

kitchen or soliciting donations on the street. Alternatively, they might turn to criminal activity to earn the income needed to provide for their families.

Thomas Theorem: A theorem stating that if people define a situation as real, it is real in its consequences. The Thomas Theorem parallels the symbolic interactionist perspective, which emphasizes how social actions are the result of shared definitions of a situation.

Volitional criminology: A particular way of framing crime as a social problem. From this perspective, the public understands crimes to be the result of individuals' moral failings and their decisions to act illegally, rather than the effect of social forces such as poverty or racial discrimination.

White-collar crimes: Crimes that take place within the business and corporate sector, such as false advertising, unfair labor practices, and embezzlement. Although street crime is often assumed to be a more serious social problem, white-collar crimes actually cost society more and affect a wider public.

Chapter Twelve: Work and the Economy

Capitalist economic system: A type of modern economic system in which people and organizations invest capital in the production of goods and services to make a profit. Workers invest their labor and, in turn, receive wages. Owners, on the other hand, make a profit by keeping their costs low. Capitalism requires a free market in which producers can compete with one another and freely enter into contracts to buy or sell.

Craft workers: Employees who combine an intense pride in their work with a broad knowledge of tools, materials, and processes as well as manual skills acquired by long training and experience.

Deindustrialization: Systematic disinvestment in a nation's manufacturing infrastructure.

Deskilling: A term referring to the process by which workers' skills are built into machines, thus removing the necessity and value of the workers themselves. This process originated with the emergence of capitalism and factory labor, and it continues today as a function of the increasing abilities of computers and technologies.

Division of labor: The specialization of tasks required to produce goods. The culmination of the division of labor occurred at the original Ford production plant, where thousands of auto workers performed highly specialized tasks on an assembly line.

Economy: The social institution primarily concerned with production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services.

Formal organization: A cooperative system that serves to integrate the contributions of individual participants. Formal organizations have an official structure, with formal rules and sanctions governing the operation of the system. They contrast with informal organizations, which refer to the various unofficial practices that develop within the organization, often initiated by employees.

Free agent: An individual who does not seek jobs but, rather, is on the lookout for projects, new knowledge and information, and connectedness through the World Wide Web. Free agents do not require a physical location to work; what they do need is a powerful computer, programming languages, and access to the Internet. They have project contracts, not jobs, and run their own business operations.

Gender gap: Broadly speaking, the difference between men's and women's labor-force participation.

Industrial economy: An economy characterized by the employment of large numbers of workers in the mass production of manufactured goods (e.g., on conveyor-belt-driven assembly lines at factories). The industrial economy reached its peak during the twentieth century.

Making out Introduced by Michael Burowoy, a term referring to workers' willingness to consent to labor conditions inasmuch as they have the freedom to resist management pressures and still come out ahead.

Mixed economic system: A type of modern economic system in which elements of socialism (e.g., state ownership of utilities) are introduced into an otherwise capitalist society. Britain, France, and Scandinavia are examples of countries with mixed economic systems. Historically, such systems have tended toward capitalism.

Outsourcing: The process by which corporations and businesses send work to off-site contractors (often outside the country) in order to avoid paying high wages or providing expensive benefits.

Professionals: Workers characterized by control of a large body of abstract, formal knowledge; substantial autonomy from supervision; authority over clients as well as subordinate occupational groups; and the claim that they will use their knowledge for the benefit of their clients, putting their clients' interests above their own when necessary.

Service economy: An economy devoted to supplying services, such as information processing, teaching, nursing, advertising, marketing, or food.

Socialist economic system: A type of modern economic system in which the capital invested and the profits from production and supply of goods and services are vested in the state. The twentieth century witnessed socialist economies in Russia (then the USSR), Eastern Europe, Cuba, and parts of Asia (China, North Korea, and Vietnam). Nearly all of these state-run economies have since been transformed in a capitalist direction; the exceptions are North Korea, China, and Cuba, which have kept significant parts of their economy under the control of the state.

Taylorism: A system of “scientific management” developed by industrial engineer Frederick Taylor. Taylor believed that there was one best way to perform every task, and that this way could be discovered by observing workers and then developing a more efficient means of accomplishing their work. His ideas were the predecessors to modern quality control as well as the modern industrial ethic behind Fordism.

Chapter Thirteen: Education

Charter schools: Schools that focus on a particular method, theme, or curriculum. Charter schools are publicly funded but give parents and students a degree of autonomy in school government.

Conflict perspective: The view that education contributes to maintaining the status quo by revealing how education molds individuals to fill the needs of an unequal society. The conflict perspective rests on the assumption that there are conflicting groups and interests in society, and that education reflects these conflicts.

Credential inflation: The rising level of educational attainment required for jobs whose skill requirements remain largely unchanged.

Cultural capital: A concept introduced by Pierre Bourdieu referring to cultural qualities that are prized in the educational system as well as by society overall. These qualities include the “right” language, access to books, and exposure to cultural forms such as art, music, and theater.

Cultural relativism: In contrast to ethnocentrism, a perspective whose advocates see all cultures as equally valuable and reject any ranking of cultures and their products in terms of quality.

Democratic equality: A goal of education that refers to the function of education to prepare good citizens.

Education: A term that refers broadly to the processes by which individuals develop their capacities by acquiring knowledge and receiving training in life skills,

varying from how to behave toward others to how to use particular technologies. Education is both an informal and formal process; it can occur at home and between friends as well as in schools.

Functional illiteracy: The inability to read or write at a level sufficient for every day living.

Functionalism: The functionalist, or structural-functionalist, perspective focuses on the contribution of the parts of a structure to the maintenance of the whole. It rests on the assumption that there is no fundamental conflict between the demands of the parts.

Labeling theory: A microsocial attempt to explain differences in educational attainment. Labeling theory maintains that students who are given the impression that they are dumb and not expected to succeed may incorporate this label as part of their identity and behave accordingly.

Macrosocial: A term describing an approach that looks at the “big picture”—that is, at social structures and their role in the maintenance of a whole social system.

Magnet schools: Schools whose aim is to distribute students and desegregate schools on the basis of special interests or talents, such as science, mathematics, art and music, and vocational education.

Microsocial: A term describing an approach that focuses on individuals, such as students and teachers in the classroom. Microsocial perspectives tend to be interactionist, as they address social relationships and everyday interactions.

Overcredentialing: The overproduction of academic qualifications relative to the occupational need for advanced skills.

Schooling: A term that refers to the time spent in formal educational institutions, such as elementary and high schools, as well as in colleges and universities.

Social efficiency: A goal of education suggesting that the purpose of education is to train workers.

Social mobility: A goal of education pertaining to the ability of individuals or groups to change their social position or status within a social hierarchy. While societal myths such as the “American Dream” imply that society is open and meritocratic and that social mobility for the better is simply the result of hard work, long-standing inequalities suggest that this is not the case.

Value climate: The atmosphere in a school. Value climate is influenced not only by the individuals in the student body but also by factors such as principal leadership, student behavior, and teacher morale. The assumption is that if these factors are

positively balanced, the value climate will improve, and the school will provide a better learning environment and be more favorable to achievement.

Vocationalism: The shift in educational curriculum away from academic learning toward providing training for skills necessary to carry out job roles.

Voucher system: A market-oriented approach to education in which families with school-aged children are given money vouchers that are valid for a year of education at the school of their choice.

Chapter Fourteen: Health and Medicine

Alternative medicine: Forms of treatment that fall outside of conventional scientific medicine, including prayer, homeopathy, and acupuncture.

Biomedical model: The dominant sets of beliefs, values, and assumptions in Western medicine. The biomedical model assumes that a separation exists between mind and body, whereby illness is in the body in isolation from the mind. It concentrates primarily on the body and its functions with very little account of social, psychological, or behavioral factors in disease. It asserts that every disease is caused by a single agent that can be treated with the correct remedy. And it likens the human body to a machine whose broken parts are to be repaired or replaced. Individuals seeking to maintain or regain health according to the biomedical model are expected to exercise self-control and regulate themselves, as well as to submit themselves to the authority of medical experts.

Civic community: A sense of solidarity within a society. Robert Putnam, who coined the term, measured civic community on the basis of individuals' involvement in public life. Like Durkheim's concept of moral community, Putnam's civic community suggests that a relationship exists between social integration and the health and success of an individual.

Disease: A general lack of comfort. Examples of disease depend on a given society's definition of what is "comfortable," reflecting the society's concept of the good life.

Health: The normal functioning of an organism. Examples of health depend on a given society's definition of which functions are "normal," reflecting the society's concept of the good life.

Life expectancy: A measure that refers to the average number of years individuals are expected to live. Just as social factors influence morbidity and mortality rates, life expectancy varies with respect to racial and gender structures. For example, compared with more affluent people, those beset by poverty are more likely to