechanical to Organic Solidarity 90
Functionalism 94
The Marxian View of Social Organization
Introduction: Philosophical Foundations 99
The Marxian View of the Problem of Order 112
Bureaucracy 115

6 SOCIAL STRATIFICATION I: THE STUDY OF SOCIAL INEQUALITY 124

The Concept of Class 124
Changes in the Structure of Capitalism Since the Late
Nineteenth Century 133
The Upper Class in Present-day Capitalist Society 135
The New Middle Class 139
The Working Class 143
Class Consciousness 147
The Underclass 149

7 SOCIAL STRATIFICATION II: OTHER APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF SOCIAL INEQUALITY 153

The Functionalist Theory of Stratification 154 Conflict-Coercion Theory 159 Elites and Ruling Classes 163 The Ruling Class 167

8 ETHNIC MINORITIES IN THE UNITED STATES 171

The Concepts of Race and Ethnic Group 171
Ethnic Immigration in Earlier Eras of American History 178
Later Immigration Patterns 179
Black Americans 182
Puerto Ricans 189
Mexican Americans 192
American Indians 199

9 THE FAMILY IN FLUX 206

X

The Nuclear Family 207
Monogamy and Polygamy 211
The Western Family: Glimpses of Its History 213

Husbands and Wives: Is Marriage Good for Them? 216
Interpreting Family Statistics 220
Experiments with New Forms 223

10 RELIGION AND SOCIETY 227

The Social Origins of Religious Phenomena 229
Magic, Science and Religion 237
Totem = Father = God 240
Religion and Reason 243
Religion as Alienation 244
Religion and Socioeconomic Change 247
The Secularization Thesis 254

11 SOCIAL MOVEMENTS AND COLLECTIVE BEHAVIOR 261

The Rise of Nazism in Germany 262
The Chinese Communist Revolutionary Movement 275
The American Civil Rights Movement 290

12 CRIME AND OTHER FORMS OF DEVIANT BEHAVIOR 302

Crime and Punishment 304
A Sociological Theory of Criminal Behavior 307
Anomie and Subcultures 311
The Emergence of Subcultures 312
Techniques of Neutralization: How Delinquents Rationalize
Their Law Violations 314
Crime and the American Underclass 316
White-Collar Crimes 323
A Note on Homosexuality as Social Deviance 328

13 CITIES THEN AND NOW: THE URBANIZING PROCESS 334

The Earliest True Cities 337
The Polis: The Greek City-State 338
Medieval Cities and Towns 345
The Beginnings of Capitalist Manufacturing 349
Modern Cities 352
From City to Suburb 355
The Urban Crisis 358

14 SOCIAL CHANGE, MODERNIZATION, AND DEVELOPMENT 362

Functionalist Theories of Social Evolution 364 Classical Evolutionary Theories 365

Contents

Is Classical Marxism an Evolutionary Theory? 368
Modernization and Development: The Classical Cases 371
Capitalism, Colonialism, and Underdevelopment 373

15 THE DEVELOPED AND THE DEVELOPING COUNTRIES: A PROGRAM FOR HUMAN SURVIVAL 384

The Second Industrial Revolution 387
The American Economy Falls Behind 389
Learning from Other Capitalist Countries: Japan and West Germany 392
Democratic Planning for the United States? 396
The Developing Countries 401
Abolishing Nuclear War 410

NOTES 417

SOURCES AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READING 439

NAME INDEX 453

SUBJECT INDEX 457

THE SOCIAL CONDITION OF HUMANITY

Sociology: Its Scope and Central Concerns

If one were to ask the majority of sociologists to define the scope and substance of sociology in a few sentences, they most likely would reply in something like the following terms.

Sociology is a social science devoted to the study of human groups of all kinds and all sizes. A group may be defined as two or more interacting individuals. The interaction of individuals gives rise to a variety of social relations and social processes such as cooperation, competition, conflict, and domination. The full range of human behavior and relations is the subject matter of sociology.

We call sociology a *science* because our main intellectual aim is to comprehend and explain the workings of the social world. Like all sciences, sociology pursues truth and knowledge by employing methods of inquiry based on logic and evidence and by subjecting theories and findings to an ongoing critical examination.

However, the statement I have placed in the mouths of my colleagues tends to exaggerate their unity of outlook. The differences among sociologists are often as significant as their common ground. Some sociologists imitate the methods of the natural sciences and see themselves working in close parallel with physicists and chemists; other sociologists believe they share the aims of novelists and poets. Between those extremes there is a wide range of research methods, techniques, ideas, and just plain notions. Nevertheless, the several different sociologies do have something in common that may be called the sociological *perspective* or approach.

The Social Condition of Humanity

The essentials of the sociological approach are best conveyed by introducing the student to the pioneers of sociological theory and analysis who wrote in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Their works are now regarded as the classic tradition of sociological thinking because they have stood the test of time. We refer to these writings again and again; we rely on pioneers' theoretical ideas; we employ their concepts; we continue to investigate questions they raised; and, finally, we emulate their intellectual craftsmanship. In a word, the classic tradition provides the theoretical foundations of the sociological perspective.

In this introduction we cannot fully convey the intellectual riches of that tradition, nor can we dwell on the specific works and ideas of the thinkers who contributed to it. Those are among the tasks of this book as a whole. All we can do here is to provide a general idea of the tradition's significance.

Not all sociologists would agree on the thinkers to be included in the classic tradition. Some of my colleagues would have longer lists than others. However, most lists would have to include at least three of the masters who receive detailed consideration in this book: Emile Durkheim, Karl Marx, and Max Weber. Although the names of these men are not likely to mean anything to the beginning student, I mention them here and postpone introducing them until the appropriate contexts in the following chapters.

The founders of the discipline which we today call sociology did not necessarily look upon themselves as professional sociologists. One finds in their writings an exploration of the full scope of the human condition. They freely availed themselves of the intellectual resources of anthropology, psychology, history, economics, and philosophy. Today those fields of study are distinct academic disciplines with jealously guarded borders. But for the classical sociological thinkers, academic boundaries were either nonexistent or quite fluid. They were more interested in addressing significant questions than in remaining faithful to this or that academic area.

It is therefore in the spirit of the classical tradition that sociology is conceived of and introduced in this book. Following in the footsteps of the pioneering masters, we shall try to focus attention on key questions. In the remainder of this introduction, I merely raise some of those questions in the hope that the student will agree on their importance and look forward to addressing them.

QUESTIONS ADDRESSED SOCIOLOGICALLY IN THIS BOOK

What are the similarities and differences between humans and other living creatures? It is true that human beings share many physiological characteristics with some other members of the animal kingdom. But is it not also true that the human possesses something *more* than they do? What does that "more" consist of?

A related issue is the nature of human nature. Is the human being driven by instincts, by internal, genetically determined biopsychic forces? Are humans innately aggressive, as Konrad Lorenz and other prestigious students of animal behavior have alleged? Or to take an opposing but equally influential view, are humans wholly determined by external, environmental factors? The psychologist B. F. Skinner, for example, has claimed that human beings are passive entities totally shaped by external stimuli. For Skinner and his followers, "autonomy," "will," "mind," "self," and other forms of consciousness are just so many illusions. Finally, there is the question raised anew in recent years by sociobiologists: How do the principles of human social organization compare with those on which animal societies are based?

As one shifts attention to large human organizations and societies, new theoretical problems emerge. How does a society establish and maintain order, that is, ensure a measure of internal peace that will enable its members to attend to their vital affairs? What is the connection between order and justice? That question was skillfully explored by the renowned French sociologist Emile Durkheim, who noted that modern industrial society is largely based on formal contractual relations. Contracts are often made between social unequals, where one party dominates and the other has no choice but to serve or to suffer worse consequences. Durkheim's reply, as we shall see, raises the critical question of whether a social order resting on basic social inequalities can be stable.

However, the social theorist who raised that question most dramatically was Karl Marx, the well-known nineteenth-century writer whose ideas have had so much political influence in the present century. Sociologists have increasingly recognized that Marx made significant contributions to sociological theory and analysis, especially for the study of social classes and social change. Though Marx and Marxism are highly controversial subjects, I shall try to discuss his work objectively, with the aim of highlighting his sociological contributions.

Social stratification is the term sociologists employ to describe the

study of inequalities based on wealth, power, prestige, and other social conditions. Key questions are: How do basic social inequalities come about? How are they perpetuated? Are modern societies still structured along social-class lines? Some sociologists favor a social-class type of analysis; others do not. Some sociologists believe that basic social inequalities can be reduced and even eliminated. Others insist on the necessity of social inequality, arguing that a society's social positions must be stratified and that the rights and duties associated with those positions must be unequal.

Similarly, some theorists hold that throughout history, from the dawn of civilization to the present, two classes of people have been evident: One that rules and another that is ruled. That state of affairs has prevailed whether government has been despotic, aristocratic, democratic, or what have you. Moreover, the division of society into rulers and ruled, those theorists maintain, is inevitable and bound to persist so long as there are human societies on earth. We shall subject several such theories to close scrutiny.

One very clear manifestation of social inequality is the status of ethnic minorities. Ethnic minorities the world over have continued to suffer from a variety of disabilities, including prejudice, discrimination, segregation, exploitation, and persecution. The vastness of the subject constrains us to focus attention on minorities in the United States. Our analysis begins with a historical overview of ethnic immigration from the colonial era to the 1930s. A sound generalization may be made concerning all the European minorities that immigrated in the course of those three centuries: They eventually improved their economic circumstances considerably. However, the lot of the groups that arrived since the 1930s has been quite different. The major influx since the 1930s has consisted of Spanish-speaking minorities from Central and Latin America, people of Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, and other Spanish-speaking origins. The Mexican Americans are the most numerous group, and they also constitute the largest ethnic minority in the United States after black Americans. The vast majority of the Spanish-speaking people in the United States find themselves at the bottom of the socioeconomic pyramid or in what we call the underclass. They thus share economic circumstances similar to those of the majority of black Americans. Finally, American Indians, though native to the continent, are also among the most disadvantaged. It is therefore with good reason that we give several ethnic groups more sustained consideration than others.

Social institutions have been central to the concerns of sociology from

6