

Social inequality refers to relational processes in society that have the effect of limiting or harming a group's social status, social class, and social circle.

There is a possibly apocryphal story about an interaction between him and Gustav Cassel, where Cassel was reported to say, "Gunnar, you should be more respectful to your elders, because it is we who will determine your promotion," and he replied, "Yes, but it is we who will write your obituaries. In , he met Alva Reimer, whom he married in His analysis strongly influenced the Stockholm school. Early career[edit] Between and he studied in Britain and Germany. He was a Rockefeller Fellow and visited the United States in " During this period he published his first books, including *The Political Element in the Development of Economic Theory*. Returning to Europe, he served for one year as associate professor in the Graduate Institute of International Studies, Geneva, Switzerland. Later, however, he accused the movement of ignoring the problem of distribution of wealth in its obsession with economic growth, of using faulty statistics and substituting Greek letters for missing data in its formulas and of flouting logic. He wrote, "Correlations are not explanations and besides, they can be as spurious as the high correlation in Finland between foxes killed and divorces. However, the reference to ex ante and ex post analysis has become so usual in modern macroeconomics that the position of Keynes to not include it in his work was currently considered as an oddity, if not a mistake. As Shackle put it: Myrdalian ex ante language would have saved the *General Theory* from describing the flow of investment and the flow of saving as identically, tautologically equal, and within the same discourse, treating their equality as a condition which may, or not, be fulfilled. During this period he was heavily criticised for his financial agreement with the Soviet Union. At the same time he was accused of being responsible for the Swedish monetary crisis in Gunnar Myrdal headed a comprehensive study of sociological, economic, anthropological and legal data on race relations in the United States funded by the Carnegie Corporation, starting in Sterner and Arnold Rose. In the generations since the Civil War, the U. Supreme Court in its decision in *Brown v. Board of Education*, which outlawed racial segregation in public schools. Myrdal planned on doing a similar study on gender inequality, but he could not find funding for this project and never completed it. During his tenure, he founded one of the leading centers of economic research and policy development. Myrdal resigned as Executive Secretary in Board of Education decision. A Report on the Bandung Conference. Between and , he was a professor of international economics at Stockholm University. Throughout the s, he worked on a comprehensive study of trends and policies in South Asia for the Twentieth Century Fund. The study culminated in his three-volume *Asian Drama: An Inquiry into the Poverty of Nations*, published in In , he published a companion book called *The Challenge of World Poverty*, where he laid out what he believed to be the chief policy solutions to the problems he outlined in *Asian Drama*. Gunnar Myrdal strongly opposed the Vietnam War. In *Asian Drama*, Myrdal predicted that land reform and pacification would fail in Vietnam and urged the United States to begin negotiations with North Vietnam. War Crimes in Indochina. He also presided over the Stockholm International Peace Research Institute, an international watch-dog for the arms trade. He shared the Bank of Sweden Prize in Economic Sciences otherwise known as the Nobel Memorial Prize in Economics with Friedrich Hayek in , [17] but argued for its abolition because it had been given to such "reactionaries" as Hayek and Milton Friedman. Myrdal was hospitalized for two months before he died in a hospital in Danderyd, near Stockholm, on 17 May Through the introduction to "*Asian Drama*" with the title "*The Beam in our Eyes*" a biblical reference; cf. This behavioral approach is narrowly connected to behavioralism and is built on the idea that the logical gulf between "is" and "ought" is more sophisticated than just dividing premises into categories. As political science normally is considered more descriptive than economics, one might get the idea that Myrdal should not have dealt systematically with the values applied to economics. On the contrary, Myrdal connected social science, political science and economics as a practitioner. Myrdal published many notable works, both before and after *American Dilemma* and, among many other contributions to social and public policy, founded and chaired the Stockholm International Peace Research Institute. Internationally revered as a father-figure of social policy,

he contributed to social democratic thinking throughout the world, in collaboration with friends and colleagues in the political and academic arenas. At the Cold War time, In *Beyond the welfare state* he wrote, he proposed idea of welfare world to break the limitation of the West welfare state. However, he also thought it is more difficult to establish the welfare world than a welfare state. Nationalism of already existing Western welfare states preventing development in underdeveloped countries. Other difficulties of development in the developing countries. Existence of the communist countries acting as a provocateur for more revolutionary transformations. *The American Economic Review*, vol 21, no 1, Mar Population, a Problem for Democracy. Harvard University Press, *The Negro Problem and Modern Democracy*. Conference of the British Sociological Association, *An International Economy, Problems and Prospects*. *Rich Lands and Poor*. *Value in Social Theory: A Selection of Essays on Methodology*. Paul Streeten, published by Harper, *Beyond the Welfare State*. *America and Vietnam* "Transition, No. International Organization, Vol 22, No. *An Inquiry into the Poverty of Nations*, *Objectivity in Social Research*, *The Challenge of World Poverty*:

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The Sveriges Riksbank Prize in Economic Sciences in Memory of Alfred Nobel was awarded jointly to Gunnar Myrdal and Friedrich August von Hayek "for their pioneering work in the theory of money and economic fluctuations and for their penetrating analysis of the interdependence of economic, social and institutional phenomena".

Overview[edit] Social inequality is found in almost every society. In tribal societies, for example, a tribal head or chieftain may hold some privileges, use some tools, or wear marks of office to which others do not have access, but the daily life of the chieftain is very much like the daily life of any other tribal member. Anthropologists identify such highly egalitarian cultures as " kinship -oriented", which appear to value social harmony more than wealth or status. These cultures are contrasted with materially oriented cultures in which status and wealth are prized and competition and conflict are common. Kinship-oriented cultures may actively work to prevent social hierarchies from developing because they believe that could lead to conflict and instability. As social complexity increases, inequality tends to increase along with a widening gap between the poorest and the most wealthy members of society. People with special skills were not viewed as superior compared to the rest. The leaders do not have the power they only have influence. The norms and the beliefs the egalitarian society holds are for sharing equally and equal participation. Simply there are no classes. Ranked society mostly is agricultural communities who hierarchically grouped from the chief who is viewed to have a status in the society. In this society, people are clustered regarding status and prestige and not by access to power and resources. The chief is the most influential person followed by his family and relative, and those further related to him are less ranked. Stratified society is societies which horizontally ranked into the upper class, middle class, and lower class. The classification is regarding wealth, power, and prestige. The upper class are mostly the leaders and are the most influential in the society. The social status is also hereditary from one generation to the next. Political inequality is the difference brought about by the ability to access federal resources which therefore have no civic equality. In treatment and responsibility difference some people are more benefited and can quickly receive more privileged than others. In working stations, some are given more responsibilities and hence better compensations and more benefits than the rest even when equally qualified. Membership inequality this is the number of members in a family, nation or of faith. Life inequality is brought about by the disparity of opportunities if presented they improves a person life quality. Finally, the income and wealth inequality is the disparity due to what an individual can earn on a daily basis contributing to their total revenue either monthly or yearly. In health care, some individuals receive better and more professional care compared to others. They are also expected to pay more for these services. Social class differential comes evident during the public gathering where upper-class people given the best places to seat, the hospitality they receive and the first priorities they receive. Ascribed characteristics are those present at birth or assigned by others and over which an individual has little or no control. Examples include sex, skin colour, eye shape, place of birth, sexuality, gender identity, parentage and social status of parents. Achieved characteristics are those which we earn or choose; examples include level of education, marital status, leadership status and other measures of merit. Theoretical approaches to explaining social inequality concentrate on questions about how such social differentiations arise, what types of resources are being allocated for example, reserves versus resources , [11] what are the roles of human cooperation and conflict in allocating resources, and how do these differing types and forms of inequality affect the overall functioning of a society? The variables considered most important in explaining inequality and the manner in which those variables combine to produce the inequities and their social consequences in a given society can change across time and place. In effect, globalization reduces the distances of time and space, producing a global interaction of cultures and societies and social roles that can increase global inequities. One end of this ideological continuum can be called " Individualist ", the other " Collectivist ". Inequality provides for differing goods and services to be offered on the open market , spurs ambition, and provides incentive for industriousness and innovation. At the other end of the continuum, collectivists place little to no trust in "free market" economic systems, noting widespread lack of access among specific groups or classes of individuals

to the costs of entry to the market. Widespread inequalities often lead to conflict and dissatisfaction with the current social order. Such ideologies include Fabianism and socialism. Inequality, in these ideologies, must be reduced, eliminated, or kept under tight control through collective regulation. While, in general, eastern societies tend toward collectivism, elements of individualism and free market organization can be found in certain regions and historical eras. Classic Chinese society in the Han and Tang dynasties, for example, while highly organized into tight hierarchies of horizontal inequality with a distinct power elite also had many elements of free trade among its various regions and subcultures. There is a change in literacy, income distribution, education and health status. The movement can be vertical or horizontal. Vertical is the upward or downward movement along social strata which occurs due to change of jobs or marriage. Horizontal movement along levels that are equally ranked. Intra-generational mobility is a social status change in a generation single lifetime. For example, a person moves from a junior staff in an organization to the senior management. The absolute management movement is where a person gains better social status than their parents, and this can be due to improved security, economic development, and better education system. Relative mobility is where some individual are expected to have higher social ranks than their parents. Under this line of thinking, adequately designed social and political institutions are seen as ensuring the smooth functioning of economic markets such that there is political stability, which improves the long-term outlook, enhances labour and capital productivity and so stimulates economic growth. With higher economic growth, net gains are positive across all levels and political reforms are easier to sustain. This may explain why, over time, in more egalitarian societies fiscal performance is better, stimulating greater accumulation of capital and higher growth. Social class is delineated by a number of variables, some of which change across time and place. For Karl Marx, there exist two major social classes with significant inequality between the two. The two are delineated by their relationship to the means of production in a given society. Those two classes are defined as the owners of the means of production and those who sell their labour to the owners of the means of production. In capitalistic societies, the two classifications represent the opposing social interests of its members, capital gain for the capitalists and good wages for the labourers, creating social conflict. Max Weber uses social classes to examine wealth and status. For him, social class is strongly associated with prestige and privileges. It may explain social reproduction, the tendency of social classes to remain stable across generations maintaining most of their inequalities as well. Such inequalities include differences in income, wealth, access to education, pension levels, social status, socioeconomic safety-net. Each of these classes can be further subdivided into smaller classes e. Occupation is the primary determinant of a person class since it affects their lifestyle, opportunities, culture, and kind of people one associates with. Class based families include the lower class who are the poor in the society. They have limited opportunities. Working class are those people in blue-collar jobs and usually, affects the economic level of a nation. The upper middle class are professionals who are strong because of economic resources and supportive institutions. Social stratification is the hierarchical arrangement of society about social class, wealth, political influence. Some roles for examples doctors, engineers, lawyers are highly ranked, and thus they give orders while the rest receive the orders. Castes system usually ascribed to children during birth whereby one receives the same stratification as of that of their parents. The caste system has been linked to religion and thus permanent. The stratification may be superior or inferior and thus influences the occupation and the social roles assigned to a person. Estate system is a state or society where people in this state were required to work on their land to receive some services like military protection. Communities ranked according to the nobility of their lords. The class system is about income inequality and socio-political status. People can move the classes when they increase their level of income or if they have authority. People are expected to maximize their innate abilities and possessions. In a given society, the distribution of individual or household accumulation of wealth tells us more about variation in well-being than does income, alone. When researchers use quantitative variables such as income or wealth to measure inequality, on an examination of the data, patterns are found that indicate these other social variables contribute to income or wealth as intervening variables. Significant inequalities in income and wealth are found when specific socially defined categories of people are compared. It is to say that these other socially defined characteristics can, and often do, intervene in the valuation of merit. Gender inequality[edit]

Gender as a social inequality is whereby women and men are treated differently due to masculinity and femininity by dividing labor, assigning roles, and responsibilities and allocating social rewards. Sex- and gender-based prejudice and discrimination, called sexism, are major contributing factors to social inequality. Most societies, even agricultural ones, have some sexual division of labour and gender-based division of labour tends to increase during industrialization. Women are underrepresented in political activities and decision making processes in most states in both the Global North and Global South. These discussions seek to identify and remedy widespread, institutionalized barriers to access for women in their societies. By making use of gender analysis, researchers try to understand the social expectations, responsibilities, resources and priorities of women and men within a specific context, examining the social, economic and environmental factors which influence their roles and decision-making capacity. By enforcing artificial separations between the social and economic roles of men and women, the lives of women and girls are negatively impacted and this can have the effect of limiting social and economic development. Transgender and gender-variant persons may express their gender through their appearance, the statements they make, or official documents they present. This effect can be seen in the corporate and bureaucratic environments of many countries, lowering the chances of women to excel. Once able to work, women should be titled to the same job security and safe working environments as men. While first-wave Liberal Feminist initiatives raised awareness about the lack of fundamental rights and freedoms that women have access to, second-wave feminism see also Radical Feminism highlighted the structural forces that underlie gender-based violence. Masculinities are generally constructed so as to subordinate femininities and other expressions of gender that are not heterosexual, assertive and dominant. These structures of masculinity ultimately contribute to the vast amounts of gendered violence, marginalization and suppression that women, queer, transgender, gender variant and gender non-conforming persons face. Others point out that patriarchal states tend to scale and claw back their social policies relative to the disadvantage of women. Racism is whereby some races are more privileged and are allowed to venture into the labor market and are better compensated than others. Ethnicity is the privilege one enjoys for belonging to a particular ethnic group. Even though race has no biological connection, it has become a socially constructed category capable of restricting or enabling social status. Racial inequality can also result in diminished opportunities for members of marginalized groups, which in turn can lead to cycles of poverty and political marginalization. Racial and ethnic categories become a minority category in a society.

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A key figure in the latter approach was Gunnar Myrdal, the Swedish social scientist who in was invited by the Carnegie Corporation of New York to carry out a study of the 'Negro problem' in the United States.

It should be noted that establishing firm causal links between globalization, simply understood as increasing openness to trade and investment flows, and increasing inequality within and across countries can be an elusive task. First, the debate on what engenders economic growth is crucial to the discussion on economic inequality, with the assumption that the absence of economic growth equals the absence of economic development, strictly defined. Second, the issue of worldwide inequality raises a number of questions about the role of key international organizations. Crucially, economic inequality can easily translate into political inequality, such as disparities in representation and voice, in international organizations. In this respect, it can not only undermine the legitimacy of these organizations but also hamper efforts at international cooperation. When shaped by the rich, these organizations can easily underemphasize, as some authors contend, issues that matter deeply to the poor, including migration as a tool of economic development. At the same time, it is important to assess whether foreign aid provided by the rich—often, though not exclusively, through international organizations—engenders economic development. Authors disagree on how and whether aid helps. Third, the issue of worldwide inequalities invokes normative questions, such as whether global inequality matters, what the duties of the rich toward the poor across the world should be, and whether such duties should exist in the first place. In exploring the duties of the rich toward the poor, scholars once again emphasize many of the negative repercussions of inequality, including reduced levels of social cohesion nationally and internationally, power asymmetries between the rich and the poor at international organizations, and the way inequality stifles the political voice of the poor, both domestically and in international forums. Fourth, there is a lively debate on the interrelationship between inequality and violent conflict, such as civil wars and terrorism, with authors disagreeing on the extent to which and the mechanism through which poverty and inequality relate to incidences of violence. The literature on global economic inequality is inevitably dominated by econometric analyses. General Overviews on Globalization Globalization, understood as openness to trade and investment and the institutions that govern this interdependence, is a historical process Held, et al. The following works are chosen for their significance to understanding worldwide inequalities, as they discuss, implicitly or explicitly, not only how the world became more integrated again in the post—World War II period but also how a specific set of principles—neoliberal principles of privatization, liberalization, and deregulation—came to mark globalization, especially from the onward see especially Singer and Stiglitz For instance, as Pritchett argues, globalization has accompanied divergence between rich and poor countries, renewing the debate on worldwide inequality, and Hurrell and Woods emphasizes asymmetric influences of globalization on states with different strengths. Wolf largely emphasizes the positive repercussions of globalization on states and narrowing interstate inequalities. Other relevant work on globalization is listed under the heading International Organizations and Global Inequality for instance, Bhagwati Gilpin discusses key debates and issues in international political economy, including the evolution of theories of economic development. Understanding the International Economic Order. Princeton University Press, On the topic of economic development, chapter 12 discusses different theories of economic development, ranging from import substitution to neoliberal economics. Politics, Economics, and Culture. Stanford University Press, Of particular concern to this topic, it discusses the stratifications—developed versus developing countries—as well as the changing role of developing countries in the global economy. Hurrell, Andrew, and Ngaire Woods. Journal of International Studies Available online for purchase or by subscription. This article discusses the asymmetric impact of globalization on states with varying strengths and also includes a systematic discussion of the liberal accounts of globalization as well as the emergence of a transnational civil society. Globalization, Poverty and Inequality: Between a Rock and a Hard Place. The core argument is that globalization, by altering production and trade relations, exacerbates global poverty. Focusing on the first period of globalization late 19th century, the

authors trace the interaction among forces of globalization, trade and migration, and domestic policies. It shows the divergence between the growth rates of developed and developing countries and the convergence within the former group of countries. The Ethics of Globalization. Yale University Press, The book, with a utilitarian focus, examines the kind of ethical questions that confound a globalized world. This expands on Stiglitz see International Organizations and Global Inequality to discuss the asymmetric influences of international organization on developed versus developing countries, including the role of intellectual property rights in trade and the management of global financial markets. Users without a subscription are not able to see the full content on this page. Please subscribe or login. How to Subscribe Oxford Bibliographies Online is available by subscription and perpetual access to institutions. For more information or to contact an Oxford Sales Representative [click here](#).

Chapter 4 : Gunnar Myrdal - Wikipedia

Gunnar Myrdal, a Social Democrat, and one of the fathers of the Swedish welfare state of the s, helped draft many social and economic programs. In America, he had become famous for his.

He was a critic of mainstream neoclassical economics and a proponent of institutionalist economics. In a work published in English in as *Monetary Equilibrium* , Myrdal examined the implications of banks maintaining a high loan rate, which results in low investment, low aggregate demand, and unemployment. This analysis is sometimes seen as a precursor of Keynesian analysis. However, it focuses more on expectational issues and dynamics rather than on equilibrium with unemployment, which is arguably central to Keynesian analysis. Following this, Myrdal and his wife, Alva, became actively involved with politics and policymaking, playing a major role in the creation of the Swedish welfare state in the s. In the s Myrdal served in the Swedish parliament, as chairman of the Planning Commission, as minister of Trade and Commerce, and as executive secretary of the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe. Following his purely theoretical work on money, his scholarly contributions became increasingly critical of mainstream neoclassical economics, leading him to adopt what may be called the institutionalist approach. He saw an interdependence between economic and noneconomic factors, and criticized the neglect of noneconomic factors by most economists. In addition, he was critical of the tendency of many economists to hide their values under the guise of objectivity, and he argued that economists should make their value premises explicit; his own values emphasized equity and concern for the poor and the underprivileged, in addition to efficiency. Although these aspects of his writings mark a departure from his earlier work, his emphasis on cumulative processes and dynamics, in contrast to the static equilibrium analysis of neoclassical economics, reveal continuity. In his *An American Dilemma* , Myrdal applied the cumulative causation approach to the study of race relations in the United States , explaining discrimination and the poor conditions of African Americans in terms of the interplay of low opportunities, low incentives, and hence low effort for instance, in obtaining a better education. In *Economic Theory and Under-developed Regions* , he examined the problem of inequality among nations, and explained increasing international inequality in terms of cumulative causation. He pointed out that although there are spread effects from rich to poor countriesâ€™due, for example, to economic expansion in the former increasing the demand for products from the latterâ€™backwash effects, involving increasing returns and external economies leading to a high level of profitability in rich countries and the siphoning of capital from poor countries, tend to outweigh them. While the cumulative causation concept provides a fruitful approach to analyzing vicious circles and rising inequality, it is problematic because it does not distinguish between unstable cases and situations in which the cumulative process converges to a stable equilibrium. Among the many contributions of this work are: This view, and his concern for economic and social justice, made him a strong advocate of interventionist government policies and planning. He was also in favor of applying the concept of the welfare state to the world as a whole, for instance, through increases in foreign aid to poor nations. However, his discussion of soft states and his criticism of foreign aid because of its diversion to corrupt politicians suggest that he was not blind to the problems of the interventionist approach. *The Essential Gunnar Myrdal*. New York and London: The Negro Problem and Modern Democracy. *Economic Theory and Under-developed Regions*. *An Inquiry into the Poverty of Nations*. Gunnar Myrdal, World Development, July, Amitava Krishna Dutt Pick a style below, and copy the text for your bibliography.

Chapter 5 : Review: The Impact of Inequality by Richard G Wilkinson | Books | The Guardian

Karl Gunnar Myrdal (Swedish: [kɛ̂rˈmyːrˈdɑːl]; 6 December - 17 May) was a Swedish economist and blog.quintoapp.com , he received the Nobel Memorial Prize in Economic Sciences with Friedrich Hayek for "their pioneering work in the theory of money and economic fluctuations and for their penetrating analysis of the interdependence of economic, social and institutional phenomena."

Schwartz and bounded categories Tilly , or hierarchical relations Burt by which human populations at varying levels of aggregation are differentiated. The construct often is used interchangeably with related though relatively more specific concepts such as social class, social stratification, socioeconomic status, power, privilege, cumulative advantage, dependence, and dominance. It is relevant for the study of social systems that range in size from the dyad Simmel to the modern world system Wallerstein Here the approach is to define inequality in terms of the distribution of socially valued attributes such as education, income, information, health, and influence in a population. However, distributional phenomena can be examined from one of two very different assumptions. The first assumption views inequality as being an outcome of or generated by the underlying distribution of valued traits among individuals. In this sense, it refers to "regular differences in power, goods, services, and privileges among defined sets" of actors Granovetter and Tilly The second assumption views inequality strictly as a system-level property with individual-level differences that are defined as derivative rather than generative Blau Distributions such as the size of the system and its total volume of resources are examined as higher levels of aggregation, with the goal of determining the overall level of inequality oligarchy across systems and without reference to individual differences e. Both approaches operationalize inequality along criteria that usually are measurable at the level of individual actors persons, races, gender categories, organizations, nation-states in a system. Pareto proposed that economic and political inequality emerged from the distribution and redistribution of "congenital abilities" that were valued within social systems. Sorokin proposed similar arguments to explain social and cultural processes of mobility and inequality. Those authors argued that social inequality results from the differential distribution of societal rewards to individuals on the basis of their relative achievement of ranked social positions. This achievement process, with its implications for social mobility, was formally specified by Blau and Duncan , who established that educational attainment mediated the process of intergenerational social mobility among men. Those researchers defined social inequality as socioeconomic status based on the economic and prestige rewards accorded to achieved occupational positions in American society. The strong parallel between this model of inequality and the neoclassical model of human capital see Becker is well established Wright The most prominent distributional theories of inequality, however, are founded on macrosocial views of the division of labor, the rationalization of authority, and the distribution of social and economic rewards in industrial societies. Thus, social inequality in industrial society developed along economic and political dimensions to produce the multidimensional bases of inequality: Accordingly, distributional inequality can be concerned with more than the single dimension of individual socioeconomic outcomes. It also addresses macrosocial patterns of inequality Eisenstadt The intersection of graduated and nominal parameters creates diverse systems or populations with differing distributional properties that cannot be reduced to an original individual source. Following this approach, indicators of inequality can be defined in terms such as Lorenz curves e. The emergence of the new global economy over the last two decades of the twentieth century has been associated with what has been characterized as a "surge" in wage and household income inequality Gottschalk and Smeeding and a "winner-take-all income market" Levy in advanced industrial countries. By and large, the growth of very high incomes in some sectors and the stagnation of wages in selected labor markets have produced a widening distribution of income. Distributional measures of economic inequality such as Gini and Theil coefficients reveal growing inequality among employed workers across advanced industrial societies with some of the highest inequality observed in the United States. Economic inequality also may intersect with the nominal category of race, for example, and produce more diverse outcomes than traditional functional or neoclassical economic theories would predict. This treatment of inequality, which is

based on notions of dispersion and association, departs from the simple reduction of unequal outcomes to individual attributes and embeds the process in extended distributional contexts. Other distributional approaches introduce constructs to explain inequality at levels above individual attributes, although individuals usually remain the units of analysis. Spatial and temporal contexts, for example, define and constrain distributions of individual outcomes. The examination of occupational mobility within organizational or labor-market contexts attempts to nest the process of inequality in the workplace within organizational and occupational boundaries. The availability of occupational positions within a system is seen as being independent of the motivations and other attributes of workers. Vacancy-chain models have been particularly useful for examining closed opportunity systems, such as internal labor markets Sorensen

Distributions of individuals in systems of inequality also are influenced by temporal factors. Succeeding cohorts of U. Here the approach is to define inequality in terms of "the relative position in a matrix of oppositions" Schwartz , p. Vertical classifications grow out of antagonistic and contradictory interests in the relations of "objective" positions in the social division of labor, not out of the dispersed motivations and interests of individuals. Dominance and subordination emerge from the objective opposition of social categories. Dichotomous, binary, and polar conceptions of inequality e. Some researchers have argued that this approach to inequality may be the most ancient in human social consciousness Ossowski ; Schwartz Class theories that follow Marxian frameworks dominate this approach Braverman ; Wright Since all value is ultimately produced by labor, all capitalist profit must be at the expense of labor. The objective positions of the owning class bourgeoisie and the laboring class proletariat therefore are necessarily antagonistic. Advanced capitalist systems sustain the exploitation of labor through rationalized job-definition systems and the degradation of work Braverman Wright has argued, furthermore, that in advanced capitalist societies, the elaborate differentiation of functions originally embodied in entrepreneurial capitalism into many different categories has not overcome the fundamental oppositional inequality of its origins; contradictory class positions continue to exist as a result of the underlying structure of capitalist relations. Oppositional frameworks lend themselves to the examination of classlike relations such as those observable in race- and gender-centered systems of inequality. These approaches argue that race is an invariant principle of vertical classification that is masked by ideologies of economic progress and attainment Pinkney Debates regarding the inevitability of racial opposition as the basis of inequality center on the substitutability of race and class as categories in the recent history of U. Wilson has proposed the controversial argument that class inequality has superseded race inequality as the basis of cross-race differences in economic and social outcomes. However, contemporary feminist theories provide the strongest argument for gender inequality as an oppositional, vertical classification system. This system of inequality leads inevitably to a conflict of interests and to the emergence of competing ideologies. Since the notion of dominance is central to vertical-classification approaches to inequality, these approaches are readily applied to the analysis of large-scale systems of inequality, such as the state Skocpol and the modern world system Wallerstein Mechanisms of domination extend beyond class or classlike interests and are observable in the historical relations of nation-states Reddy and multistate sectors of the modern world system Wallerstein Asymmetrical relations of exchange and dependence between states and geopolitical state sectors create relations of dominance, which define global inequalities. Those inequalities can be formulated as distributional phenomena by following a functional framework; however, the historical analysis of dominance systems lends itself more readily to oppositional analysis. The classification of the world system into core and periphery sectors that resulted from historically contingent factors introduces notions of centrality and dominance that suggest more than an underlying distribution of resources Wallerstein Relationships of inequality persist because participants in paired categories adapt to and participate in the perpetuation of those arrangements. Here the approach usually is to define the form of social relations rather than the attributes of individuals in those relations and to account for patterns of unequal relations without referring to oppositions. Inequality or dominance stems from positions in hierarchical relations, not from the a priori possession or control of resources or power by individuals, groups, or categories Marsden This relational approach to inequality can be traced to Simmel , whose studies of the structures of superordinationâ€”subordination by persons, groups, and principles continue to inform research

on hierarchical relations and social networks in modern life Coleman Because social relationships have formal properties such as connectedness, transitivity, reciprocity, and multiplexity, they are measurable units of analysis in the study of social inequality within populations at all levels, from siblings to communities to transnational trading systems Lin and Marsden These social units make up complex configurations of social relations within which distinctive positions of relative equivalence or centrality can be revealed Burt Thus, in their study of coalitions and elite structures in the German community of Altneustadt, Laumann and Pappi determined the relational bases of influence between natives and newcomers by using network techniques that emphasized associational patterns rather than personal attributes. Patterns of social distance and connectedness among corporate actors, not the preexisting distribution of resources, defined the influence process in that community. A study by Granovetter of the job-search process clearly demonstrates the relative utility of relational over distributional approaches to inequality. Granovetter demonstrates that weak ties, rather than strong ties, in a community prevail in a successful job search. These ties operate independently of the attributes of individual job seekers. The "strength of weak ties" phenomenon can be extended beyond the job-search process to examine structures of relational inequality in different contexts. Studies of interlocking directorates and informational brokerage systems, for example, demonstrate that loosely coupled relational systems of different forms produce different systems of social inequality Burt The network of ties constitutes a social-constraint context within which actors are "captured. The strength of this approach is that advertising, which is more blatantly co-optive, does not escape public suspicion, whereas philanthropy does so more easily. Firms in an economic sector perform unequally as a result of their relative co-optive relations with the public, and the public has a co-optive relationship as consumers in that context. Finally, it should be mentioned that despite the rationale provided above for the bulk of sociological research on relational inequality, the relational approach has been used to examine the importance of individual resources for social inequality. Indeed, early experimental efforts to study small group processes of inequality demonstrated that both individual resources and social relations can create systems of inequality, whether measured as leadership processes or as communication networks Thibaut and Kelley More recently, studies of what Burt has termed "ego-centered" networks examine network position itself as an individual resource with implications for social inequality. The distributional approach that examines social inequality as a graduated dimension depends primarily on sample data and can be directed toward individual as well as structural explanations of inequality. The relational approach, which provides a direct method for examining the social context of inequality, may use sample or case data to map the configurations of the relations of inequality with implications for explanation at both the individual and structural levels. Stewart "Productivity Differences among Scientists: Evidence for Accumulative Advantage. University of Chicago Press. Blum, and Joseph E. Schwartz "Heterogeneity and Intermarriage. Braverman, Harry "Labor and Monopoly Capital: The Degradation of Work in the Twentieth Century. Crystal, Stephen "Economic Status of the Elderly. Binstock and Linda K. Davis, Kingsley, and Wilbert E. Moore "Some Principles of Stratification. Granovetter, Mark Getting a Job. Poppi Networks of Collective Action: A Perspective on Community Influence Systems. American Incomes and Economic Change. Lin, Nan, and Peter V. Sage Marsden, Peter V. Marx, Karl "Capital: A Critique of Political Economy. Schollaert "The Concentration of Wealth: Myrdal, Gunnar An American Dilemma: The Negro Problem and Modern Democracy. Henretta Age and Inequality:

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The Myrdal study concluded that social discrimination was powerful as a means of keeping Negroes down in all other respects, acknowledging that it is not possible to isolate a sphere of life and call it strictly "social," and affirming that the major effect of social inequality was the isolation of blacks to keep them economically.

The Impact of Inequality: The poor have what their grandparents would think unimaginable luxuries - TVs, telephones and washing machines. So why should it matter to them if in some unseen stratosphere the gated kleptocrats on company boards award themselves staggering sums of money? Does anyone really mind the gap? That is a reasonable question and it niggles away at those on the left, too. Equality has gone out of fashion. Social justice under Labour means heaving the poorest over the poverty threshold and lifting the life chances of children from lower social classes. Tony Blair said early on that he was not bothered about wealth, only about abolishing poverty. Talk of inequality sounds like the old politics of envy. Equality of opportunity, yes, but equality for its own sake, why? Here is the answer. Richard Wilkinson is a professor of social epidemiology, an expert in public health. From that vantage point he sees the world in terms of its physical and psychological wellbeing, surveying great sweeps of health statistics through sociological eyes. He has assembled a mountain of irrefutable evidence from all over the world showing the damage done by extreme inequality. However rich a country is, it will still be more dysfunctional, violent, sick and sad if the gap between social classes grows too wide. Poorer countries with fairer wealth distribution are healthier and happier than richer, more unequal nations. This book is timely since the NHS annual report has just found that Labour has missed two key goals, both symptoms of inequality. Infant mortality and life expectancy figures are both moving in the wrong direction. If Labour is perplexed as to the reason why, Wilkinson can suggest plenty of answers here. Life expectancy in rich nations correlates precisely with levels of equality. So Greece, with half the GDP per head, has longer life expectancy than the US, the richest and most unequal country with the lowest life expectancy in the developed world. The people of Harlem live shorter lives than the people of Bangladesh. When you take out the violence and drugs, two-thirds of the reason is heart disease. Is that bad diet? No, says Wilkinson, it is mainly stress, the stress of living at the bottom of the pecking order, on the lowest rung, the stress of disrespect and lack of esteem. Bad nutrition does less harm than depression. The book blisters with research like this: When the high-status monkeys were all put together and low-status monkeys put in another enclosure, all the pecking orders changed. When some previous high-rankers became subordinate they developed all the same physical symptoms, including a five-fold increase in arteriosclerosis within less than two years. Meanwhile, some of the low-rankers who suddenly found themselves dominant, had sharply dropped levels of stress hormone. People, says Wilkinson, are the same. Social status and respect matter beyond anything, and the psychological damage done by being at the bottom is crippling. A survey of Whitehall civil servants found junior ranks were three times more likely to die in a year than seniors, with a fine sliding gradation from top to bottom according to status. If one office was found to be killing three times more than another next door, it would be evacuated instantly. Yet social environment may matter almost as much as asbestos. The fairest countries have the highest levels of trust and social capital. The American states that have the more equal income distribution also have most social trust: New Hampshire, the most equal, is least likely to agree that "most people would try to take advantage of you if they got the chance". The wealth gap causes few to vote or participate in anything in a world of fear, conflict and hostility. It is not primarily five-a-day fruit and veg or obesity that need targeting, but social injustice itself. Infant mortality is mainly a result of low-birth weight babies, something the government has tried hard to improve. Wilkinson shows that these days small premature babies are not caused by bad diet: It is stress in pregnancy that does it, high cortisol levels which affect the foetus for life - and poorer mothers are more depressed, with less social support. Psyche matters more than vitamins, all through life. An orphanage in hungry post-war Germany found children on the same diet were found to have grown most under the kindest matron and least under the unkindest matron. Poverty in rich nations is not a number or the absence of a particular necessity. A poor vicar may bring up children well on lentils and respect. But for most people respect is measured in money. Low pay

tells people that their labour and they themselves are worth little. Poverty is not, as the government imagines, a line to pull people over but it is a position on a line. If it tilts too sharply upwards, the pain of those at the bottom can be measured in hard statistics. This book is evidence for what common sense already knows. Children on free school meals, with no holidays to talk about, unable to afford the school trips, who never invite anyone back to a shabby home, painfully understand their place in the hierarchy from their first day at school. Adults know the same, noses pressed up against the window of lifestyle shows on TV. This is a book that puts the numbers to a psychological truth: